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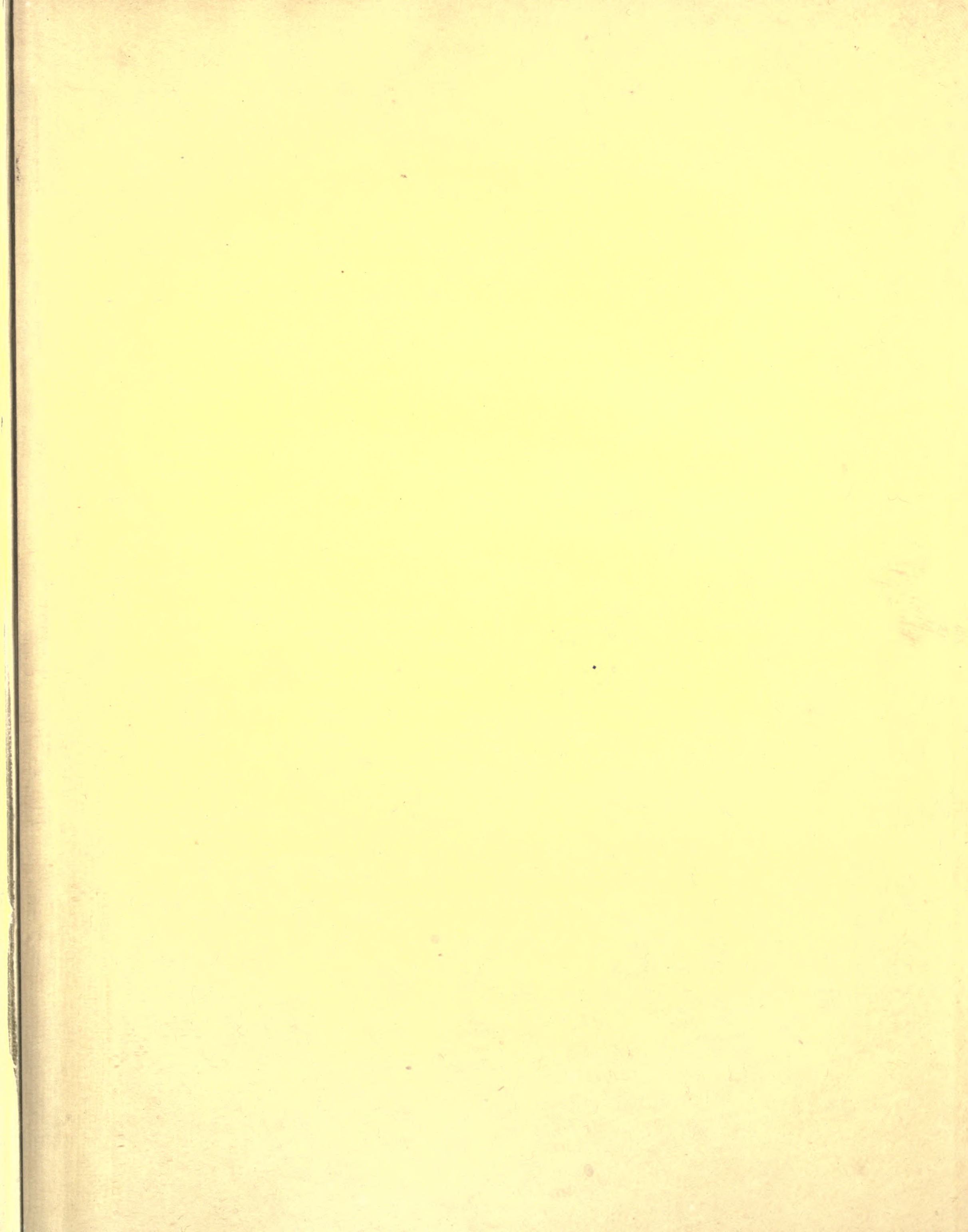

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For The Year 1843-4.

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VOL. XLVI.

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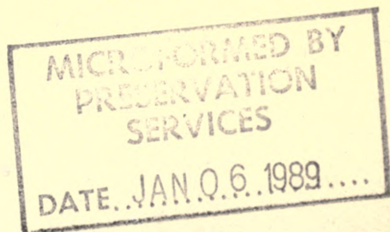

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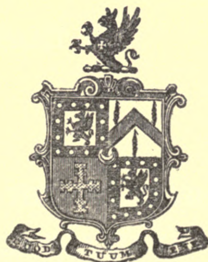

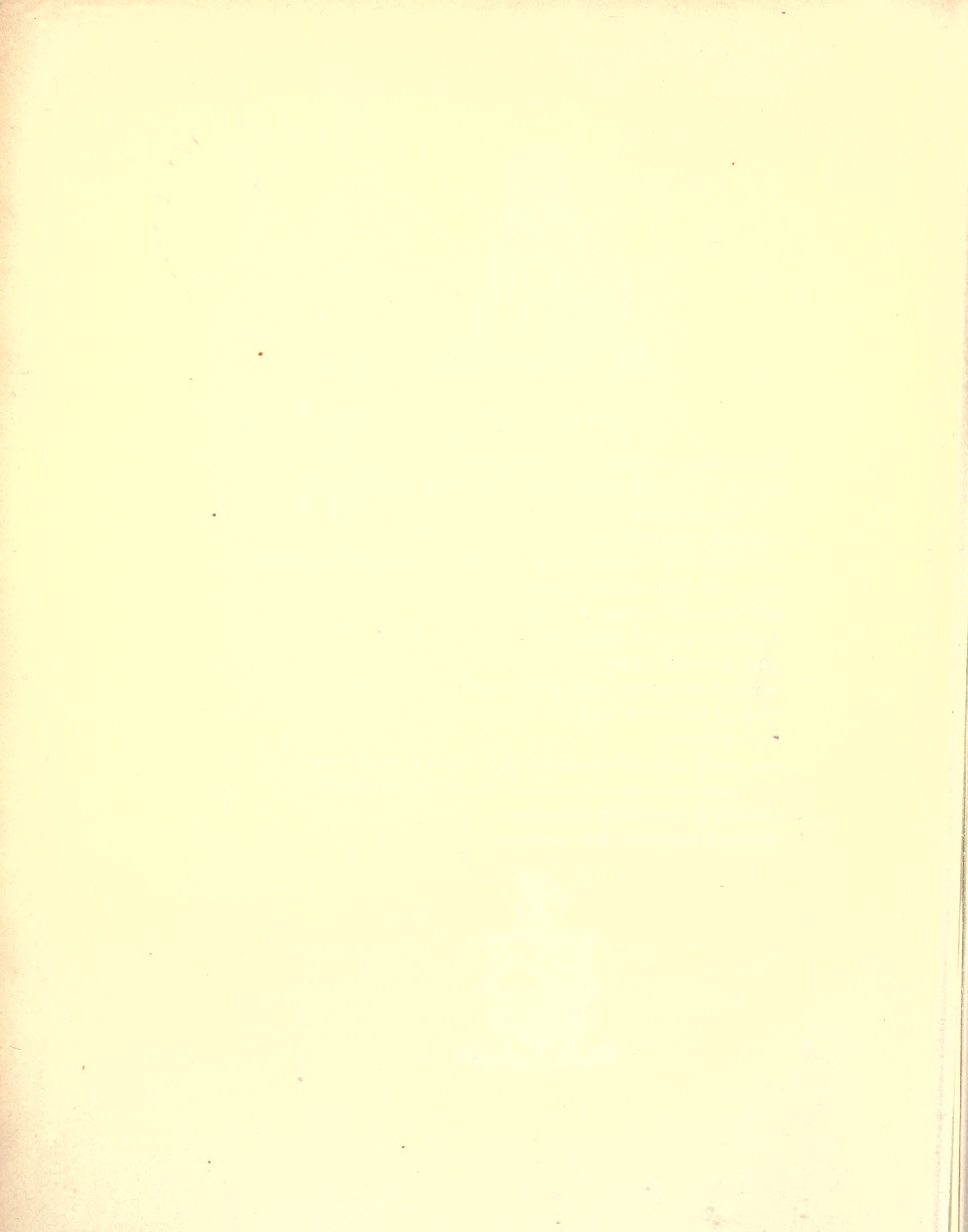

THE

HOUSE AND FARM ACCOUNTS

OF THE

SHUTTLEWORTHS

OF GAWTHORPE HALL, IN THE COUNTY OF LANCASTER,

AT

SMITHILS AND GAWTHORPE,

FROM SEPTEMBER 1582 TO OCTOBER 1621.

EDITED BY
JOHN HARLAND, ESQ., F.S.A.

PART IV.

PRINTED FOR THE CHETHAM SOCIETY.
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Macclesfield Forest. Spelled in the Accounts Maxfilde and Meyxfilde. In September 1590, Mr. Warren sent a stag from the forest to Smithills, the man having for his fee 6s. 8d.; and again in September 1591, a fat stag was sent, and the same fee given.

Mace. A well-known spice, in great request in culinary preparations. In a list of spices in the Accounts p. 213, $\frac{3}{4}$ lb. of mace cost 5s. 7d. In old accounts it is usually found with cloves. In a gild account at Luton, co. Beds. for an anniversary feast (1527-8) is $4\frac{1}{4}$ oz. of cloves and mace 3s. 4d. In 1530 mace and cloves were 9s. per lb. There are numerous entries in the Accounts. See Index.

Mackarel. (*Scomber scombrus.*) This fine fish visits almost every coast of Great Britain. May and June are the busiest months for mackarel drift-net fishing. Its English name is supposed to be derived from the Latin word *macularelli*, little spots, because it is marked on the back with black stripes. It was in use in the Norman days of England, and in 1390 is a recipe for mackarel in sauce: smite them in pieces, cast them in water and verjuice, seethe them with mints and other herbs, colour it green or yellow, and mess it forth. (*Cury.*) In the Accounts, in May 1609, 12d. was given for mackarels, at Islington.

Macorowines. Macaroons, sweetmeats, made of almonds, white of egg, rosewater, sugar, &c. They were in favour *temp.* Elizabeth, and are still. They occur in the Accounts in a list of spices p. 213, 1 lb. costing 2s. 6d.

Mallards. (*Malart*, French.) Wild drakes or male ducks. (*B. Dic.*) More correctly the wild duck (*Anas Boschas*), the origin of our domestic duck. They were formerly much more abundant in our island than at present, in consequence of the drainage of our marshes. Pennant mentions that during one season 31,200 ducks, widgeons and teals were taken in ten decoys, near Wainfleet, two-thirds of the whole being mallards. Willoughby mentions that 4,000 wild ducks were taken at one drive in Deeping fen, and Latham records 2,646 taken in two days near Spalding, by a method now prohibited; and the act limits the time for taking ducks in decoys from the latter end of October till February. A recipe of 1390 for "Sauce Noir for Malard," consists of bread and blood boiled, drawn through a cloth with vinegar, mixed with ginger, pepper and the grease of the mallard, salted and boiled and then served forth. (*Cury.*) "Malardes in Cyne" [a kind of sauce.] The mallards chopped, are to be seethed with good beef broth, mixed with minced onions, wine and pepper; then to be added bread steeped in broth, with cloves, mace and mulberries, coloured with sanders

and saffron, with sugar or honey, and a little vinegar. (*Arundel MS. 15th century.*) In the Accounts, in January 1591, five teals and a mallard cost 2s. 2d.; in February 1617, three mallards come into the weekly consumption of the kitchen at Gawthorpe.

MALLE OR MAIL. (*Malle*, French.) A kind of portmanteau or trunk, to travel with, for carrying letters and other things. (*B. Dic.*) A bag or trunk to carry goods in travelling; still used for the post-bag, and thence for the carriage which conveys the letters. (*Nares.*) *Minshew* speaks of "a male, bouget, or budget." In *Love's Labour Lost* we have "No salve in the male, sir." In *Damon and Pythias*, "To have a male ready to put in other folk's stuff." In the Accounts, in December 1586, 7d. was given for a cord, "which did malle a trunk when my mistress went to London."

MALLE OR MALE SADDLE. A saddle for a mail or portmanteau.

MALLYN REASINES. Malaga raisins; 12 lb. cost 3s. in November 1617; see pp. 213, 224.

MALT. *Harrison*, in his *Description of England*, cap. vi., "Of the food and diet of the English," gives a long account of the processes of malting and brewing, especially in the houses of gentlemen and yeomen, "the usual rate for mine own family, and once a month practised by my wife and her maid servants," which is too long for reprinting here. Eight bushels of good malt ground upon our quern, saving mill-toll, add half a bushel of wheat meal and so much of oats small ground, and so mix them with the malt. The first liquor, full eighty gallons, is poured softly, boiling hot, into the malt; then the second liquor is poured, and 2 lb. of the best English hops, and after [wards] the brack-wort or char-wort is added, with ½ oz. of arras [orris-powder] and half a quarter of an ounce of bayberries finely powdered, and a handful of wheat flour,—and, the brewing completed, three hogsheads of good beer are obtained. *Harrison* adds — I value my malt at 10s., my wood at 4s. which I buy, my hops at 20d., the spice at 2d., servants' wages 2s. 6d. with meat and drink, and the wearing of my vessel at 20d.; so that for 20s. I have ten score [200] gallons of beer or more, notwithstanding the loss in seething." The fattest standing water is considered the best for brewing. (*Harri.*) Though we have many excellent men-maltsters, it is properly the work and care of the woman, for it is a house work, and done altogether within doors: the art of making the malt and the several labours appertaining to the same, even from the vat to the kiln, is only the work of the housewife and the maid-servants to her appertaining. There may be malt of wheat, pease, lupins, vetches,

and such like, yet it is with us of no retained custom, nor is the drink wholesome or pleasant but strong and fulsome. I reduce all the kinds of barley for malt into three kinds, the clay-barley, the sandy-barley, and that which groweth on mixed soil. The best for malt is the clay-barley, that from mixed grounds the next, and the last and worst grain for this purpose is the sandy-barley. The clean clay-barley is best for profit in the sale drink, for strength and long lasting. That from mixed grounds will serve well for households and families, and the sandy-barley for the poor. At great length this writer describes the best situation and construction for a malt-house, floors, kiln, &c., "the French kiln being now of general use in this kingdom;" the bedding, fuel, the cisterns, &c., and the whole process of making malt, &c. As to making of oats into malt, a thing of general use in many parts where barley is scarce, as in Cheshire, Lancashire, &c., the art and skill is all one with that of barley. (*Mark.*) For entries in the Accounts, see ALE, BEER; BREWING, &c.

MANCHESTER. While the Shuttleworths were residing at Smithills, frequent visits were paid to Manchester, either to attend military musters and reviews, or to make purchases. In September 1582, 6s. 10d. was paid for spices at Manchester; on the 27th January 1583, a levy of a fifteenth was made in Halliwell for the maintenance of "the papists and rogues at Manchester," in a prison upon the old Salford bridge. The carriage of a letter from Manchester to Smithills cost 6d.; in April 1583, a fifteenth and a half was levied at Tingreave towards the maintenance of the prisoners and rogues at Manchester. The rent of Horwich or Horewood, and the bishop's rent, were paid at Manchester. In February 1584, a saddle, bridle, crupper, and stirrup leathers cost 16s. at Manchester. Wine, vinegar, &c. were bought there, and the entries are very numerous. See Index.

MANDATION. A mandate is a commandment judicial of the king or his justices, to have anything done for the dispatch of justice, and we read of the bishop's mandate to the sheriff, &c. (*Jacob.*) In March 1583, a mandation to the sheriff for William Stones cost 2s. 4d.

MAPS. In October 1621, eight maps cost 5s. 4d. Saxton's maps of all (35) the counties in England and Wales, published 1579, were amongst the earliest: the copy of this work which belonged to Sir Christopher Hatton, — the dancing chancellor of Queen Elizabeth, whom she called from some fancy her "Lids," — is now in Chetham's Library, Manchester, in fine preservation. Speed's maps of England and Wales (54) first appeared in 1608-10.

royal folio. The same maps were afterwards used for Speed's "Theatre of the Empire of Great Britain" (London 1611, folio), and a later edition appeared in 1676 (London atlas folio). In the old translation of "Camden's Britannia," 1610, several of Saxton's maps were used.

MARCHPANES. A sweet confectionary cake, resembling the modern macaroons, only of large size for the table, made broad and flat, and cut into slices or shapes. Amongst the new year's gifts to Queen Elizabeth, January 1st 1585, her master-cook presented her with "a fayre marchepayne." So, in January 1543, and January 1544, the king's master-cook sent a march-peyne to the Princess [afterwards Queen] Mary; doubtless as new year's gifts. In the Latin of the middle ages they were called *Martii panes*, which led Hermolaus Barbarus to make some inquiry into their origin, in a letter to Cardinal Piccolomini, who had sent some to him as a present. (*Polit. Epist.*) Balthasar Bonifacius says they were named from Marcus Apicius, the celebrated epicure. *Minshew* considers them to have been originally sacred to Mars, and to have been stamped with a castle, which is nearly the opinion of Hermolaus. The old English recipe books show them to have been composed of almonds and sugar, pounded and baked together. (*Nares*, who prints a recipe from "Delights for Ladies;" 1608.) Marchpane was a constant article in the desserts of our ancestors, and appeared sometimes on more solemn occasions. When Queen Elizabeth visited Cambridge, the University presented their Chancellor, Sir William Cecil, with two pair of gloves, a marchpane and two sugar-loaves. (*Peck's Desid. Curi.*) Castles and other things were often made of marchpane, to decorate splendid desserts, and were demolished by shooting or throwing sugar-plums at them. Taylor, the water-poet, has the lines —

> Castles for ladies and for carpet knights,
> Unmercifully spoiled at feasting fights,
> Where battering bullets are fine sugar'd plums.

Shakspere has the line in *Romeo and Juliet* —

> Good thou, save me a piece of marchpane.

In an old play, —

> Next some good curious marchpanes made
> Into the form of trumpets.

And Beaumont and Fletcher, in *Rule a Wife*, —

> A kind of marchpane men, that will not last, madam.

Mark. gives a recipe for the best marchpane, consisting of blanched Jordan

almonds, refined sugar in powder, damask rosewater, strewed over with sugar and washed with rosewater and sugar mixed for "ice," adorned with comfits, gilding, or devices, and baked crispy in a hot stove. Some mix cinnamon and ginger, finely powdered, with the paste. Another writer describes marchpane as a confection of pistachio nuts, almonds, sugar, &c., kept for use and made up in various forms; sometimes strewed with comfits, &c. *Price* gives a recipe, the ingredients being almonds, rose or orange-flower water, double refined sugar, &c. This was "iced" with sugar and white of egg, made large, cut when rolled out by a gutter plate, and edged about like a tart. You may colour, gild, or strew them with comfits, and form them in what shape you please. In *C. C. Dic.* are recipes both for macaroons and for plain, iced and royal marchpanes. They were made round, long, oval, jagged, or in the shape of a heart. The "royal" had apricot-marmalade, a coronet and rings of the paste, &c.

MARES. See note on HORSE; also Index.

MARKELAND, ROBERT, OF WIGAN. A noted horse-doctor of those days. He also bought and sold horses and cattle, and sold iron. In 1590 he is called the horse-marshal, i.e. master of the horse or stud-groom. See Index.

MARKETS. There are, as I take it, few great towns in England that have not their weekly markets, one or more, granted from the prince, in which all manner of provision for household is to be bought and sold, for ease and benefit of the country round about. . . . . . In most of these markets neither assizes of bread, nor orders for goodness and sweetness of grain, and other commodities that are brought thither to be sold, are any whit looked unto; but each one suffered to sell or set up what and how himself listeth; and this is one evident cause of dearth and scarcity in time of great abundance. . . . . . I find that in corn great abuse is daily suffered, to the great prejudice of the town and country, especially the poor artificer and householder, which tilleth no land, but labouring all the week to buy a bushel or two of grain on the market day, can there have none for his money, because badgers, loders, and common carriers of corn, do not only buy up all, but give above the price, to be served of great quantities. . . . . Nay, the poor man cannot often get any of the farmer at home, because he provideth altogether to serve the badger, or hath a hope grounded upon a greedy and insatiable desire of gain, that the sale will be better in the market; so that he [the poor man] must give 2d. or a groat more in a bushel than the last market craved, or else go without it, and sleep with a hungry belly. . . . . . Certes it is not dainty to see musty corn in many of

our great markets of England, which these great occupiers bring forth when they can keep it no longer. But as they are enforced oftentimes upon this one occasion somewhat to abate the price, so a plague is not seldom engendered thereby among the poorer sort, that of necessity must buy the same, whereby many thousands of all degrees are consumed; of whose deaths (in mine opinion) these farmers are not unguilty. . . . . . . It is a world also to see how most places of the realm are pestered with purveyors who take up eggs, butter, cheese, pigs, capons, hens, chickens, hogs, bacon, &c., in one market, under pretence of their commissions, and suffer their wives to sell the same, in another, or to poulterers of London. . . . Since the number of butter-men have so much increased . . . . . it is almost incredible to see how the price of butter is augmented; whereas when the owners were enforced to bring it to the market towns, and fewer of these butter-buyers were stirring, our butter was scarcely worth 1s. 6d. the gallon, that now is worth 3s. 4d., perhaps 5s. . . . . . This moreover is to be lamented, that one general measure is not in use throughout all England, but every market town hath in manner a several bushel, and the lesser it be, the more sellers it draweth to resort unto the same. . . . . . . Another thing there is in our markets worthy to be looked into, and that is the re-carriage of grain from the same into the lofts and sollars [garrets]; wherefore if it were ordered, that every seller should make his market by an hour, or else the bailiff or clerk of the market to make sale thereof according to his discretion, without liberty to the farmer to set up their corn in houses and chambers, I am persuaded that the prices of our grain would soon be abated. . . . . Finally, if men's barns might be indifferently viewed immediately after harvest, and a note gathered by an estimate, and kept by some appointed and trusty person for that purpose, we should have much more plenty of corn in our town crosses than as yet is commonly seen. . . . . In our markets all things are to be sold necessary for man's use, and there is our provision made commonly for all the week ensuing. (*Harri.*) For notices of markets and fairs in the Accounts see Notes and Index under the names of the places. Also FAIRS.

MARL, &c. (Welsh *marl*, Irish *marla*) perhaps from Anglo-Saxon *mearh*, marrow, aud so named from its rich softness — an earth or clay containing more or less carbonate of lime, and effervescing consequently with an acid. It is much used for manure. (*Webs.*) As to bushy and mossy ground *Fitz.* recommends making new marl-pits and new marling the lands, which is much better than either muck, dung or lime, for it will last twenty years

together, if it be well done, and shall be the better while it is land. I marvel greatly that in the common fields, where of old time hath been made many great marl-pits, the which hath done much good to the lands, that now-a-days no man doth occupy them; we make none others; and they need not to doubt but that there is marl now, as well as there was then; but, as meseemeth, there be two causes why. One is, the tenants be so doubtful of their lords, that if they should marl and make their holdings much better, they fear lest they should be put out, or make a great fine, or else to pay more rent. The second cause is, that men be disposed to idleness, and will not labour as they have done in times past, but pass for the time, as his father did before him; but yet meseemeth, a freeholder should not be in that condition, for he is in a surety, his chief lord cannot put him out, &c. And all other countries may take ensample at Chestershire and Lancastershire, for many of them that have so done have made the improvement as good as the land was before, &c. (*Fitz.*) To improve barren, sandy soils, after ploughing and breaking up the mould, *Mark.* says, you shall then with all expedition marl it; which, forasmuch as it is no general or common practice, in every part of this kingdom, I will first tell you what marl is, and then how to find it, dig it and use it. Marl (according to the definition of Master Bernard Palissy) is a natural yet an excellent soil, being an enemy to all the weeds that spring up of themselves, and giving a generative virtue to all seeds sown: or (for the plain husbandman's wording) it is a rich, stiff and tough clay, of a gluey substance, and not fat or oily, as some suppose. It hath been made so precious by some writers that it hath been accounted a fifth element. All conclude that there are four several colours in marl, yet one saith they are white, gray or russet, black and yellow; another, gray, blue, yellow and red; and a third saith there is a red and white, mixed like unto porphyry. Marl is so rich in itself and so excellent for continuance, that it will maintain and enrich barren grounds, the worst for ten years, some for twelve, some for thirty years. For finding it there is no better way for readiness or saving the charges than by a great augur or wimble of iron, made to receive many bits, one longer than another, and so resting one after another into the ground, to draw out the earth, till you find you are come to the marl, which perceived and an assay taken, you may then dig at your pleasure. It is commonly found in the lowest parts of high countries, near lakes and small brooks; and in the high parts of low countries, on the knolls of small hills, or within the clifts of high mountainous banks, which bound great rivers in.

When found you shall with mattocks and spades dig it up and carry it to your land, there laying it in big round heaps, within a yard or two one of another. When you have filled all over your ground, which should be done with as great speed as might be (for the ancient custom of this kingdom was, when any man went about to marl his ground, all his tenants and friends would come and help him to hasten on the work), you shall then spread all those heaps, and mixing the clay [marl] well with the sand, lay all smooth and level together. If you cannot get any perfect and rich marl, if then you can get of that earth which is called fullers' earth (and where the one is not, commonly ever the other is), then use it in the same manner as marl, and it is found to be very near as profitable. . . . . . Howsoever this weald [of Kent] be unfruitful and of a barren nature, yet by the benefit of margle or marl (as it is commonly called) it may be made not only equal in fertility with the other grounds in the shire, as well for corn as grass, but also superior to the greater parts. Which manner of bettering the ground was the ancient practice of our forefathers many years ago, as by the innumerable marl-pits digged and spent so many years past, the trees of two hundred or three hundred years old which do grow upon them, may most evidently appear. Besides which we have mention of marl in books of *gainage* or husbandry, written in the days of Edward II. or before; howbeit the same manner of tillage, by means of the civil wars (as well the Baron wars as those between the house of York and the family of Lancaster) was so given over and gone out of use, until these thirty or forty years, that it may be said to have been then newly born and revived, rather than restored. Marl is in name the fat or marrow of the earth, and Pliny says the Britons did use to amend their land with a certain invention called marga, that is the fat of the earth. (*Mark.*) In the old court-leet books of the manor of Manchester, are various entries of fines and amerciaments imposed on burgesses for making marl-pits or getting marl, on the lord's waste, without leave or license. Shudehill pits were old marl-pits, which gradually filled with water. The Daubholes, which afterwards became the Infirmary pond, were also marl-pits. In *Whitaker's Manchester* the Celtæ of Britain and of Gaul are said to have been the first to apply marl to the purposes of agriculture, and to call it marrow, margil, or marl. In Lancashire it is commonly found about two or three feet only beneath the level of the ground, and must always have been dug to the depth of as many yards only. The pits which were for ages probably the common marl pits of the Mancunian precincts appear pretty certainly to have been those large

cavities upon Shudehill and in Market-street Lane, now and for centuries called the Daubholes or quarries for marl. In Lancashire and Cheshire the use of it is better understood than in any other part of the kingdom, and in both it has changed the broad extent of our barren heaths and turfy mossy grounds into some of the best lands. In the Accounts, in February 1589, two men were paid for fishing in a marl-pit at Hoole, which had become a pool. A field in Sharples ley was called "The great marled earth," and the name of Mauldeth Hall, the present palace of the Bishop of Manchester, is said to be a corruption of "marled earth." In April 1600, an out-going tenant was paid £3 for marling the Sheepcote Hey, when he departed the possession.

Marmalade (French *Marmelade*, from *marmelo*, a quince, and *melado* Spanish, like honey), the pulp of quinces, boiled into a consistence with sugar; or a confection of plums, apricots, quinces, &c., boiled with sugar. In Scotland it is made of Seville oranges and sugar only. (*Webs.*) *Mark.* gives recipes to make red marmalade of quinces, white ditto, and marmalade of oranges, with rosewater. The "Closet of Sir Kenelm Digby" contains recipes for marmulate of pippins, of cherries, of red currants, and white marmulate, made both the queen's way and my lady of Bath's way. Into that of pippins, ambergris, musk and lemon juice are introduced. The quince marmalade he calls "Gelly of quinces," and gives several ways of his own for making it. The basis of the queen's way is 1½ lb. of flesh of quinces, with 1 lb. sugar and 1 lb. of liquor or decoction of quinces. Lady Bath takes 6 lb. of flesh of quinces and 2 lb. sugar moistened well with the juice of quinces. That of cherries has 4 lb of the best Kentish cherries to 1 lb. pure loaf sugar. Morello cherries have a quicker taste, and a fine, pure, shining dark colour; and both will keep well all the year. That of currants, with the juice of rasps and cherries, consists (according to the recipe of Madame Plancy, who maketh this sweetmeat for the queen) of 3 lb. cherries stoned, ½ lb. clear juice of rasps and 1 lb. juice of red currants, boiled with a quick fire. That of red currants is similar in make. The *C. C. Dic.* gives recipes for marmalade, of apples, cherries, currants, grapes, lemons, oranges, pears, quinces (five varieties) and raspberries. Presents of marmalade to Henry VIII. occur in his privy purse expenses. In the Accounts, in July 1610, amongst spices from London was some marmalade 2s.; but it would usually be made at home.

Marriage. In September 1586, a license for the marriage of Thomas Shuttleworth and Ann Lever cost 11s. 3d.; and the expenses of Thomas

Lever when he went to Chester to obtain it 2s. 3d. In September 1590, Margaret Rutter had, by the appointment of Sir Richard Shuttleworth, Knt., "towards her preferment in marriage," 40s.

MARSHALSEA. (*Maréchaussée.*) A prison for debtors in Southwark (so called perhaps because the marshal of the king's house kept his court or prison there), abolished by the statute of the 5th and 6th Vict. In March 1585, 3d. was given to a man, a-begging for the prisoners in the Marshalsea at London. December 1588, to one which did beg for the prisoners in the Marshalsea, 2s.

MARSHES. *Maris* was an old form of this word, from *marais*, French; a fen or boggy ground. (*B. Dic.*) These are treated of by old writers indifferently as fens, moors, or marshes. *Fitz.* treats of *marreys* ground, the only way to improve which he says, is to drain the water clear away. If ditches, cross ditches and trenches do not effect this, then must you make a sough underneath the earth. If that will not serve, then keep out your cattle for fear of drowning, &c. Milch kye, draught oxen and labouring horses are the best cattle to make good pasture on marreys ground. See also MOOR.

MARTON OR MARTIN MERE. Near Great Marton, a chapelry in the parish of Poulton, is a small lake called Marton Mere, and the somewhat extensive morass of Marton Moss. In the township and parish of North Meols, nine miles from Ormskirk, near Southport, is Martin Mere, formerly a large pool or lake, of irregular form, surrounded chiefly by mosses or boggy land, and containing about 3,632 statute acres. Doubtless both places were named Mar or Mere, tun or ton, from these large sheets of water, which bear that name in Lancashire and Cheshire. It was probably the lake in North Meols that was referred to in the Accounts. In February 1588, a man who caught and brought two breams from Martene mere had 19d.; in March 1592, six breams and their carriage from Martone mere cost 3s. 10d.

MASLIN, MESLIN, OR MISCELIN. Wheat and rye mixed. Much maslin is still grown (says *Eden* in 1797) in the northern counties. *Moryson*, who wrote in Elizabeth's reign, remarks, that "the English husbandmen eat barley and rye brownbread, and prefer it to white bread, as abiding longer in the stomach, and not so soon digested with their labour; but citizens and gentlemen eat most pure white bread."

MASONS. The Accounts show that no architect, so called at least, was employed in the rebuilding of Gawthorpe Hall in 1600-1604; but only a

master-mason and other masons under him. The salary or wages of the master-mason would be thought small now. In the reign of Henry VIII. the master-mason employed at Windsor Castle was paid 12d. a day. At Gawthorpe, the masons were employed occasionally in quarrying or getting the stone, as well as in hewing it, scappeling or rough-dressing it, &c. But the wallers, who got rough wall-stone, and built walls, were not ranked with the masons. In November 1588, a mason for six days work at Smithills had 20d.; in January 1595, for mending the brewhouse furnace mouth, and the hob in the kitchen 4d. At Gawthorpe Hall, in February 1600, a mason working eight days in the stone delph or quarry at Gawthorpe had 16d. March, two men six days, ditto (2d. each per diem) 2s.; April 1600, two men getting stone at Rycliffe, on their own tabling three days (4d. day), 4s.; May, Gregory the mason, one quarter's wages, 19s. 2d. June, to him for a caytrel to break stones withal, 4s. 2d.; a mason four days scappeling stones (4d.) 16d.; July, a mason 8½ days hewing stone at Gawthorpe (4d.) 2s. 10d.; August, to Anthony Whitehead [the master] and five masons, each a pair of gloves [at the laying of the foundation stone], 2s. 2d.; September, Anthony Whitehead, his quarter's wages, 30s.; [so that the chief of the masons had only at the rate of £6 yearly, for building Gawthorpe Hall]. A mason for hewing stone for two windows 13s.; 1601, March, ditto the last part of his money for ditto (eight score four feet at 7½d.), £5 2s. 6d. A mason for dighting seven yards of wall stones at Rycliffe (at 5d.) 2s. 11d. July, 4½ days scappeling stone at the delphs (8d. foot) 3s.; hewing seven yards of window stuff, 14s. August, a mason, his quarter's wages, 18s. 4d. February 1602, one for getting and hewing forty-four feet of window stuff of the plant mould (6½d.) 23s. 10d. June 1603, a mason six days helping to set the chimney pipes in the highest turret and the battlement about the same (4½d. day) 2s. 3d. September 1604, one five days hewing battling-stones and ashlars for the back stairs 2s. 1d.; December, one three days squaring flags for the kitchen floor, 9d.; March 1605, one six days dighting stones for the kitchen chimney 2s. 3d.; one 3½ days hewing stones at Gawthorpe and a day getting fire-stone upon Padiham Moor, — upon his own charges that day 9d., to meat and wages other days 4½d., —2s. 3d. May 1605, a mason three days hewing finials for the "starres" in the hall door 20d.

Masse, Maze, Mease or Messe. A measure of five hundred herrings. The word in a more modern form is still in use in Cumberland. In the *Cumberland Pacquet*, in July 1855, an immense shoal of herrings off the

coast is noticed; and in one night the crew of one fishing boat caught "sixty-seven maizes, or the extraordinary number of 40,200 fish; a take worth no less than £70." This gives six hundred herrings (half the long thousand) to the maize. For the price of herrings per mease in these Accounts see Index.

MASTIFFS. In early times the British mastiff was celebrated for its strength and resolution, characteristics which did not fail to attract the attention of the Romans when they came to Britain. They were bred and reared by persons specially appointed, and the best sent to Rome for the service of the amphitheatres, where they were matched in fight with various beasts of prey. *Dr. Caius*, a naturalist, *temp.* Elizabeth, states that three were reckoned a match for a bear, and four for a lion. *Stowe* in his *Annals* gives an account of an engagement between three mastiffs and a lion in the presence of James I. An Elizabethan writer states that the mastiff, tie-dog or band-dog [Bewick says the ban dog is lighter than the mastiff] is so called, because many of them are tied up in chains and strong bonds, in the daytime, for doing hurt abroad; which is a huge, stubborn, ugly, eager, burthenous of body (and therefore but of little swiftness), terrible and fearful to behold, and oftentimes more fierce and fell than any Archadian or Corsican cur. Our Englishmen, to the intent that these dogs may be more cruel and fierce, assist nature with some art, use and custom. For although this kind of dog be capable of courage, violent, valiant, stout and bold, yet they will increase these their stomach by teaching them to bait the bear, the bull, the lion, and other such like cruel and bloody beasts . . . . without any collar to defend their throats, and oftentimes they train them up in fighting and wrestling with a man (having for the safeguard of his life either a pikestaff, club, sword [or] privy coat), whereby they become the more fierce and cruel unto strangers. . . . . . . Some bark only with fierce and open mouth, but will not bite; some do bark and bite; but the cruellest do either not bark at all, or bite before they bark, and therefore are more to be feared than any of the other. . . . . . . The force which is in them surmounteth all belief, and the fast hold which they take with their teeth exceedeth all credit; for three of them against a bear, four against a lion, are sufficient to try masteries with them. . . . . Some of our mastiffs will rage only in the night; some are to be tied up both day and night. Such also as are suffered to go loose about the house and yard are so gentle in the daytime that children may ride on their backs, and play with them at their pleasure. . . . . . . Some of them moreover will suffer a

stranger to come in and walk about the house and yard where him listeth without giving over to follow him, but if he put forth his hand to touch anything, then will they fly upon him, and kill him if they may. I had one myself once, which would not suffer any man to bring in his weapon further than my gate; neither those that were of my house to be touched in his presence. Or if I had beaten any of my children, he would gently have essayed to catch the rod in his teeth and take it out of my hand, or else pluck down their clothes to save them from the stripes; which in my opinion is not unworthy to be noted. (*Harri.*) *Whitaker* in his *Manchester* does not sufficiently discriminate between the mastiff and the bull-dog. He enumerates five classes of the genuine native dogs of the soil, — the great household dog [? mastiff], the greyhound, the bull-dog, the terrier and the large slow-hound. The house-dog he says has no sagacity but great courage, a surly dignity of aspect, good-natured temper, and honest fidelity. We have a breed at Manchester, enormously tall and large. The bull-dog he regards as the kind used by the Romans, and noticed by Gratius —

> First in the fight the dogs of Britain shine,
> And snatch, Epirus, all the palm from thine.

Claudian names

> ——————— the British hound
> That wings the bull's big forehead to the ground.

Whitaker also describes the old slow-hound (called also the Lancashire hound, and the southern hound) "now almost peculiar to the parish of Manchester," and the breed of which he says was near the close of the seventeenth century confined to one or two south-west counties and to Manchester and its vicinity. He adds that in his time it was utterly extinct in the former and survived only in the latter, being the last perishing remains of a British breed of dogs in the island. In the Accounts, in November 1591, a man of Wigan who brought a couple of *mastysies* to Smithills, whereof one of them was chosen to be kept there, had 8d. The word was pronounced *mastisses* in Lancashire, supposed to be derived from *mestizo*, a mongrel or mixed breed.

Meadow land (Anglo-Saxon *medo*, of *mayan* to mow) a land that yields store of grass for hay or pasture. (*B. Dic.*) If there be any running water or land flood, that may be brought to run over the meadows, from the time that they are mown until the beginning of May, they will be much better, and it shall kill, drown and drive away the mouldywarps, and fill up the

low places with sand and make the ground even and good to mow. Especially that water that cometh out of a town from every man's midden or dunghill is best, and will make the meadows most rankest. (*Fitz.*) If your meadows be so seated that there is no possible means of washing or drowning them with water, you are then only to restore and strengthen them by the efficacy of manure of soil without any other help. After March, when all pasture grounds are at the barest, you shall begin to lead forth your manure, which shall be the soil of streets within cities or towns, or the parings or gatherings-up of the highways much beaten with travel; also the earth for two or three feet deep which lieth under your dunghill, when the dung is removed and carried away, for this is most precious and rich mould; also the fine earth or mould found in the hollow of old willow trees. With these very plentifully manure and cover your ground all over. Some husbandmen make their hinds spread in the evening before they go to supper what mould or earth is laid out from six o'clock in the morning till three in the afternoon; and it is a very good course. Nothing more enricheth meadow or pasture ground than soap ashes, thinly scattered and spread over the same at the latter end of April; for then grass is beginning to shoot up, and, finding a comfort, the increase will multiply exceedingly. (*Mark.*, who devotes a chapter to giving directions "How to enrich and make the most barren soil to bear excellent good pasture or meadow.") In the Accounts are entries in October 1619, of rents received for meadow land: one acre and three roodlands in the Lower Gadwines 23s.; one acre of meadow in the Lower Cornfield eires 16s.; and two acres meadow in the Little Dubcarr 32s. All these names show that the land was low and plashy.

MEAL. The flour of wheat, oats, rye, barley, rice, beans, peas, &c. For numerous entries see Index. Wheat flour was called "meal" in the Accounts; and in January 1609, in London, a bushel of it cost 7s. 6d.; a peck 21d.

MEASURES (French *mesure*, Latin *mensura*, Welsh *mesur*, Danish *maade*, Anglo-Saxon *gemet*, *metan*,) in this sense a definite quantity, usually in a vessel of capacity. The following notes as to measures (and weights) of various commodities are translated from the "Liber Loci Benedicti" of Whalley Abbey:—*Flax*: 24 cuscute (?) make what in English is called a sheaf; 24 sheaves = one thrave. *Leather*: 10 hides = one dicker; 10 dickers = one last. *Iron*: 5 stone = one twelfth [duodena] and 13 twelfths = one seam. 24 stone = one band. *Wax*: 1 lb. weighs 24 shillings; 8 lb. = one stone. *Onions and Hemp* [cepo et canabo]: 16 lb. = one stone.

Sheep's Wool: 12 lb. = one stone; 30 stone = one sack. *Spices:* one drachm weighs $2\frac{1}{2}$d.; one ounce weighs 20 drachms; one lb. weighs 20s. *Land:* 26 feet = one rod or perch; 40 rods in length and 4 in width, or 20 rods in length and eight in width = one acre. In the Account Rolls of the Priory of Finchale, in the 14th and 15 centuries, various articles and commodities were bought and sold by the following denominations of measure or weight: — Beer per barrel; cloth per ell; dishes per dozen; eggs per (long) hundred; fencing per rod; herrings per thousand; honey per gallon; iron per stone; laths or spars per thousand; lead per stone and fother; lime by chaldron, fother, and lade (i.e. cart load); malt per chaldron and quarter; oil per gallon and barrel; paper per quire; pitch per barrel; slates per thousand and load; soap per barrel; sawn timber per rod; tiles per thousand; vessels of kitchen ware per garnish or set, and dozen; wax per lb.; wine per gallon and hogshead; wool per stone. The *lagena* of Durham measure was 12 lb. avoirdupois. The word *mett* (literally a measure) meant different quantities at different places and periods. At York in 1528-9 a met = 2 bushels. *Ray* says that a mett or strike = one bushel or four pecks; and this appears to be the quantity indicated in these Accounts by the word mett; though sometimes it appears equivalent to two pecks only, or half a bushel. The following tables of measures are from *Post:—Ale:* 2 pints = a quart; 2 quarts = a pottle; 2 pottles or 4 quarts = a gallon; 8 gallons = a firkin; 2 firkins = a kilderkin; 2 kilderkins = a barrel; 12 barrels = a last. *Beer:* 9 gallons = a firkin; 2 firkins = a kilderkin; and 2 kilderkins = a barrel; $1\frac{1}{2}$ barrel, or 3 kilderkins, or 6 firkins, or 54 gallons of beer = a hogshead; 2 hogsheads = a pipe or butt, and 2 pipes = a tun of 1728 pints. *Wine:* Wine measures bear to those for ale or beer the proportion of 4 to 5; 4 gallons of ale and beer are very near 5 gallons of wine; 18 gallons of wine = a rundlet; 42 gallons = a tierce; 63 gallons = a hogshead; 84 gallons = a puncheon; 126 gallons = a pipe or butt; 252 gallons = a ton or tun. A tierce of wine is $\frac{1}{3}$rd of a puncheon, $\frac{1}{6}$th of a tun. *Coal:* The chaldron contains 36 bushels heaped; by weight 112 lb. to the cwt. *Dry measure* (*Winchester*). [16 pints or] 2 gallons = a peck; 4 pecks = a bushel [2 bushels = a strike]; 4 bushels = a coomb or cumock; 2 cumocks (or 8 bushels) = a quarter, seam, or raft; 5 quarters = a wey (some make 6 quarters of meal a wey and $11\frac{3}{4}$ weys a last); and 10 quarters = a last of 5120 pints or lbs. [2 pints = a quart; 2 quarts = a pottle; 2 pottles = a gallon.] *Long Measure.* $1\frac{1}{2}$ foot = a cubit; 2 cubits = a yard; and 16 nails, $1\frac{1}{4}$ yard, = an ell; 5 feet = a pace;

6 feet=a fathom; $16\frac{1}{2}$ feet=a perch, pole or rod; 40 perches=a furlong; 8 furlongs=a mile. (In fens and woodlands they reckon 18 feet to the pole, in forests 21 feet.) *Tale or Count.* By this are counted fish, hides, paper, parchment, sables, &c. Cod, ling, and such fish have 124 to the 100. Eels 25 to the strike and 10 strike to the bind. Herrings 120 to the 100; 1200 to the 1000 = a barrel; 12 barrels = a last. Furs, (fitches, grays, jennets, martins, minx and sable) 40 skins=a timber. Other skins have 5 score to the 100. Paper 24 sheets a quire, 20 quires a ream, 10 reams a bale. Parchment 12 skins a dozen, 5 dozen a roll. Hides 10 =a dicker; 20=a last. Hay 56 lb.=a truss; 36 trusses=a load. Glass 5 lb.=a stone; 24 stone=a seam. Gunpowder 24 lb. = a last; 100 lb. =a barrel. All things have 20 cwt. to the ton, save lead, $19\frac{1}{2}$ cwt.=a ton or fodder. The cwt. avoirdupois=112 lb.; the stone or half quarter of the cwt.=14 lb. Alum, cinnamon, nutmegs, pepper, and sugar, have but $13\frac{1}{2}$ lb. to the stone, 27 lb. the quarter, 54 lb. the $\frac{1}{2}$ cwt., and 108 lb. the cwt. Wool 7 lb. a clove, 14 lb. a stone, 28 lb. a tod, 182 lb. a wey, 364 lb. a sack, 4368 lb. a last. Steel, a faggot=120 lb.; a burthen of gad steel is 9 score or 180 lb. Butter and soap, 56 lb. butter or 60 lb. soap make a firkin; 2 firkins of either=a barrel. Butchers, 8 lb. to the stone. In England the aulne or ell is used for linen only; the yard or verge for cloths, silk, and all other such goods. *The sea last*, in measure=2 tons or 8 hogsheads of wine, 5 pieces of brandy or prunes; 12 barrels of herrings or peas, 13 barrels of pitch, 4 pipes or butts of oil of olives, and 7 quarters or barrels of fish oil: in weight=4000 lb., except wool 2000 lb., almonds 3600 lb. *The English last:* The last of London=$10\frac{1}{2}$ quarters or barrels of 8 bushels each, and the bushel of 4 gallons. The bushel weighs between 56 lb. and 60 lb., and 10 bushels of England make about the last of Amsterdam. In Scotland and Ireland 38 bushels to the last and 18 gallons to the bushel. (*Post.*) *Crabbe* gives most of the above, and adds *Square measure:* 9 square feet=1 square yard; 3025 square yards=1 square pole; 40 poles = one rood; 160 poles or 4 roods=1 acre; 640 acres = 1 square mile. For various measures, weights, and denominations of quantity see Notes and Index, as MEASE, METT, WEIGHTS, &c.

MEDICINE AND MEDICAL EXPENSES. It is not easy to realise the state of the medical art in the reign of Elizabeth. It was chiefly herbalism, and the herbs were not deemed efficacious unless gathered at certain periods of the moon, and even within certain hours. Most of the old writers of herbals were surgeons or physicians, like Gerarde. Amongst other curious books on

the subject, once greatly esteemed, may be named a black-letter quarto, "The Secretes of the Reverend Maister Alexis of Piemont, containing excellent remedies against divers diseases," &c. "Translated out of French into English by William Warde. Imprinted at London by Jhon Kyngston for Jhon Wight, A.D. 1580." (This was a late edition.) A second, third and fourth part appeared successively, the two latter printed in 1578, and the four parts are bound together in one volume. Another black-letter quarto, is "The Englishman's Treasure with the true Anatomy of Man's Body: compiled by that excellent Chyrurgion, Mr. Thomas Vicary, Esq., Sergeant Chyrurgion to King Henry VIII., King Edward VI., to Queen Mary and to our late sovereign Queen Elizabeth; and also chief Chyrurgion to St. Bartholomew's Hospital." (London, 8th edition, 1633.) This volume also contains a description of the baths at Bath, by William Turner, M.D. edited by William Bremer, practitioner in physic and chyrurgery. Also ointments, plasters, &c., and remedies for the plague and pestilent fevers, by William Boraston, of Salop, practitioner in physic and chyrurgery. In the middle ages medicine chests were so ample as to be called portable shops, and they included veterinary medicines. Medical men practised all branches of their profession, one individual, named by Caxton, being "a physician, spicer and apothecary." The last name is from *apotheca*, a cabinet, cellar, or store, where oil, wine, &c., were kept. So that *apothecarii* meant shopkeepers, and *apothecaria* included drugs, wines and even confectionery; for apothecaries anciently dealt in sweetmeats, spices and confectionery; many medicinal remedies taking the form also of confections or lozenges, conserves, syrups, electuaries, &c. As to medical practice in the middle ages, Du Cange and the chroniclers mention bleeding in the feet for the dropsy; the *aphorismi*, or books in which short medical axioms were written; the *digma*, a mark or sign that the urine denoted fever; the *fleminum*, a garment, by walking in which the blood flowed to the feet; the *formicans* or *vermiculus pulsus*, a kind of inordinate pulse, the first named from the ant, and felt upon the fingers, the other like the motion of a worm, both signs of death; the *irrifrigerium*, a cooling-room without a fire-place; a medicine called "infernal fire," perhaps a caustic; the use of warm water, plasters, hot-irons, pricking the feet with needles; baths, bleedings and fomentations to restore strength; bathing as a remedy for age and the stone; hairs of a saint's beard dipped in holy water and taken inwardly; mortified flesh cut out; humours expelled by burning; opinions formed by inspection of the urine, &c. The union of medicine with astro-

logy, and the practice of charms and amulets, need only be named. A few specimens of old medicines may be given as more curious than useful: — From an Arundel MS. of the fifteenth century we take "the best and fittest medicine for the stomach and head of an old man:" — Take ginger, canel, long pepper, rose-marine, grains [of Paradise] of each a quartron [fourth of a lb. or pint] cloves, mace spikenard, nutmegs, mace, gardamour, galingale [*aristolochia* or cyperus] each one oz.; liquor of aloes, calamy, aromatici, croci, rubarbi, reupontici [Rheu Ponticum] each 9 dwt.; make of all a great powder; then take a gallon of sweet wine (Oseye or bastard) and cast thereto, and do it in a clean pot of earth, let it stand all night, stir it oft, and melle [mix] it well and let it stand till the morrow, till it be clear; then take out the clear [liquor] from the powder and put it in a glass. Have a bag ready of fair linen cloth, broad above and sharp beneath; and therein put the powder, and hang the bag between two tressels, and let it run out what it will. Then take all that runs out from the powder and the clear that thou hadst before of the wine, and medle [mix] therewith 2 lb. of loaf sugar or more, till it be right sweet. Thereof cast above the bag, and let it run through easily till it be all run through; and that is clepet [called] *Clary*. Thereof take each day 5 spoonful in the morning with three sops of bread well soaked therein, and forbear heads of fish and flesh, also goutous meats and unwholesome. — The following recipe, charm or prayer, "to assuage bleeding at the nostrils," or from wounds probed by the surgeon, is translated from the "Liber Loci Benedicti" of Whalley Abbey: O God, be thou gracious to this thy servant N. nor suffer to flow from his body a drop more blood. So may it please the Son of God. And so his mother Mary. In the name of the Father, stop blood. [And the same adjuration successively to the Son, the Holy Ghost, and the Holy Trinity.] It is followed by another "Pur estauncher saunk" (Anglo-Norman, to staunch blood): — Of old a soldier pierced the side of the Saviour with a lance; forthwith there flowed blood and water — the blood of redemption and the water of baptism. In the name of the Father ✠ cease blood. In the name of the Son ✠ stay blood. In the name of the Holy Ghost ✠ may no more blood flow from the mouth, or from the vein, or from the nose. On the other hand a MS. of cookery of 1381 ends with the words — "Explicit de coquina, que est optima medicina," (Here ends cookery, which is the best medicine). *Aubrey* gives the following recipe to cure an ague: — Gather cinquefoil in the good aspect of ♃ to the ☽ and let the moon be in the mid-heaven if you can, and take .... of the powder of it in white wine.

If it be not thus gathered according to the rules of astrology, it hath little or no virtue in it. For warts (says *Sir Thomas Browne*) we rub our hands before the moon, and commit any maculated part to the touch of the dead. *Aubrey* says that to hinder the night-mare (in horses) they hang in a string a flint with a hole in it by the manger, or round the necks of the horses, to prevent the hag from riding their horses, which sometimes sweat at night. In "The Anatomy of the Elder," (London, 1655,) it is stated that the common people keep as a great secret in curing wounds, the leaves of the elder gathered the last day of April, which, to disappoint the charms of witches, they had affixed to their doors and windows. Again, an amulet against erysipelas was made of the elder on which the sun never shined, and hung about the patient's neck, or cut in little pieces and sewed into the shirt. Against epilepsy, too, was an amulet made of elder, growing on a sallow. Amongst ingredients in "The Treasure of Anatomy," (London, 1641,) occurs "Five spoonfuls of a knave child urine of an innocent," i.e. of an idiot male child. In Morayshire, Scotland, in hectic and consumptive diseases they pare the nails of the patient's fingers and toes, put the parings into a rag cut from his clothes, wave it thrice round his head crying "Deas soil," and then bury the rag in some unknown place. *Ashmole* in his Diary (1681) writes, "I took early in the morning a good dose of elixir and hung three spiders about my neck, and they drove my ague away." Weak, ricketty, and ruptured children were drawn naked thrice through a tree split open for the purpose; the wounded tree was bound up with packthread, and as the bark healed the child was to recover. There were similar superstitions as to creeping through Tolmen, Dolmen, or perforated Druid stones; and in the North children are drawn through a hole cut in a "groaning cheese" the day they are christened. In Ball's "Interlude," &c., (1562,) the following charms are mentioned: —

> For the cough take Judas' ear[1]
> With the paring of a pear,
> And drink them without fear,
> If ye will have remedy.
> Three sips are for the hickcock [hiccough]
> And six more for the chickcock [chincough]
> Thus my pretty pickock,
> Recover by and bye.

[1] The excrescences of the elder-tree, called *Auriculæ Judæ.*

If ye cannot sleep, but slumber,
Give oats unto Saint Uncumber,
And beans in a certain number
 Unto Saint Blaize and Saint Blythe.
Give onions to Saint Cutlake,
And garlic to Saint Cyryake,
If ye will shun the headache,
 Ye shall have them at Queenhythe.

Douce mentions that all Exeter persons affected with ague visit the nearest cross roads five different times at dead of night and bury there a new laid egg, about an hour before the cold fit is expected, and thereby believe they bury the ague with the egg. Others imagine that by giving a piece of salted bran-cake to a dog when the fit comes on, they transfer the malady to that animal. A silver ring, made of five sixpences, collected from five different bachelors, and to be conveyed by the hand of a bachelor, to a smith who is a bachelor (none of the givers knowing why or to whom they give) will cure fits. The king's touch for king's evil, or scrofulous disease, is best described by Shakspere in Macbeth : —

———————— strangely-visited people,
All swoln and ulcerous, pitiful to the eye,
The mere despair of surgery, he cures ;
Hanging a golden stamp about their necks,
Put on with holy prayers.

The following are from a MS. 4to of 1475, formerly in the collection of the late Mr. Herbert. For fever: Write these words on a laurel leaf, "✠ Ysmael ✠ Ysmael ✠ adjuro vos per Angelum ut soporetur iste homo N," (I adjure thee by the angels that this man may be cast asleep). Lay this leaf under his head that he wete [know] not thereof, and let him eat lettuce oft and drinke Ip'e seed, small grounden in a mortar, and temper it with ale. — A charm to draw out "Yren de Quarrell," (that is, an arrow head or bolt). [This is in Latin, to the following effect.] "Longius, a Hebrew soldier, thrust the side of our Lord Jesus Christ; blood flowed from the side as he drew out his lance. ✠ Tetragrammaton ✠ Messias ✠ Sother Emanuel ✠ Sabaoth ✠ Adonay ✠ Wherefore, as these words were the words of Christ, so may the iron or quarrell come out of this Christian. Amen." And say this charm five times, in the worship of the five words of Christ. Numerous charms and incantations occur in the Harleian MS. No. 273, in Anglo-Norman and Latin, as a charm to staunch blood ; charm for

a grievous wound; charm for a fester or a canker, &c. In a rare work, "The Burning of St. Paul's Church in London," (1561,) reference is made to Saint Agatha's letters, as a protection against burning houses, thorn-bushes against lightning, &c. *Grose* says that to cure warts you must steal a piece of beef from a butcher's shop, rub your warts with it, and then throw the beef down the necessary or bury it, and as the beef rots your warts will decay. He also says that a dead man's hand is supposed to have the quality of dispelling tumours, such as wens, or swelled glands, by striking with it nine times the place affected. Again, a halter wherewith any one has been hanged, if tied about the head, will cure the headache. So will moss growing on a human skull, if dried, powdered, and taken as snuff. The chips or cuttings of a gibbet or gallows, on which one or more persons have been executed or exposed, if worn next the skin or round the neck in a bag, will prevent or cure ague. The turquoise (says *Fenton* in his "Secret Wonders of Nature," 1569) doth move when there is any peril prepared to him that doth wear it. *Nicols* in his "Lapidary" says that the same stone takes away all enmity, and reconciles man and wife. Coral, or the peony, or the misletoe, drive away the falling sickness, either hung about the neck or drunk with wine. Rosemary purgeth houses, and a branch of it, hung at the entrance of houses, drives away devils and contagions of the plague. Coral bound to the neck takes away turbulent fears, and allays the nightly fears of children. *Lupton*, in his "Notable Things," (1660,) says that a spoonful of a powder of the dried flowers of elder, gathered on a midsummer day, in a good draught of borage water, morning or evening, for a month, "will make you seem young a great while." In *Buttes's* "Dyetts Dry Dinner," (London 1599,) it is stated that if one eat three small pomegranate flowers for a whole year, he shall be safe from all manner of eyesore. If all these should be thought the vulgar charms and nostrums of peasants and uneducated persons, what can be said of the following extract of a letter from Lord Chancellor Hatton to Sir Thomas Smith in 158–, when an epidemic was prevalent: — "I am likewise bold to recommend my most humble duty to our dear mistress [Queen Elizabeth] by this letter and ring, which hath the virtue to expel infectious airs and is (as it telleth me) to be worn betwixt the sweet dugs, the chaste nest of pure constancy. I trust, sir, when the virtue is known, it shall not be refused for the value." Many other notices of charms used as cures, preventives, antidotes, will be found in Brand's "Popular Antiquities," Sir Walter Scott's notes on his works, Grose, Ashmole, and other works quoted

above. As to various remedies quoted in the Accounts, they are noticed under their respective heads, as NERVAL, &c. In others the compound can only be guessed at from the ingredients bought. As to the medical expenses incurred in the attendance and medicines of a regular practitioner, see Index, and the notes on DOCTOR, &c. For other remedies see QUACKS, &c.

MEDLAR. There be divers sorts, greater and lesser, sweet and harsh, some with much core and many great stony kernels, others fewer, and one of Naples called *Aronia*. The trees do grow in orchards, and oftentimes in hedges, amongst briars and brambles; grafted in a whitethorn, it prospereth wonderful well, and bringeth forth fruit twice or thrice bigger than if not grafted, almost as great as little apples. It is very late before medlars be ripe, in the end of October. Medlars do stop the belly, especially when green and hard; after being kept awhile till soft or tender, they do not bind so much, but are more fit to be eaten. The fruit of the Neapolitan or three-grain medlar is eaten both raw and boiled, and is more wholesome for the stomach. These be oft preserved with sugar or honey, and so prepared, are pleasant and delightful to the taste. They strengthen the stomach and stay loathing. The kernels made into powder and drank, break the stone, expel gravel, &c. (*Ger.*) Medlars are to be gathered about Michaelmas, after the frost hath touched them, when they are in their full growth and dropping from the tree, but never ripe upon the tree. When gathered, they must be laid in a basket, sieve, barrel, or cask, wrapped about with woollen cloths on all sides, and some weight laid upon them with a board between them; for except they be brought into a heat they will never ripen kindly or taste well. The ripest, still as they ripen, must be taken from the rest; separate also the half ripe into a third basket, for if the ripe and half ripe be kept together, the one will be mouldy before the other be ripe. And thus do till all be thoroughly ripe. (*Mark.*)

MEDLEY. A mixed cloth. In the Accounts, in October 1621, a yard and a half of Spanish medley, at 15s. 6d. a yard, cost 23s.

MEOLS, THE. North Meols is a parish and township (co-extensive) nine miles N.N.W. from Ormskirk. There is no South Meols, but Ravers or Raven Meols is a hamlet in the township of Formby, eleven miles N.N.W. from Liverpool. It is the former that is named in the Accounts, February 1594, when 1½ barrel of herrings containing 3 meases, less 3 score herrings, (i.e. 1440 herrings) at 12s. 6d. the mease of 500, were "bought at the Meales, a little from Hoole;" and in January 1495, 2 barrels of herrings were bought of George Wright of Melles for 44s.

Mercery. (*Merciere*, French, from *Merces*, Latin, wares.) Mercers' goods or wares. (*B. Dic.*) Mercers anciently vended smallwares, spices, drugs, &c. (*Du Cange.*) The Mercers' Company of London, incorporated in 1393, is one of the twelve principal livery companies. Though mercer now means a dealer in silk goods, it formerly denoted one who dealt in all sorts of smallwares, toys, haberdashery, &c. In the Accounts, in December 1618, two mercers were paid for mercery wares £23 13s.; and in July 1620 the mercer's bill was 47s. 6d., and at the same time amongst other bills paid were those of the confectioner, haberdasher, silkman, grocer, &c.

Merchants and Merchandise. Our merchants are to be installed as amongst the citizens, although they often change estate with gentlemen, as gentlemen do with them, by a mutual conversion of one into the other. Their number is so increased in these our days that their only maintenance is the cause of the exceeding price of foreign wares, which otherwise, when every nation was permitted to bring in his own commodities, were far better cheap, and more plentiful to be had. It is to be wished that the huge heap of them were somewhat restrained, so that the rest should live more easily upon their own, and few honest chapmen be brought to decay, by breaking of the bankrupt. I do not deny but that the navy of the land is in part maintained by their traffic; and so are the high prices of wares kept up, now they have gotten the only sale of things, upon pretence of better furtherance of the commonwealth, into their own hands; whereas, in times when the strange bottoms were suffered to come in, we had sugar for 4d. the lb. that now at the writing of this treatise is well worth 2s. 6d.; raisins or currants for 1d. that now are holden at 6d. and sometimes at 8d. and 10d. the lb.; nutmegs at 2½d. the oz.; ginger at 1d. the oz.; prunes ¾d.; great raisins 3 lb. for 1d.; cinnamon at 4d. oz.; cloves at 2d. and pepper at 12d. and 16d. the lb. Whereby we may see the sequel of things, not always, but very seldom, to be such as is pretended in the beginning. The wares that they carry out of the realm are for the most part broad cloths and carsies of all colours, likewise cottons [of woollen], frises, rugs, tin, wool, our best beer, bays [baize], fustian, mockadoes tufted and plain, rash, lead, fells, &c., which, being shipped at sundry ports of our coasts, are borne from thence into all quarters of the world, and there either exchanged for other wares or ready money, to the great gain and commodity of our merchants. And whereas in times past their chief trade was into Spain, Portugal, France, Flanders, Danske, Norway, Scotland, and Iceland only; now in these days, as men not contented with these journeys, they have sought out

the East and West Indies, and made now and then suspicious voyages not only unto the Canaries and New Spain, but likewise unto Cathay, Moscovia, Tartaria, and the regions thereabout, from whence, as they say, they bring home great commodities. But alas! I see not by all their travel that the prices of commodities are any whit abated. Certes this enormity was sufficiently provided for, 9th Edw. III., [1335-6] by a noble statute made in that behalf, but upon what occasion the general execution thereof is stayed, or not called on, in good sooth I cannot tell. This only I know, that every function and several vocation striveth with other, which of them should have all the water of commodity [profit] run into their own cistern. (*Harri.*)

Mercury (Latin *Mercurius*) the metal quicksilver. (*Webs.*) From its colour and fluidity it is named *hydrargyrum*, i.e. watery silver or water of silver. There are but two places in Europe from whence they take quicksilver, Hungary and Spain; the king of Spain has expressly prohibited the transportation of it into other countries, and it goes to Peru to purify their gold and silver. A mine of cinnabar was lately found in Normandy, near Le Fosse Rouge, but the great charges of it obliged them to stop it up again. It is prescribed in large doses, especially in *miserere* or twisting of the guts, only that it may pass the faster and disentangle the bowels. (*Pomet.*) In *miserere* the patient swallows a lb. or more. Crude mercury is used to kill worms, &c. Amongst other preparations of mercury are sweet mercury or the white eagle, the mercurial panacea, turbith mineral, and the precipitates, white, red, and green, &c. (*Lemery.*) The mines of Carniola, in Germany, discovered by accident in 1497, are the most productive in Europe, yielding in some years 1200 tons. Calomel was first mentioned by Crollius early in the seventeenth century; the first directions for its preparation were given by Beguin, 1608. (*Haydn.*) Several washes and other preparations of mercury were formerly employed as cosmetics, the making of which was a source of gain to the empirical chemist. (*Nares.*) In the Accounts, in February 1690, white mercury cost 12d.

Metals. Most of these, at least those mentioned in the Accounts, are noticed under their respective names; but we may give here a general notice of metals as known in England in the sixteenth century, from a writer of the period:— Of metals we do want none that are convenient for us. *Tin* and *lead* are very plentiful with us, the one in Cornwall, Devonshire, and elsewhere in the North; the other in Denbighshire, Weardale, and sundry places of this island. There were mines of lead also in

Wales. *Iron* is found in many places, as in Sussex, Kent, Weredale, Mendip, Walsall, as also in Shropshire, but chiefly in the woods betwixt Beloos and Willock or Wiebury, near Manchester, and elsewhere in Wales. Of which mines divers do bring forth so fine and good stuff, as any that cometh from beyond sea, besides the infinite gains to the owners, if we would so accept it, or bestow a little more cost in the refining of it. It is also of such toughness that it yieldeth to the making of claricord wire in some places of the realm . . . . . *Copper* is lately (not found, but) restored again to light. Howbeit, as strangers have most commonly the governance of our mines, so they hitherto make small gains of this in hand, in the north parts; for (as I am informed) the profit doth very hardly countervail the charges — whereat wise men do not a little marvel, considering the abundance which that mine doth seem to offer, and as it were at hand . . . . . In Dorsetshire also, a copper mine, lately found, is brought to good perfection. As for our *steel*, it is not so good for edge tools as that of Colaine, and yet the one is often sold for the other, and like tale is used in both, that is to say 30 gads to the sheaf and 12 sheafs to the burden. Our *alchemy* [a mixed metal so called] is artificial, and thereof our spoons and some salts are commonly made, and preferred before our pewter with some, albeit in truth it be much subject to corruption, putrefaction, more heavy and foul to handle, than our pewter; yet some ignorant persons affirm it to be a metal more natural, and the very same which Encelius calleth *Plumbum cinereum*, the Germans wisemuth [bismuth] mithan and counterfeit; adding that where it groweth, silver cannot be far off. Never the less, it is known to be a mixture of brass, lead, and tin, (of which this latter occupieth the one half) but after another proportion than is used in pewter. . . . . . The common sort indeed do call it "alchemy," an unwholesome metal (God wot) and worthy to be banished and driven out of the land . . . . . There is some brass found also in England, but so small is the quantity, that it is not greatly to be esteemed or accounted of. (*Harri.*) Can alchemy be a sort of latten, which Harrison never mentions? He appears to think brass a metal found pure, like copper. Alchemy was a name given (and subsequently corrupted into "occamy") to a compound metal supposed to have been originally formed by the art of the alchemist, a modification of brass. "Four speedy cherubims put to their mouths the sounding alchemy." (*Milton.*) "Rings and chains . . . . . will prove alchemy, or rather pure copper." (*Minshull.*)

Mice. These "small deer" seem to have been a great pest both at Smithills and Gawthorpe. In 1584 laying baits to kill mice cost 3s. 4d.;

in February 1587 ditto 5s.; and there are various other entries. The bait or poison seems to have been arsenic mixed with something palatable to mice. In August 1588, arsenic to kill mice with cost 4d. In August 1592 laying baits for mice and rats cost 2s. 6d. In March 1593 the saddler of Whalley had 12d. for doing this. In October 1617 stuff to kill mice at Gawthorpe cost 2s. At Islington in August 1608 a mouse-trap cost 4d.

MIDDLETON. A market town, parish, and township, by the old road (through Cheetham and Heaton), 7 miles N.N.E. of Manchester, but about 5½ miles by the new road through Blackley. The Asshetons possessed the manor from the time of Edward VI. till it passed with the heiress of that family to Lord Suffield. The hall, the ancient seat of the Asshetons, had formerly a fine park, which has been divided and converted into farms. Entries in the Accounts show that presents were made by the Asshetons to the Shuttleworths of deer from Middleton Park. See Index.

MIDDENS OR MIDDINGS. The North of England name for dunghills. See Index; also notes on DUNG and WORTHING.

MIDWIVES. In England midwifery became a science 10th Henry VII. 1518. The celebrated Dr. Harvey personally engaged in the practice of it, about 1603. (*Haydn.*) In the injunctions at the visitation of Bonner, Bishop of London from September 3rd 1554 to October 8th 1555, it was required that a midwife of that diocese should not use or exercise any witchcraft, charms, sorcery, invocations or prayers, other than such as be allowable and may stand with the law and ordinances of the Catholic Church. In 1567 midwives took an oath, amongst other things, not to suffer any other body's child to be set, brought, or laid before any woman delivered of child, in the place of her natural child; and not to use any kind of sorcery or incantation in the time of the travail of any woman. (*Strype.*) In Bale's "Comedy concerning Three Laws," (1538,) Idolatry says: —

> Yea, but now I am a she
> And a good midwife, perde,
> Young children can I charm
> With whisperings and wishings,
> With crossings and with kissings,
> With blasings and with blessings,
> That sprites do them no harm.

In the Accounts, in June 1610, the midwife was fetched on horseback from Wigan to Smithills; and she appears to have had 12d. for her fee. In January 1612, 2s. 6d. was given to a midwife for veterinary practice.

Mills, Corn. The earliest instrument for grinding corn was the mortar. The *quern* or hand mill was in use among the Britons previously to the conquest of this country by the Romans; who are said to have introduced the water mill, which was probably invented in Asia. Windmills were in very general use in the twelfth century. (*Haydn.*) In old deeds mills appear to be of three sorts, wind and water corn mills and water fulling mills, styled *venatica*, *aquatica*, et *fullonica*. *Jacob* names water, wind, horse and hand corn-mills; and besides corn and grist mills, there are paper mills, fulling or tucking mills, iron mills, oil mills, &c. *Fitz.* devotes cap. 39 of his book on "Surveying" to "The manner to make divers manners of mills." The lord of a manor may set upon the great rivers, corn mills that be called ground mills, because the over side of the head-sill lieth even level with the over side of the ground in the bottom of the water. Fulling mills, otherwise called walk-mills, may be made in like manner and stand also upon the great rivers. And then one wheel is able to drive two stocks, i.e. both a potiere and a faller, the faller both to scour and herely, and the potiere to thick the cloth. Commonly these mills be not set upon the streams of the great rivers, but a great part of the water is conveyed out of the great stream by a mill-fleme [mill-race] made with man's hands to a certain place where wise men think the mill most convenient to be set, and the said water to be holden up and brought to the mill, by reason and setting of a wear overthwart the said stream, made of trouse timber, or stone, or of both. And when it is past the mill with a sufficient fall of the water that the mill stand not in back water, to return into the river again. In many places the said mills be set on one side of the great river, and a wear made of timber and stone to hold up the water to the mill, which is a great cost, and many times it will stand in lack of water, that it may not go well at a great flood, except the groundwork be made very high. But they be profitable both in grinding of corn and fulling of cloth, and in taking of much fish. In like manner these two manner of mills may be set upon small rivers without any fleme casting, but only his wear to hold up the water, and his flood-gates to let it go at a flood when need shall require. Also there be two manner of corn mills, — a brast mill and an overshot mill, and both those be set and go most commonly upon small brooks and upon great pools and meres. They have always a broad bow, a foot broad and more, and the ladles be always shrouded with compost boards on both sides to hold in the water, and then they be called buckets. The miller must draw his water according to his buckets, that they may be

always full and no more, for the longer that they hold the water and the better they be. Another manner of fulling mills may be set and go upon the small brooks, pools or meres, and those be called fallers, for a faller by himself requireth not so great strength of water as the potier doth, because the water cometh most commonly over the wheel, and the braces do but heave up the two feet that fall into the stock upon the cloth, the which causeth the cloth to thick and turn. Also these mills on small waters may go and run with a gogyn [gudgeon] of iron upon boulder stones, or upon brass, as a bell doth, for that will go most lightest. But mills upon great rivers, that be broad, heavy and weighty, must needs have two great thick hoops of iron, four inches broad and an inch thick, and eight or nine inches between the sides, set on both ends of the shaft; for the gogyn of iron will not bear them, and especially in the fulling mill. In so much as there is great profit to the lords in making these mills, and the most rent is raised upon so little ground, oftentimes, for the want of the seed of discretion and experience of good making, there be many defaults made in them, and specially in making of the mill-trough, where the mill-wheel goeth; for ofttimes they make it too hollow and deep under the wheel, that the water standeth therein, when the mill goeth not; for the tail-sill would [i.e. should or ought to] lie bare and dry when the mill goeth not; and the tail-sill would lie 20 or 24 inches under the head-sill and the trough would not pass 3 inches hollow at the most, and as long as it may receive three ladles, the fourth ladle entering and the first leaving the water. [The writer enters into dimensions and other details, which must be omitted.] A man can make no . . . . surer advantage to himself than to make better his old inheritance, not by heightening or increasing the rents of tenants, but all only in mending and making better his arable lands, meadows, leys, and pastures, and in making of water mills, wind mills, horse mills, fulling mills, sith [? scythe] mills, cutler mills, be it by water or draught of horses, smithy mills, or such other. (*Fitz.*) There are numerous entries in the Accounts as to mills, especially that on the stream at Smithills; the purchase of mill-stones and trundles, the employment and payment of the millwright, the miller, &c., for all which see Index.

MILK. (*Meolc* Saxon, *Milk* Danish.) For a cow for the dairy, she must have all the signs of plenty of milk, as a crumpled horn, thin neck, hairy dewlap, and a very large udder, with four teats, long, thick, and sharp at the ends. Those kine deepest of milk are those which have but lately calved; for then they give most milk. For a cow to give two gallons at a

meal is rare and extraordinary; a gallon and a half is much, and convenient; and to give but a gallon certain is not to be found fault with. Some kine are said to be deep of milk, which give only a reasonable quantity, but long, as all the year through; whereas other kine that give more in quantity will go dry, &c. The better experienced housewives say, as I believe, that two good meals of milk are better than three bad ones. The profits from milk are three of especial account, as butter, cheese, and milk, to be eaten simple or compounded. As for curds, sour milk, or whig [whey], they come from secondary means. (*Mark.*, who devotes a chapter to the dairy.) See also Cows, Dairy, Butter, Cheese, &c., and the Index.

Millans, or Milwyns (Lancashire). Green fish, fresh cod. (*Halli; Coles.*) The fish is so called probably from its colour; it abounds in the northern seas, and is called also habberdeen, island fish, or stock fish. This green variety called the Scotch cod is most common towards the north. (*P. P.*) *Moruë*, the cod or green fish; *Moruë verte*, green fish. (*Cotgrave.*) See also Fish. In the Accounts, in December 1609, were bought at Islington two millons and flooks, 2s. 4d.; February 1611, 2 dozen of million fish (at 8s.) 16s.; February 1613, 1 dozen of millan fish and carriage from Inskip to Gawthorpe, 10s. 3d.; December 1616, 13 millan fishes (at Preston at 17d. a couple) 8s. 6d.; and December 1617, 2 millan fish 16d.

Mines and Minerals. The mines of Great Britain are numerous, rich, and of various kinds. Strabo and Tacitus enumerate gold and silver as amongst the products of England. The earliest enforcement of a claim to a mine royal is in 47th Henry III., 1262. It related to mines containing gold with copper, in Devon. In temp. Edward I. the silver mines in Ireland were deemed so rich that the king directed a writ for working them to Robert de Ufford, Lord Justice, in 1276. The lead mines of Cardiganshire, from which silver has ever since been extracted, were discovered by Sir Hugh Middleton, temp. James I. (*Haydn.*) We have in England great plenty of quicksilver, antimony, sulphur, black lead, and orpiment red and yellow; also the finest alum; the natural cinnabarum or vermilion, the sulphurous glebe called bitumen in old time for mortar, and yet burned in lamps where oil is scant and geason [scarce], the chrysocollas, copperas and mineral stone, whereof petreolum is made, and mineral pearl. Of coal mines we have such plenty in the north and west of our island as may suffice for all the realm of England; and so they must do hereafter indeed, if wood be not better cherished than it is at this present. We have pits of

white plaster, and of fat and white and other coloured marl, wherewith in many places the inhabitants do compost their soil. We have salt petre for our ordnance, and salt soda for our glass, and in one place (Southery near Codington) so fine to make moulds for goldsmiths and casters of metal, that a load of it was worth 5s. thirty years agone. (*Harri.*) To the note on COAL (p. 518) we may add that in the earlier periods of working, coals were probably extracted by means of horizontal drifts. In 1533 a master and his four men were paid for "le dryft dryvyng" five days 16d. In 1531 the bursar of Durham paid 21d. per day to John Dawson and his four men, for winning coals to the monastery. As to the getting of mineral or marine coal, in Lancashire, we may add that in Whitaker's "Addenda" to his *Whalley* (p. 525*), a compotus is cited of the 12th Edward IV. [1472–3] from a Latin entry to the following effect: — Farm of the mine of marine coals in Padyham 20s.; and the farm of the marine coals in Colne and Trawden 6s. 8d. It appears from the compotus de Bolton that a coal mine was wrought in Colne in the latter end of Edward the Third's reign, which reign closed in 1377. See also METALS, COPPER, LEAD, IRON, TIN, &c.

MINIKIN. In the Accounts, in December 1617, 2½ yards of minikin cost 5s. 3d. No textile fabric of such name is known, and probably it is a clerical error for minever, a kind of fur, which according to Cotgrave is from the French *menuvoir*, i.e. the fur of the small weasel; while other authors define it to be the soft fur from the belly of squirrels, weasels, &c. The white stoat is called a *minifer* in Norfolk.

MINSTRELS. They were originally pipers appointed by lords of manors to divert their copyholders while at work. They owed their origin to the gleemen or harpers of the Saxons, and continued till about 1560. John of Gaunt erected a court of minstrels at Tutbury in 1380. So late as the reign of Henry VIII. they intruded without ceremony into all companies, even at the houses of the nobility. In Elizabeth's reign they had, however, sunk into neglect. (*Haydn.*) The minstrels of Chester had by charter several peculiar privileges. The long continuance of public favour and their extensive privileges at length inflated the pride of minstrels and made them insolent; they claimed reward as by prescriptive right, and settled its amount by their own estimate of their abilities and the opulence of the nobles into whose houses they thought proper to intrude. Their large gratuities drew great numbers to join their fraternity, and induced many idle and dissipated persons to assume the character of minstrels, to the disgrace of the profession. To restrain these abuses a mandate of 9th Edward

II. (1315) ordains that no person should resort to the houses of prelates, earls or barons, to eat or to drink, if he was not a professed minstrel; nor more than three or four minstrels of honour at the most (meaning the royal minstrels or those of nobles) in one day except by invitation from the lord of the house. Thus in the old romance of Launfel —

> They had minstrels of much honours,
> Fiddlers, cythallers, and trumpeters.

The edict also prohibits a professed minstrel from going to the house of any below the dignity of a baron, unless invited by the master, and then commands him to be contented with meat and drink and such reward as is offered, without presuming to ask for anything. For a first offence he lost his minstrelsy, and for a second he was obliged to forswear his profession and never appear again as a minstrel. In little more than a century afterwards the same grievances were again complained of, and in the 9th Edward IV. (1469–70) the king granted to Walter Haliday, marshal, and seven others, his own minstrels, a charter restoring their ancient fraternity or guild, to be governed by a marshal for life and two wardens, who were to admit members, regulate and govern, and to punish when necessary all exercising the profession throughout the kingdom. Even this fraternity practised abuses, and their reputation declined; and temp. Elizabeth the minstrels had lost the protection of the opulent, and had sunk so low in public estimation that by a statute in the 39th year of her reign (1596-7) they were included among the rogues, vagabonds and sturdy beggars, and subjected to the like punishments. This edict also affected all fencers, bearwards, common players of interludes, as well as minstrels wandering abroad, jugglers, tinkers and pedlars; and seems to have given the death-blow to minstrelsy as a profession. The name remained, however, and was applied to itinerant fiddlers and other musicians, who are described by Putenham (1589) as singing ballads and small popular musics, upon benches and barrel heads; their matters being for the most part stories of old time, as the tale of Sir Topas, Bevis of Southampton, Guy of Warwick, Adam Bell and Clym of the Clough, and such other old romances and historical rhymes. Public and private bands of musicians, however, were called minstrels for a considerable period, and without the least indication of disgrace; but they were solely minstrel performers on a regular establishment. The musicians of the city of London were called indifferently waitts and minstrels. In the reign of Henry VII. there were musicians belonging to the royal household

called string-minstrels. The term fiddlers was applied to minstrels as early as the fourteenth century; for in Piers Plowman's "Vision" is the alliterative line "Not to fare as a fiddler, or a friar to seek feasts." (*Strutt.*) From compoti of Whalley Abbey we learn that the sum paid to minstrels during 1478 was 36s. 7d.; in 1521, £2 4s. Dr. Whitaker remarks that these sums were larger than those paid to the organist of the abbey church, and more by nearly one half than the Earl of Northumberland paid to his "minstrels to be daily in his household," and he infers that they were a part of the regular establishment of Whalley Abbey. In 1502-3 the wages of the queen's minstrels (all of foreign names) were £3 6s. 8d. a year. (*El. York.*) In temp. Henry VIII. 18 court minstrels were appointed at 4d. a day each. A satirist of the time writes thus: I think that all good minstrels, sober and chaste musicians—(speaking of such drunken sockets and bawdy parasites as range the countries, rhyming and singing of unclean, corrupt, and filthy songs, in taverns, alehouses, inns, and other public assemblies) — may dance the wild morris through a needle's eye . . . . . . There is no ship so balanced with massy matter, as their heads are fraught with all kinds of bawdy songs, filthy ballads, and scurvy rhymes, serving for every purpose and for every company . . . . . Notwithstanding it were better (in respect of worldly acceptation) to be a piper, or a bawdy minstrel, than a divine; for the one is loved for his ribaldry, the other hated for his gravity, wisdom and sobriety. Every town, city and country is full of these minstrels, to pipe up a dance to the devil; but of divines so few there be, as may hardly be seen. But some of them [i.e. the minstrels] will reply and say, "What, sir, we have licences from justices of the peace, to pipe and use our minstrelsy to our best commodity." Cursed be those licences which license any man to get his living with the destruction of many thousands . . . . Give over, therefore, your occupations, you pipers, you fiddlers, you minstrels, you tabretters, you fluters, and all other of that wicked brood. (*Stubbes.*) In the Accounts, in December 1590 was paid to a minstrel of Leigh who performed at Smithills 6d.; in December 1594, to a minstrel and one with an ape 8d.; and in May 1612, to a minstrel 4d.

Mittens. (French *mitaine*), a sort of glove without fingers. There are various entries in the Accounts of the purchase of mittens, chiefly for use in gardening. In February 1593, for four pairs of garden mittens and liquoring of the same [so that they were of leather], 12d. See Index.

Molyneux, Sir Richard, Knt. The son and heir of William Molyneux of Sefton Esq. He was born in 1560; married Frances, daughter of Sir

Gilbert Gerrard; was knighted by Queen Elizabeth 24th June 1586, and created a baronet 22nd May 1611. He was father of the first Viscount Molyneux of Maryborough. He is first named in these Accounts in 1589, and there are various entries of galds paid by the Shuttleworths for the repairs of his sea-cops, or bank-fences against the sea. He also seems to have been a receiver or collector for the Queen in Lancashire, as a loan to the Queen by Sir Richard Shuttleworth was paid into his hands. See Index.

MOLES. These animals are usually called in the Accounts mouldewarpes, i.e. mould or soil, and warps, castings or turnings-up. They were apparently more numerous and troublesome to the husbandman three centuries ago than at present. See that there be no mouldy-warps casting in the meadows, and if there be in April, let them [the mole-hills] be spread and beaten small. Draw a great bough of a tree, with a tree or two overthwart the bough, and tie it fast by a rope to a team of oxen and horses, and draw it up and down overthwart the said mouldy-warp hills, the which shall spread them better than any man's hands can do. Or run water over the meadows, which shall kill, drown, or drive away the mouldy-warps. (*Fitz.*) Moles not only feed upon corn or grain after it is sprouted and spindled, by eating up the roots and so killing the corn; but by the digging and undermining of the earth do root up the corn and destroy it in a most wonderful manner, for they will destroy almost half an acre a day; and all grounds and grains are alike, if the ground be not too wet, or subject to inundations or overflows; for above all things moles cannot endure wet ground or earth of too moist a quality. The best cure is to dig cross holes athwart their trenches, and when you see the mole cast, to strike her with an iron fork of six or eight grains, and so kill and destroy them. This has become a trade and occupation, and for 3d. or 4d. a score you may have any ground cleansed of moles. Others take brimstone and wet stinking straw, or anything that will make a stinking smoke, and putting fire thereto, smoke all the places of their haunts, and so drive them all clean away. (*Mark.*) In the Accounts in 1583, a man had 4d. for killing four mouldewarpes; in June 1611, a man that catched a maoulwarpe in the garden at Gawthorpe, had 4d.; and in June 1612, the moule-warpe catcher had 6d.

MONEY. See COINS of ELIZABETH'S REIGN.

MOOR AND MARSH. I find of many moors, that in times past they had been harder ground, and sundry of them well replenished with great woods, that are now void of bushes. And for example thereof we may see the trial in sundry parts of Lancashire, where great store of fir hath grown in

times past, and the people go unto this day into their fens and marshes with long spits, which they dash here and there up to the very cronge [handle] into the ground. In which practice (a thing commonly done in winter), if they happen to smite upon any fir-trees, which be there at their whole lengths, or other blocks, they note the place, and about harvest time, when the ground is at the driest, they come again to get them up, and afterward, carrying them home, apply them to their uses. (*Harri.*) See Notes on MARSH and MOSS.

MORLEY'S HALL. In the township of Astley formerly stood Morley's Hall, an ancient mansion of the Lelands, surrounded by a moat. A few fragments only remain. Its description by Leland pourtrays very exactly the character of a gentleman's mansion in Lancashire in the sixteenth century: "Morle in Leghe paroche, is builded — (saving the foundation, of stone squared, that riseth within a great moat a six feet above the water) — all of timber, after the common sort of the building of houses of the gentlemen for the most of Lancashire. There is much pleasure of orchards, of great variety of fruit, and fair made walks and gardens, as there is in any place of Lancashire."

MORTAR. The brass mortar and pestle were indispensable requisites of ancient cookery. Many articles, now sold in a state of meal or powder, were then only powdered as wanted; and in the absence of handmills for grinding, or graters, the mortar was the sole means of pounding them to powder. This was especially the case with pepper and various spices, loaf sugar, &c., and the ingredients for powder-fort and powder-douce, with which various dishes were seasoned and sweetened. In November 1618, a brasen mortar, to go to Barton, cost 14s.

MORTES. Salmon in the third year. (*Todd.*) See FISH, SALMON, &c. "Morte-trouts" occur in the Accounts, and they may have a similar significance as to age. In February 1597, two mortes cost 7d.; June 1598, three mortes 10d.

MORTUARIES. (*Mortuarium.*) A gift left by a man at his death to his parish church, for the recompense of his personal tithes and offerings not duly paid in his lifetime. There is no mortuary due by law, but by custom. Selden says that it was anciently usual to bring the mortuary along with the corpse when it came to be buried; and it was then called a corse-present. By 21st Henry VIII., cap. 6, a scale is prescribed for mortuaries: — The deceased possessed of moveable goods to the value of £40 or more (his debts first paid) is to pay 10s.; if £30 and under £40, to pay 6s. 8d. [a

noble]; if £6 13s. 4d. [10 marks] and under £30, to pay 3s. 4d. [half a noble]; if under £6 13s. 4d., no mortuary is to be paid, and none by any feme-covert, or child, persons not keeping house, &c. (*Jacob.*) In the Accounts, in 1595, the mortuaries paid by the Shuttleworths to the prebend of Bolton were 36s. 8d.; in 1597, for mortuaries and reckonings of the clerk of Rivington, 17s. 8d.

Mosleys, The. In the Accounts, in March 1590, £150 was paid to Mr. Mosley of Manchester, by appointment of Sir Richard Shuttleworth. This may either have been Oswald Mosley Esq. of Garratt Hall, or a younger brother, Anthony Mosley of Ancoats Hall; most probably the former, as Mr. Thomas Shuttleworth went to view the Garratt. In 1596 Sir Richard Shuttleworth received for the tenants holding by lease in Horwich £11 5s. 6d., whereof was paid to the bailiff of Nicholas Mosley Esq., lord of the said lands, £11 0s. 6d., so remaineth de claro 5s. This was probably Sir Nicholas Mosley Knt., who bought the manor of Manchester in that year and was lord mayor of London in 1599. In September 1617 was given to Sir Edward Mosley (then attorney-general of the duchy) for his fee and a gratuity 32s. in connection with some law proceedings by Sir Richard Shuttleworth against one Hancocke. In November 1617 a Mr. Pepes [Pepys] had for his fee for the last term 3s. 4d., and Sir Edward Mosley 22s. He was the second son of Sir Nicholas, and purchaser of the manor of Rolleston, Staffordshire, where he died unmarried in 1638.

Moss. A moorish or boggy place. In August 1621, 10d. was paid for moss rents, doubtless a sort of turbary. As to the plants called moss, in November 1602, the slater and the parker were paid, the latter for the privilege of getting moss, the former for mossing the roof of the great barn at High Whitaker on his own charges, "we getting the moss," 7s. In October 1605 a labourer was paid for getting moss for the great barn [at Gawthorpe] and the new stable upon his own charges 10s. 7d., and he was to have 2s. 8d. more when the stable was covered.

Motley. (q.d. medley.) A cloth of mixed colour, used for the dress of the domestic fool; hence "men of motley," denoted fools. Shakspere makes Jaques exclaim in admiration of the fool, "Motley's your only wear;" and in the same play, *As you like it*, "Invest me in motley." Our Accounts show that this cloth of mixed colour was in use for other things; for, in March 1589, motley to be a cloak-bag and for strings cost 7s.

Mowing (Anglo-Saxon *mawan*), strictly speaking, means the cutting of grass or grain with a scythe; as reaping corn implies the use of a sickle.

Take heed that thy mower mow clean, and hold down the hinder hand of his scythe that he do not indent the grass, and to mow his swathe clean through to that that was last mown before, that he leave not a mane between, and especially in the common meadow, for in the several meadow it maketh the less charge. (*Fitz.*) A man may well mow of good and deep, loggy meadow, or of rough, uneven meadow, every day one acre; mowing clean and making a smooth board of well standing and good smooth meadow, an acre and a half each day; and of very thin and short grass, or upland meadow, two acres at least every day. He may mow of corn, as barley or oats, if it be thick, loggy, and broken down to the earth, making fair work and not cutting off the heads of the ears, and leaving the straw still growing, one and a half acre in a day; but if it be good, thick, and fair steady corn, then he may mow two or two and a half acres in a day; but if the corn be short and thin, then he may mow three and sometimes four acres in a day, and not be over-laboured. Of beans he may mow as much, and of pease mixed with beans, having a hook to follow him, no less; for they are works in this nature most easy and least troublesome. (*Mark.*) In 1531, 6d. per acre and 6d. per day was paid for mowing. In the Accounts are numerous entries of mowing not only grass, but rushes, &c. See Index.

Muck. (Anglo-Saxon *meox;* Danish *mög.*) Dung in a moist state, or a mass of decaying or putrefied vegetable matter. *Tusser* directs to manure with muck, and Philips has the line "with fattening muck besmear the roots." In May 1610, sixteen load of muck (at 3d.) cost 4s.; and in the same month a man was paid for working twenty-five days at getting of moss, feying or cleansing of meadows and breeding of muck, 3s.

Multure. (*Molitura* vel *multura.*) The toll that the miller takes for grinding corn. (*Cowell.*) As to toll, *Fitz.* observes — There be so many divers grants made by the lord, some men to be grounden to the 20th part, some to the 24th, tenants at will to the 16th, and bondmen to the 12th part, some men to be toll-free, and some to be hopper-free; and in some places to take the toll after the strength of the water, that followeth by reason; for the mill that hath a big water and may drive a great broad stone, will make much more meal, and is much better worthy to have the more toll, than that which goeth with a little stone. In the Accounts, of money received 1585, is an entry of 17d. for half a peck of meal and two multure dishfuls. What was the capacity of the miller's toll dish does not appear. In 1587, 8s. 6d. was received for 3 pecks of multure barley; in 1591 for 5½

pecks of multure meal at the mill at Smithills, 7s. 4d.; and for 12 metts after 8 groats (2s. 8d.) the mett, 32s.; in 1598 for 2 metts of beans and 3 pecks of multure barley, 13s.

Murrey. An old name for the mulberry (*morus*) which was used in colouring "subtleties" for the table as early as 1390. Hence murrey-colour is mulberry colour, a reddish purple (*B. Dic.*) or a dark reddish brown, the colour by the heralds called sanguine. (*Holme's Acad. Arm.*) In the Accounts, October 1621, 6½ yards of parr: murrey shag (at 5s.) cost 32s. 6d.

Muscadine. This word represents three different things; but all having an odour resembling musk:—1. a sort of grape; 2. the wine from that grape; 3. a sugar-work made by confectioners, of which musk is an ingredient. The grape and the vine were also called muscadel; the latter by the French *vin de muscat*. In an old play of 1609, in reference to the custom of having wine and sops at weddings, is the line: "The muscadine stays for the bride at church." *Mark.* in his "English Housewife," gives directions for preserving this wine:—Muscadine must be got, pleasant and strong, with a sweet scent and with amber colour. He also directs how to make muscadine of malmsey and bastard, and how to flavour it with spices and damask water. As to the sweetmeats so called, they were perfumed sugar plums to sweeten the breath. In May's *Accomplished Cook* (1671) is the following recipe to make musk-edines, called also rising comfits and kissing comfits:—Take ½ lb. of refined sugar, being beaten or searched [sieved or sifted] put into it 2 grains of musk, a grain of civet, 2 grains of ambergris, and a thimblefull of white orris-powder. Beat all these with gum-dragon steeped in rosewater; then roll it as thin as you can, and cut it into little lozenges with your iron, and stow them in some warm oven or stove; then box them and keep them all the year. Both the wine and the comfits appear in the Accounts. In December 1616, a rundlet of muscadine wine was had from London,—its carriage 3s. 4d. In a list of comfits bought of a London confectioner (p. 213) is half a pound of white muscadines 3s.

Musicians.—Before the Reformation there was but one kind of music in Europe worth notice—the sacred chant, and the descant built upon it; and this music was applied to one language only, the Latin. (*Ashe.*) In England prior to 1600 the chief music was masses and madrigals, but dramatic music was much cultivated from that time. (*Haydn.*) In 1550 John Marbeck, organist of Windsor, first set to music the whole cathedral service. Professional musicians were retained at the church and at the

mansions of the nobility. In the sixteenth century a knowlege of music was considered a necessary accomplishment for a person of high rank. Henry VIII. not only sang well, but played on several sorts of instruments; he wrote songs and composed the tunes for them; and his example was followed by several of the nobility his favourites. An author at the beginning of the reign of James I. (1604) writes — We have here (in London) the best musicians in the kingdom and equal to any in Europe for their skill in composing or setting of tunes or singing, and playing upon any kind of instruments. The musicians have obtained of the king his letters patent, to become a society and corporation. Meanwhile the minstrel [see note thereon] being deprived of all his honours, and having lost the protection of the opulent, dwindled into a mere singer of ballads, which sometimes he composed himself, and accompanied his voice with the notes of a violin. The subjects of their songs were chiefly taken from popular stories, calculated to attract the notice of the vulgar at wakes, fares, and church ales. Warton mentions two celebrated treble singers, "out-roaring Dick and Wat Wimbas," who occasionally made 20s. a day by ballad singing. The barbers were often musicians, and usually kept a lute, a viol, or some other musical instrument in their shops, to amuse their customers while waiting. Though in their origin the waitts were watchmen, the name came to be applied to the minstrels who on certain occasions preceded the procession of the town or city watch; and temp. Elizabeth it meant the musicians appointed and paid by a town to play on certain occasions, and especially at night. Beaumont and Fletcher speak of the waitts of Southwark. In all old accounts of boroughs and corporate towns, courts leet, &c., are entries of the appointment and payment of the "town waitts or musicians." They were set up with a regular salary at Exeter in 1400. The musicians of the Accounts were doubtless some minstrels or ballad singers; others instrumental performers; some in the service of a wealthy knight or squire; others the town waitts, who seem to have made long pilgrimages during the periods when their services were not required at home. Thus we have the musicians of Mr. Atherton, of Mr. Tatton, of Mr. Trafford, of Sir Peter Leigh, and Sir Edmund Trafford; and the town waitts of Chester, Halifax, &c. In January 1584, the musicians of Sir Peter Legh, playing at Smithills, had 12d. and doubtless meat and drink. October 1586, those of Mr. Trafforthe 12d.; April 1587; those of Sir Edmund Trafforthe 12d.; July 1587, those of Mr. Tatton 12d.; and a musician of Mr. Atherton's 6d.; December 1609, for music at an inn at Alcberie, on the way from London to Lancashire,

12d. — for it was a custom for the local musicians to play to travellers at their inns; March 1610, the Halifax fiddlers, playing at Gawthorpe, had 12d.; April 18, to the musicians at the marriage of Eleanor Shuttleworth to Mr. Asheton, 6s. 8d. (a noble, probably the usual fee at a wedding); December 1611, given to the musicians, Mr. Warren's men, 12d. See also MINSTRELS and WAITTS.

MUSKETS. They were first used at the siege of Arras in 1414. Spain is said to have been the first to arm infantry with these weapons. They were used at the siege of Rhegen in 1521; in which year they were introduced generally into the English army (12th Henry VIII.) superseding bows and arrows. (*Carte.*) The Duke of Alva first brought the musket into use in the Low Countries in 1569. (*Branstone.*) It is supposed that the name was given to the new fire-arm from the male young of the sparrow-hawk; as the names of two species of cannon, the *saker* and the *falcon*, were also borrowed from the hawk tribe. We do not meet with the name in the Accounts till July 1621, when there was paid to John Harmer the armourer for five muskets with rests and moulds (14s. each) £3 10s. The "rest" was a rod with forked top and pointed end, which, stuck in the ground upright, received the long, heavy musket barrel in its fork, and so enabled the musketeer to take aim. In October 1621, one musket cost 13s. 6d.

MUSSELS. These shellfish seem to have been usually purchased, and probably eaten, with cockles (which see). They were cooked for the table as early as 1390. In March 1583, 4 metts of mussels and cockles cost 23d., and were fetched as wanted, at different times in Lent. See Index.

MUSTARD SEED. There be three kinds of mustard, two of the garden (or one garden and one field) and the third wild. The garden mustard with whitish seed is sown in gardens. Palladius saith it loveth to grow in ploughed ground and is delighted with moisture. This kind is not common in England, yet I have dispersed the seed thereof into sundry parts of this land, so that I think it is reasonably well known at this day. They may be called white mustard, common or field mustard, and wild or treacle mustard. The seed of mustard pound[ed] with vinegar is an excellent sauce, good to be eaten with any gross meats, either fish or flesh, because it doth help digestion, warmeth the stomach and provoketh appetite. They use to make a gargarism with honey, vinegar and mustard seed, against the tumours and swelling of the uvula and the almonds about the throat and root of the tongue. It is mixed with good success with drawing plasters. (*Ger.*) In the Accounts are various entries of mustard seed, which was pro-

bably pounded at home in the mortar, and mixed with vinegar for the table. See Index.

MUSTERS (French *moustre*) a review of military forces, in order to take account of their numbers, conditions, accoutrements, and arms. (*B. Dic.*) See ARMS, ARMOUR, SOLDIERS, &c. In March 1613 there was a muster at Whalley, and another there in March 1619. In the earlier portion of the Accounts, these musters were called SHOWS, which see.

MUTTON. The flesh of sheep, that is, when the animal had ceased to be lamb, was lightly esteemed by the ancients. Still mutton (French *mouton*) was in use in English cookery in 1390; for monchelet was a sort of stew of mutton, in broth, with herbs, good wine, onions, powder fort, saffron, with eggs and verjuice. In a recipe for furmenty of 1381, it is to be messed forth with fat venison and fresh mutton. (*Cury.*) The entries of mutton in the Accounts are so numerous as to enable the curious to trace the price per lb. of particular joints during a period of nearly forty years. See Index.

MYTTON, LITTLE. This town is situated near the confluence of the Ribble, the Hodder, and the Calder, and nearly on the lowest ground within the parish of Whalley. Whitaker supposes that as Great Mitton is on the opposite bank of the river, the name may have been Midtown, the town intersected by a river running through the midst of it. The manor of Little Mitton passed from the Catteralls by distaff to the Sherburnes, thence by purchase to the Holts, and from them by marriage to the Beaumonts. The present house is a fine specimen of the style of domestic architecture which prevailed in the reign of Henry VII. Of its fine gothic hall and screen, Dr. Whitaker speaks in the highest terms of admiration. The township of Little Mitton contains the hamlets of Henthorn and Coldcotes. Mitton Wood, at the time of these Accounts a possession of Thomas Sherburne of Stonyhurst, is close to Henthorn, which hamlet includes a series of farms belonging to the Shuttleworths, stretching from Little Mitton to Clitheroe, a distance of two miles. The wood is about six miles from Gawthorpe. The entries in the Accounts show that from Mitton wood much of the timber used in the erection of Gawthorpe Hall in 1600–4 was brought; it was bought of Mr. Sherburne, felled by carpenters and others employed by the Shuttleworths, and brought thence in their wains to Gawthorpe. See Index.

NAILS. (Anglo-Saxon *Nægl.*) Flat-headed nails of iron have been found in the later British barrows, from half an inch to five inches long. In the middle ages the specimens of nails of various kinds on old doors,

chests, &c., are innumerable. (*Fosb.*) Until a comparatively recent period almost every kind of nail was produced by hand labour, as are still what are called wrought nails. (*C. Knight.*) *Tusser* enumerates among "husbandly furniture," "a hammer and nail," and again, "hammer and English nails, sorted with skill." The Accounts mention many varieties of nails, and their prices. *Clagge* nails were probably what are now called clamp nails, for fastening the clamps of buildings, or it may be *clasp* nails, with flat heads for flooring; *brass* nails were in use; also *ox-nails* (perhaps used for the ox-bow and the yoke); *stock* nails (perhaps short and thick, which two qualities are represented by the one word stocky); *stone* nails; *stump* nails (for posts); *lath* nails; *lead* nails, dipped in lead, for nailing sheet-lead on roofs; *door* nails; and *burnish* nails, with shining heads, of which 1000 were bought for the carriage. Of all these varieties entries will be found, see Index. *Clout* nails, for fixing clouts, or small patches of iron or wood, and *spikes,* or large, long nails, also occur. *Nailers* seem to have been established in Lancashire temp. Elizabeth; for in March 1586, 18d. was paid for the making of a thousand and four score horse nails of your own iron; and in April the same nailer probably made a gang of harrow pins for 2s. 4d.; in February 1602, the nailer was paid 8d. for 100 double spikings [for the timber work of Gawthorpe Hall] and for 4000 lath nails (at 20d.) 6s. 8d.

Nail-percell-bit. A piercer for nail holes, a gimlet. *Tusser* calls it a percer. In Herefordshire a gimlet is still called a nail-bit. In the West it is also called a nail-passer. Is this a corruption of piercer?

Naithes. The naves of wheels. *Palsgrave* has "nathe-stocke of a whele." It is still in use. See Index.

Naples Biscuits. They were made of the finest flour and sugar, with eggs, milk, rose-water, &c. In the Accounts, amongst sweetmeats, &c., bought September 1617 of Mr. Thomas Lever, of London, spicer and confectioner, is a lb. of Naples biscuits, 2s. 6d.

Navy. Considering that it was in the reign of Elizabeth that the Spanish Armada made its formidable attempt at invasion, a short notice of the English navy by a writer of the period is given: — The navy of England may be divided into three sorts, of which the one serveth for the wars, the other for burden, and the third for fishermen. How many of the first order are maintained within the realm, it passeth my cunning to express; yet sith it may be parted into the navy royal and common fleet, I think good to speak of those that belong unto the prince, for their number is certain and

well known to very many. Certes there is no prince in Europe that hath a more beautiful or gallant sort of ships than the queen's majesty of England at this present, and those generally are of such exceeding force that two of them, being well appointed and furnished as they ought, will not let to encounter with three or four of those of other countries, and either bowge them [bulge or sink them] or put them to flight, if they may not bring them home. The common report that strangers make of our ships amongst themselves is daily confirmed to be true, which is, that for strength, assurance, nimbleness and swiftness of sailing, there are no vessels in the world to be compared with ours. The queen's highness hath at this present, which is the 24th year of her reign [1581-2, six years before the defeat of the Spanish Armada] already made and furnished to the number of 24 or 25 great ships, which lie for the most part in Gillingham road, beside three galleys; of whose particular name and furnitures it will not be amiss to make report. [He gives the names of 24.] Bonadventure, Elizabeth Jonas, White Bear, Philip and Mary, Triumph, Bull, Tiger, Antelope, Hope, Lion, Victory, Mary Rose, Foresight, Swiftsure, Aid, Handmaid, Dreadnought, Swallow, Genet, Bark of Bullen, Achates, Falcon, George, and Revenge. Her grace doth yearly build one ship or other, to the better defence of her frontiers from the enemy. If they should all be driven to service at one instant (which God forbid) she should have a power by sea of about 9,000 or 10,000 men, which were a notable company, beside the supply of other vessels appertaining to her subjects to furnish up her voyage. She hath likewise three notable galleys, the Speedwell, the Try-right, and the Black galley; with the sight whereof and the rest of the navy royal it is incredible to say how greatly her grace is delighted. And not without great cause (I say), sith by their means her coasts are kept in quiet, and sundry foreign enemies put back which otherwise would invade us. The number of those that serve for burden . . . . . if the report of one received be anything at all to be credited, are 135 ships that exceed 500 tons; topmen [merchant vessels] under 100 and above 40 tons, 656; hoys, 100; but of hulks, cutches, fisherboats and crayers, they [in number] are hardly to come by. There are also some of the queen's subjects that have 2 or 3, some 4 or 6, and one man (whose name I suppress for modesty's sake) hath been known long since to have had 16 or 17, and employed them wholly in wafting in and out of our merchants, whereby he hath reaped no small commodity and gain. There are few of those ships of the first and second sort [merchant vessels of 500 and above 40 tons] that are not worth £1000

or 3000 ducats at the least, if sold. What shall we think then of the navy royal, of which some one vessel is worth two of the other, as the shipwrights have often told me? . . . A well builded vessel will run or sail commonly 300 leagues or 900 miles in a week, or some will go 2,200 leagues in 6½ weeks. If their lading be ready against they come thither, there will be of them that will be here, at the West Indies, and home again in 12 or 13 weeks from Colchester; although the said Indies be 800 leagues from the point of Cornwall, as I have been informed. (*Harri.*) The permanent royal navy of England owes its origin to Henry VIII., who from having only one ship of his own, the Great Harry (built in 1488), had at the close of his reign 12,455 tons of shipping. It declined in the reigns of Edward VI. and Mary; but was again augmented under Queen Elizabeth, whom Camden calls "the restorer of naval glory," and "Queen of the Northern Seas," and at the close of her reign the royal navy amounted to 17,110 tons; some of her ships being of 1000 tons and carrying 340 seamen and 40 cannon. The English fleet which encountered the Armada consisted, according to one account, of 117 ships, containing 11,120 men; and by another, of 181 ships, 34 being men of war (from 800 to 1000 tons each) and the rest private adventurers or pressed merchant vessels.

NEATS' FEET AND TONGUES. *Næt*, Anglo-Saxon, horned cattle; *Neotan*, Anglo-Saxon, a beast of burden. (*Bosw.*) Neat, all kind of beeves, as ox, cow, steer, or heifer. (*B. Dic.*) This name for cattle is still retained in "neat's-foot oil," and in the Scotch word "nowt." Shakspere puns upon the word in the *Winter's Tale*: —

> And yet the steer, the heifer and the calf
> Are all called *neat.*

Neat-herd was a cattle tender; neatress a female servant to a neat-herd; and neat-house a cow-house. In the Accounts, January 1598, 16 neat's feet for jelly cost 16d. In December 1608, at London, a neat's tongue cost 10d.; in April 1610, in Lancashire, 4 kine feet and a neat's tongue 12d.; September 1611, a neat tongue 5d; and in May 1612, a cow tongue 8d.

NERVAL (q. d. nerve all.) A kind of ointment, for which *Halli.* gives a recipe from an early MS. in his possession, which states that "it is good for sinews." Take wild sage, amerose, camomile, bettony, sage, mint, heygrove, horehound, red nettle, laurel leaves, wallwort, of each half a quartern; wash and stamp them with a lb. of May butter; then put to a quartern of oil-olive, and meddle them well together, put it in an earthen pot, cover it well, and set it in a moist place nine days. Then fry it well, stirring it for

burning to the bottom; strain it into a vessel and set the strained liquor on the fire again, then put thereto half a quartern of wax, a quartern of wethers' tallow that is fair and molten, and a quartern of frankincense, stir it till it be well meddled; then strain and let it cool. Cut it then and let out the water thereof, and cleanse it clean on the other side; then set it over the fire again till it be molten, and then with a feyr [? ladle] skim it clean and put it into boxes; and this is kindly made nervalle. In the Accounts, in September 1589, 1½ lb. of nervall cost 15d.

NETS. Two kinds are named in the Accounts, cock-nets, to catch woodcocks, &c., and in August 1595, Ann Tonge of Rivington was paid 2s. 6d. for knitting a net for the drawing of the dam at Smithills, and so getting the fish.

NEWBURGH. A hamlet in the township of Latham and parish of Ormskirk, 4½ miles north-east from Ormskirk. It was celebrated for its annual fair, June 21, for horses, horned cattle, and toys. At the fair in 1583, 5 oxen were bought (£13 4s. 2d.), and in 1611 (September) a young bull was bought at the fair (£4 15s. 4d.).

NEW PARK. One of the three Lancashire seats of the Derby family (the others being Lathom and Knowsley), a quarter of a mile from Lathom. In the valley towards Lathom is a fine tract of well wooded country, called New Park, in the midst of which it is said formerly stood a castle called Horton Castle. (*Baines.*) This is believed to be the same mansion frequently called New Park in the Derby Household Books. In May 1592, the Earl of Derby sent sturgeon from New Park to Smithills.

NEWTON (called Newton-in-Makerfield and Newton-en-le-Willows, to distinguish it from other places of the same name in the county) was formerly a parliamentary borough, and is still a chapelry in the parish of Winwick, five miles north of Warrington. Its market was on Saturday; its fairs, February 12, May 17, July 15, and every Monday fortnight, for cattle and sheep; and August 12 for horses, horned cattle, and toys. It belonged to the crown temp. Edward the Confessor; and in virtue of its being a barony, was summoned to return two members to parliament in the first year of Elizabeth. The parliamentary representatives during the period of these Accounts were, in 1572, John Gresham and John Savile; 1585, Robert Langton and E. Savage; 1588, Edward Trafford and Robert Langton, both re-elected in 1592; Robert Langton alone is named in 1597; and in 1601 Thomas Langton and Richard Ashton. In the Accounts, in 1594, a gray nag of Sir Richard Shuttleworth's was sold to Mr. Morte, at Newton

fair for £4 in gold, and an old white horse or gelding called Nutter, for £3 4s. In 1595 one horse 3 years old was sold at Newton fair for £4 5s.; another, four years old, £3 13s. 4d.; and the black mare Ginger for £3.

NEW YEAR'S GIFTS. Among the Saxons of the northern nations the feast of the new year was observed with more than ordinary jollity; and Snorro Sturleston describes this new year's feast, just as Buchanan sets out the British Saturnalia, by feasting and sending presents or new year's gifts to one another. (*Stillingfleet.*) The custom remaineth in England, for the subjects send to their superiors, and the noble personages give to the king some great gifts, and he to gratify their kindness doth liberally reward them with something again. (*Polyd. Virg.*) In a rare tract, "Vox Graculi" (1623), under January 1 is the passage, "This day shall be given many more gifts than shall be asked for, and apples, eggs and oranges, shall be lifted to a lofty rate . . . . . Poets this day shall get mightily by their pamphlets; for an hundred of elaborate lines shall be less esteemed in London, than an hundred of Walfleet oysters at Cambridge." Capons were a usual new year's gift from tenants to their lords; an orange stuck with gloves was a new year's gift, or a gilt nutmeg; and children, carrying these or Kentish pippins, were sent that morning to crave a blessing of their god-fathers and godmothers. Another publication of 1631 speaks of "a fat goose against new year's tide." (*Brand*, &c.) Though in the time of the Accounts the year commenced on the 25th March, the gifts seem to have been presented on the 1st January, but originally the pace, Pasche, or Easter eggs were also new year's gifts at Lady-day. In the Accounts three new year's gifts for Mr. H. and others cost 22s.; and in January 1618 is an entry of a new year's gift to Grundy from Mrs. Shuttleworth, of 2s. 6d.

NOGGIN. A little piggin, holding about a pint. (*Ray.*)

NORRES. Of the family of this name, at Speke, and at Park Hall, the Index will guide to the various individuals mentioned in the Accounts. In 1587 was received of James Norres, for the rent of the tithe-corn silver for the Park Hall, being behind and unpaid for the space of six years, £3. Mr. Ormerod, LL.D., of Sedbury Park (the historian of Cheshire and the genealogist of the Norres family), has favoured us with the following note upon this member of the family: — He was the fifth son of Thomas Norres (younger brother of Sir William, the restorer of Speke) and this James is named fourth in the settlement of Speke, made by this Sir William in 1566. The payment would probably be only matter of agency, and not regarding any interest in Park Hall of his own. Edward Norres of Blacon, and after-

wards of Park Hall in Blackrod (where he died in 1578), the elder brother of James, had only a lease of Park Hall from the Speke family, to continue 21 years after his mother's death, which occurred in 1591; but his widow had surrendered the leasehold interest to the Speke family about 1582, when she married James Rigbie, her second husband. The corn composition in the text would coincide with the interval between her husband's death and her surrender of the lease. James Norres, who paid the composition, was a second cousin of Robert Barton of Smithills, the first husband of Lady Shuttleworth, by the common descent of Barton and Norres from Harrington, and seems to have been in reduced circumstances; for, May 25th 1584, it is stated in duchy pleadings that he had married Ann Holden, and that Ralph Barton of Gray's Inn, brother of the said Robert Barton, had given consent to this marriage, and to James Norres's "preferment to a farm in Lostock, not only in respect because he was a kinsman, but because his friends and cousins had commended him." (*Pleadings of the Blackrod and Bolton branches of Norres, preserved at Sedbury Park.*) In the Accounts, November 1590, Mr. Norres of the Speke was collector for a subsidy granted to the Queen by parliament. In September 1594 was received of Mr. Norres of the Park Hall, for one half of his eight tithe lambs (at 3s. each) 12s. For other entries see Index.

NORTHWICH. A town in Cheshire at the junction of the rivers Dane and Weaver, 20 miles north-east of Chester, the most northerly of the *Wyches*, or salt-works, of which the other two principal are Middlewich and Namptwich or Nantwich; all the three names being pronounced with the i long, as in *wine*, thus differing from Norwich, Ipswich, &c., the last syllable in which is the Anglo-Saxon *wic*, village, of *wician*, to dwell. Droitwich again is another of the *Wyches*. The Cheshire wyches had usually the definite article prefixed, as "the north wich," "the middle wich," as in the Accounts, in June 1586, "2½ krennekes [see CRANNOCK, p. 558] of salt at the Northwyche 55s.; spent in fetching it and paid for toll 3s. 4d. See note on SALT.

NOTARY. (*Notarius.*) They who understood the art of writing by notes and abbreviations [i.e. by stenographic or shorthand characters and by the combinations of initial letters called *singulæ* or *siglæ*] were at Rome called notaries [notarii] and as application was made to them for receiving all kinds of accounts, the name of notary was hence attached to the public officers who exercised this function. They witnessed and copied contracts, &c., as now. The notary first wrote the draught of the deed in notes

(called the *scheda*) and then transcribed it in fair writing and at length (called *in purum* or *in mundum redigere*). The notaries and their customs passed into Gaul with the Romans; the dignity was various in the imperial palace. In the middle ages they were called in for attestation as now; and the Bishops' secretaries, who carried their seals, were called notaries. Notaries public were also employed for interrogating witnesses. They had offices, a technical language for their various deeds, and kept a clerk. (*Fosb.*) The notary (usually a scrivener) is one who takes notes or makes a short draught of contracts, obligations, and other writings or instruments. (*Statute 27th Edward III. cap.* 1). He is called a notary public who publicly attests deeds or writings, to make them authentic in another country; principally in business relating to merchants. Notaries make protest of foreign bills of exchange, &c. Noting a bill is the notary's going as witness to take notice of a merchant's refusal to accept or pay it. (*Merc. Dic.*) In September 1592 the copy of an inventory cost 2s. 6d. and the notary's hand [signature] to the same 2s. 6d.

Nowell of Read. The ancient family of Read were "del Clough," one of whom, Johanna, daughter and heiress of John del Clough, married Sir Richard de Greenacres, who in 37th Edward III. (1363) gave a moiety of the manor of Read to Lawrence Nowell, in exchange for the manor of Great Mearley. The Nowells continued in possession of the seat thus acquired for a period of 409 years. Roger, the son of Roger Nowell, married at Padiham, in January 1551, Florence, widow of Laurence Starkie Esq. of Huntroyd. The husband died in May 1591, the wife in December 1593. The third Roger in direct descent married Katharine, daughter of John Murton Esq. of Murton, was sheriff of Lancashire in 1610, and died in January 1623. Their eldest son Roger was baptised August 8, 1582, married first, Elizabeth, daughter of Thomas Fleetwood Esq. of Coldwich, co. Stafford: and secondly, Catharine, daughter of Robert Hyde Esq. of Norbury, co. Chester. Roger Nowell died in November 1623. The celebrated Alexander Nowell D.D., Dean of St. Paul's, was the second son of John (son of Roger) Nowell Esq. and Elizabeth Kay of Rochdale, his second wife, and was born at Read in 1506. At thirteen he became a member of Brasenose College, Oxford; in December 1551 was installed prebendary of Westminster; withdrew to Frankfort during the persecutions of Mary's reign; on the accession of Elizabeth he became archdeacon of Middlesex in January 1560, and, in November of that year, dean of St. Paul's, which deanery he held 41 years. He founded the grammar school at Middleton;

and in 1570 published his celebrated catechism (not the one sometimes printed in the Book of Common Prayer); and died full of honour as of days in February 1601, at the advanced age of 95 years. His brother Laurence was the restorer of Saxon literature in England, and became dean of Lichfield in April 1559. He wrote several philological and archæological works, and died about 1577. (*Whalley.*) In the Accounts, the only name mentioned is "Mr. Nowell of Read." He seems to have bought a gelding, corn, &c., of the Shuttleworths; to have borrowed money of them (for in 1604 he repays £20 and has his bond delivered to him), and to have sold timber, &c., from his wood of Read for the building of Gawthorpe Hall. In September 1607, 7 ashes were bought of him for wheel timber at 10s. each; January 1606, 21 saplings for £14; and in June 1616, a bull was bought of him, to keep, for £6. See Index.

Nurses. The first entry in the Accounts of nurses being employed is in January 1618, when the half-year's wages of Master Ughtred's nurse were 40s.; July 1618, the quarter's wages 20s.; September 1618, the wife of Richard Stones, for nursing Master Richard Shuttleworth 3¼ years (at £4 yearly) received £13; April 1619, to master Ughtred's nurse for a quarter and three weeks tending [him] 25s.; to another nurse, her half-year's wages for master Barton 40s.; the like in December 1619 and August 1620; in October nurse Jackson had a quarter's wages, 20s.; and in December, master Barton's nurse, half a year's wages, 40s.

Nutmegs. The aromatic nut which the Latins call *nux moschata*, *myristica*, or *aromatica*, is the kernel of a fruit of the size of our green nuts, of two sorts, distinguished as male or long, and female or round, common nutmeg. *Mr. Tavernier* says the tree is not planted, but grows by means of certain birds or fowl, which swallow the nutmegs whole and throw them up again undigested; and that the nutmeg being then covered with a viscous and gluey matter, and being cast upon the ground, takes root, and produces a tree which grows just as if it had been planted! Nutmegs are a commodity of which none but the Dutch are masters, because it is cured nowhere but in the Isles of Nero, &c., and in the great island of Banda, in Asia, which are so stocked with the trees that it is almost incredible, the trees being always loaden with flowers and fruit, and bearing three crops a year, in April, August, and December, those of April being most valued. The climate is so temperate that men live to 120 years of age, and have nothing to do but eat, drink and sleep (!) while the women employ themselves in separating the browze from the nutmeg, drying the mace, and

breaking the shells wherein is the nutmeg, being the chief commodity of the country and almost all they live by. The nutmeg has three wrappings, the shell, the mace, and the green browze. The trees which bear the female or common nutmegs grow not but in cultivated lands; those which produce the long or male nutmegs grow wild in woods and forests: these are little used, being almost without taste or smell, and void of any virtue. The round nutmeg is valued in medicine. Being beat up with sugar, a powder is made of it which is admirable, taken in warm white wine, for curing catarrhs and rheums that proceed from cold causes: it is called the Duke's powder. Put 2 ounces of nutmegs to a lb. sugar, and some add cinnamon. The islanders of Banda make a confection of the green nutmeg, which is brought to Holland, sometimes with sugar and sometimes without. These comfits are some of the best we have: their chief use is to carry to sea, particularly to northern parts. Of an oil made from the nutmeg by distillation (which is white, clear, and very fragrant) 4 or 5 drops is a dose, in any proper vehicle; wherein it becomes cephalic, neurotic, stomachic, cordial, hepatic, &c.; good against all old diseases of the head, nerves, &c.; expels wind, griping, and sickness at heart. The mace that grows around the nutmeg has all the same virtues. (*Pomet.*) Nutmegs cause a sweet breath and amend those that do stink, if much chewed and holden in the mouth. They are good against freckles in the face, stay the lask, &c. The heaviest and fattest nutmegs (fullest of juice) are the best, which may easily be found out by pricking with a pin. (*Ger.*, who figures "the nutmeg with his mace," and the nutmeg tree.) In a recipe for Ypocras in Anglo-Norman, printed in *Cury* (1390), "noiez mugadez" stand for nutmegs. In the Accounts, in November 1616, one lb. of case nutmegs cost 3s. 4d. For other entries, see Index.

Nuts. *Ger.* describes several varieties, including the pistachio, which he says is called in England fistic nut; the bladder nut or *nux vesicaria*, sometimes called the wild pistachio or St. Anthony's nut, of which he says the tree grew in his garden, and in that of the Lord Treasurer his very good lord and master [William Cecil, Lord Burghley] and in the garden hedges of Sir Francis Carew near Croydon, seven miles from London; the hazel or filbert, and he calls it hazel when growing wild in woods and dankish, untoiled places, — filbert when grown in orchards and gardens, the nuts whereof are better, of a sweeter taste, and most commonly red within. The white nuts are judged to be wild. [Then he describes the walnut tree. See note thereon.] As to chestnuts, there be sundry woods of them in England,

as a mile and a half from Feversham in Kent, and in sundry other places. The horse chestnut is so named, for that the people of the East countries do with this fruit cure their horses of the cough, shortness of breath, &c. Galen saith that of all the acorns the chestnuts are the chiefest, and do only of the wild fruits [of the nut kind] yield to the body commendable nourishment. Being boiled or roasted, they are not so hard of digestion. An electuary of the meat of chestnuts and honey is very good against the cough and spitting of blood. The bark of the chestnut tree, boiled in wine, and drunk, stoppeth the lask, bloody flux, &c. Beech nuts or mast greatly delight mice and squirrels, who do mightily increase by feeding thereon; swine also and other beasts be fattened herewith; deer do feed thereon very greedily; they be likewise pleasant to thrushes and pigeons. The almond tree is naturally of hot regions, yet we have them in our London gardens and orchards in good plenty. There is drawn out of sweet almonds, with liquor added, a white juice, like milk, which over and besides that it nourisheth, and is good for the lask and bloody flux, &c., is profitable for those that have the pleurisy. Almonds taken before meat do stop the belly and nourish but little; notwithstanding many excellent meats and medicines are therewith made, for sundry griefs, as almond butter, cream of almonds, marchpanes, &c. They serve also to make the physical barley water and barley cream, given in hot fevers. The oil of almonds maketh smooth the hands and face of delicate persons, and cleanseth the skin from all spots, pimples, and lentils. Five or six bitter almonds, taken fasting, do keep a man from being drunk. With honey they are laid upon the bitings of mad dogs. The gum, if drunk with bastard, or any other sweet potion, as decoction of liquorice or of raisins of the sun, may cure old coughs, mitigate extreme pains of the stone, &c. (*Ger.*) See also note on ALMONDS, p. 402. Nuts were used in cookery in England in the 14th century; a particular sauce in 1390 had for one ingredient kernels of nuts; and a crustard [pie] of herbs on fish day contained many walnuts, picked clean and ground small. (*Cury.*) In the Accounts, in October 1608, in London, damsons, walnuts, and hazel nuts were bought for 3d.; in September 1612, nuts cost 3d.

NUTTER, MR. Called also "Steward Nutter." In October 1617, Nicholas Assheton records in his Journal (vol. xiv. of the Chetham Society) that "Steward Nutter" kept at Clitheroe, leet, halmote, and wapentake, all the same day; a thing which had not previously occurred in living memory. The Rev. Canon Raines in a note explains that John Nutter, living in

Pendle Forest 15 and 34 Elizabeth (1573—1592), had two sons, Ellis and Richard; and that Ellis Nutter was the deputy steward [of the honour of Clitheroe] and probably an attorney. In October 1605, a gray mare rising three years old was bought of a John Nutter of Habergham Eaves for £5. November 1612, £5 was given to a John Nutter to repay Mrs. Ireland, Mrs. Shuttleworth having borrowed that sum of her in London. In April 1617, £10 was paid to John Nutter for the use of £100 for a year. Whether this John Nutter was the father of the steward is more than we know; but it is not unlikely, as the first time that "Steward Nutter" is named in the Accounts, in April 1617, it is in the payment of another year's interest on £100; and there is a similar payment in March 1618. In December 1619, Steward Nutter's clerk had a gift of 6d.; in October 1620, Mr. Steward [? Nutter] was paid 5s. for two copies of Padiham Moor and part of Burnley Moor [copyhold in the tenure of the Shuttleworths]. In March 1621, £100 was received of Mr. Steward Nutter, lent money for use [i.e. at interest].

Oats (Anglo-Saxon *ate*), oat or cockle, darnel. The word is commonly used in the plural. The plant flourishes best in cold latitudes, and degenerates in warm. (*Webst.*) In March is time to sow oats, and especially upon light ground and dry, howbeit they will grow upon wetter ground than any corn else; and three London bushels will grow an acre. There be three manner of oats, red, black, and rough oats. Red are the best, and when threshed they be yellow in the bushel, and very good to make oatmeal of. Black be as great, but have not so much flour in them, for they have a thicker husk, and they be not so good to make oatmeal. Rough oats be the worst, and it quitteth not the cost to sow them; they be very light and have long tails, whereby they hang each one to another. All these manner of oats wear the ground very sore, and make it to bear quick. (*Fitz.*) To mow or shear oats, see p. 429. Oats, though of all manner of grain the cheapest, because of their generality, being a grain of that goodness never so rich, and never so poor, as if nature had made it the only loving companion and true friend of mankind; yet it is a grain of that singularity for the multiplicity of virtues and necessary uses for the sustenance and support of the family, that not any other grain is to be compared with it; so that joining virtue and value together, no husband, housewife, or housekeeper whatsoever hath so true and worthy a friend as his oats are. There is not any food whatsoever that is so good, wholesome, and agreeable with the nature of a horse as oats are, being a provender in which he taketh such

delight, that with it he feedeth, travelleth, and doeth any violent labour whatsoever, with more courage and comfort than with any other food that can be invented. Neither doth the horse ever take surfeit of oats, whereas no other grain but gluts a horse. At the siege of Naples many hundred horses died of the surfeit of wheat; at Rome also died many hundred horses of the plague, which was found to proceed from a surfeit taken of peason and vetches. Oats for horses are the best of all foods, whether only clean thrashed from the straw and so dried, or converted into oatmeal, ground, and made into [horse-]bread. Oats boiled and given to a horse while they are cool and sweet, are an excellent food in time of disease, poverty, or sickness; for they scour and fat exceedingly. As for horses, so are oats for the ass, mule, camel, or any other beast of burden. If you will feed either ox, bull, cow, or any neat whatsoever, to an extraordinary degree of fatness, no food doth it so soon as oats, whether in the straw or clean thrashed from the sheaf, and well winnowed; but the winnowed oat is the best, for by them I have seen an ox fed to 20 pounds, 24 and 30 pounds; which is a most unreasonable reckoning for any beast: only seam and the tallow hath been precious. [And so as to sheep, goats, swine, a kennel of hounds, grayhounds, spaniels, all manner of poultry, turkeys, geese, ducks, swans, &c.] For the most necessary use of man and the general support of the family, there is no grain in our knowledge answerable to it. First for the simple oat itself,. the most special use is for malt to make beer or ale of, which it doth exceedingly well, and maintaineth many towns and countries. But the oatmeal, being the heart and kernel, is of much rarer price and estimation; like salt, it is of such general use that without it hardly can any family be maintained. (*Mark.*) For oats and seed oats see Index.

Oatmeal. It is that with which all pottage is made and thickened, whether they be meat-pottage, milk-pottage, or any thick or thin gruel whatsoever; of whose goodness and wholesomeness it is needless to speak, in that it is frequent with every experience. Also with this small meal is made in divers countries [counties or districts] six several kinds of good and wholesome bread, every one finer than another, as your anacks [fine oaten bread] jannocks and such like. Also there is made of it both thick and thin oaten cakes, which are very pleasant in taste and much esteemed; but if it be mixed with fine wheat-meal, then it maketh a most delicious and dainty oat-cake, either thick or thin, such as no prince in the world but may have them served to his table. Also this small oatmeal mixed with blood, and the liver of either sheep, calf, or swine, maketh that pudding which is

called the haggas or haggus [the haggis of Scotland and of Burns] of whose goodness it is in vain to boast, because there is hardly to be found a man that doth not affect them. Lastly, from this small oatmeal, by oft steeping it in water and cleansing it, and then boiling it to a thick and stiff jelly, is made that excellent dish of meat which is so esteemed in the west parts of this kingdom, which they call wash-brew, and in Cheshire and Lancashire they call it flamery or flummery, the wholesomeness and rare goodness, nay the very physic-helps thereof, be such and so many, that I myself have heard a very reverend and renowned physician speak more in the commendations of that meat, than of any other food whatsoever. Certain it is that you shall not hear of any that did ever surfeit of this wash-brew or flummery; and yet I have seen them of very dainty and sickly stomachs which have eaten great quantities thereof, beyond the proportion of ordinary meats. Now for the manner of eating this meat, it is of divers diversely used; for some eat it with honey, which is reputed the best sauce; some with wine, either sack, claret, or white; some with strong beer or strong ale; and some with milk, as their ability, or the accommodations of the place, will administer. From this wash-brew is derived another coarser meat (as it were the dregs or proper substance of the wash-brew) called gird-brew, which is a well-filling and sufficient meat fit for servants and men of labour — a meat of harder digestion, and fit indeed but for strong, able stomachs, and such whose toil and much sweat both liberally spendeth evil humours, and also preserveth men from the offence of fulness and surfeits. For of the bigger kind of oatmeal called greets [grits, groats] or corn oatmeal, are made all sorts of puddings or "pots" (as the west country terms them) whether they be black, as those made of the blood of beasts, swine, sheep, geese, red or fallow deer, or the like, mixed with whole greets, sweet and wholesome herbs; or else white, as when the greets are mixed with good cream, eggs, bread-crumbs, suet, currants, and other wholesome spices. Also of these greets is made the Good Friday pudding, which is mixed with eggs, milk, suet, penny-royal, and boiled first in a linen bag, and then stripped and buttered with sweet butter. Again, if you roast a goose and stop her belly with whole greets, beaten together with eggs, and after mixed with the gravy, there cannot be a better or pleasanter sauce. Nay, if a man be at sea in any long travel, he cannot eat more wholesome and pleasant meat than these whole greets, boiled in water till they burst, and then mixed with butter, and so eaten with spoons; which, although seamen call it simply by the name of loblolly, yet there is not any meat, how magnificent soever the

name may be, that is more toothsome or wholesome. To conclude, there is no way or purpose whatsoever to which a man can use or employ rice, but with the same seasoning and order you may employ the whole greets of oatmeal, and have full as good and wholesome meat, and as well tasted. The little charge and great benefit considered, oatmeal is the very crown of the housewife's garland, and doth more grace her table and her knowledge than all grains whatsoever; neither indeed can any family or household be well and thriftily maintained where this is either scant or wanting. (*Mark.*) Both oats and groats occur in English cookery of the 14th century. (*Cury.*) In the Accounts, in August 1589, oatcakes were bought for 2d. At p. 145 are stated the quantities of oatmeal and groats made at Gawthorpe in 1602.

Officers. The three or four principal servants in a great household. The Earl of Derby had his comptroller and steward of the household, his grooms of the bedchamber and clerks of the kitchen, his chamberlain or marshal of the hall, master of horse and falconer, gentlemen ushers, &c. In the Accounts, we infer the number of "officers" in the houses visited by the Shuttleworths, and to whom they gave vails on leaving, to have been four, about 4s. being the usual sum given. In October 1612 are two entries: to the officers at Clayton (Mr. Anderton's), 4s.; and given at Mr. Anderton's of Clayton, to the officers, 4s. 6d. In March 1617, given by my master to the officers at Clayton 4s.; in April, to the officers at Middleton Hall (Mr. Assheton's) 8s. 8d.; and to the officers at Mr. Anderton's of Clayton 4s. 3d.; September 1618, to the officers at Houndswood 4s. 6d.

Oil. (*Oleum*, as chiefly derived from the olive.) Besides train oil, the Accounts mention salad oil, oil of bays, and oil of Seville. Train oil is made from the blubber or fat of the whale; and as early as the ninth century the Northmen fished for the whale. The English sent out their first ships for this fishery in 1611. Oil of bays is made of the bay or laurel berries, by bruising them and letting them stand several days in warm water, and then distilling by an alembic. The best comes from near Montpellier in Languedoc. (*Pomet.*) Salad oil is olive oil. When the olives are full ripe, in December and January, the oil is pressed out in mills for that purpose, and this oil of sweet taste and pleasant smell is called virgin oil. Those who would have much oil leave the olives to rot, but the oil they produce is of an unpleasant and disagreeable taste and smell, and this is called common oil; the best comes from Genoa and various parts of Italy, and from Provence; the worst from Spain (especially Majorca) and Portugal. Olive oil

is the basis of all compound oils, cerecloths, balsams, ointments, and plaisters. Being beat up in wine, it is a natural balsam for the cure of wounds; and of wine and this oil "Samaritan balsam" is made, a medicine in vogue at this day as well with the rich as the poor. Olive oil is useful for burning in churches, because it does not stink so bad as other oils, and lasts longer; but its dearness makes it that the poor cannot use it. (*Pomet.*) Oil of Seville was probably an olive oil made there. In the Accounts, in November 1601, two quarts of train to dight [dress] a cowhide with, cost 16d.; a bottle of salad oil was bought in London in July 1590 and sent by Mr. Lever to Smithills; in August 1608, in London, salad oil cost 1d.; and in September a pint 12d.; in September 1617 a glass of salad oil and paper 2s. 4d. In July 1612, turpentine and oil of bays cost 8d.; and in August 1613 oil de baies 6d. In May 1617 a pint of "civill oyle for a colt" 3d.; January 1618, a pint of "Cyvill oyle" 6d.

OINTMENT. Much faith was formerly placed in unguents; and in the Accounts is an instance, in December 1593, of a man on horseback travelling from Smithills to beyond Knutsford, to the house of some Mr. Burnes, to whom he gives a fee of 5s. and also pays 5s. more for an ointment; and so travels back again, his journey costing 14s. 11d. See also the notes on COGAN MR., MEDICINE, NERVAL, PHYSICIANS, and QUACKS.

OLDOM, ADAM, OF MANCHESTER. In July 1587 he was paid for dyeing blue 2 lb. of woollen yarn, 12d. Could he be of the family of Hugh Oldham, Bishop of Exeter, who founded the Manchester free grammar school, and died in 1520?

OLEANDER. (*Nerium*). A small shrub, called in English rose tree, rose bay, rose bay tree, and oleander. A variety is the *N. flore albo*, or rose bay with white flowers. They grow in Hungary and other hot regions, by rivers and the sea side: I have them growing in my garden, where they flower in July and August; the cods ripen afterwards, and are full of white down, among which the seed lieth hidden. The flowers and leaves kill dogs, asses, mules, and other four-footed animals; but if men drink them in wine, they are a remedy against the bitings of serpents, and the rather if rue be added. If sheep or goats drink the water wherein the leaves have been steeped, they are sure to die. (*Ger.*) What is called "oaliander comfits" (p. 212) should doubtless be coriander comfits, of which 3 lb. cost 4s. In *C. C. Dic.* is a recipe for coriander-seed water, which is simply an infusion sweetened with sugar and strained.

OLIVES. At Paris three sorts of olives are sold. The best are those of

Verona; next the Spanish, and the third are the Provence olives. (*Pomet.*) The olives to be preserved in salt and pickle, must be gathered before they are ripe and whilst green. They remove the loathing of meat, and stir up the appetite, but there is no nourishment in them. (*Ger.*) In March 1618 a barrel of olives cost 5s. 3d.

ONIONS. (French *Oignon.*) The onion is cherished everywhere in kitchen gardens; now and then in beds sown alone, and many times mixed with other herbs, as lettuce, parsnips and carrots. One kind of onion, without head or bulb, bent with a long neck, is cropped or cut for the pot like a leek: we call it hollow leek, the Spaniards cebola. All onions be sharp, and move to tears by the smell. The juice taketh away the heat of scalding with water or oil, or of burning with fire or gunpowder; as is set forth by a very skilful chirurgeon, Master William Clowes, one of the Queen's chirurgeons. (*Ger.*, who figures the white and the red onion; the squill or sea onion, &c.; the leeks and the chives or wild leek, the garlics, &c.) Onions enter into various recipes for broths, pottage, stews, and messes of herbs in an English MS. of 1390. (*Cury.*) The best are brought us out of Spain, whence they of St. Omer's had them, and some have weighed 8 lb. Being eaten crude and alone with oil, vinegar, and pepper, we own them in sallet not so hot as garlic, nor at all so rank; boiled, they give a kindly relish; but eaten in excess, they are said to offend the head and eyes. In our sallet we supply them with the tops of leeks, and eschalots [so named as from Ascalon] a gust more exalted, yet not to the degree of garlic. An honest, laborious countryman, with good bread, salt, and a little parsley, will make a contented meal with a roasted onion. Herodotus says that while building the pyramids of Egypt there was spent in this root ninety tons of gold amongst the workmen; and the Israelites were ready to return to slavery and brick-making for love of them. (*Evelyn's Acet.*) For purchases of onions, and the seed, in the Accounts, see Index.

ORANGES. (From the Latin *aurantium*, from its golden colour.) It seems to have been brought by the Portuguese from India, early in the sixteenth century, and by them planted in the Canaries, Madeira, and in all countries washed by the Mediterranean. The Portugal orange comes from China, brought thence two centuries ago, and now there are forests of oranges in Portugal. The first orange tree cultivated in the centre of France existed, a few years ago, at Fontainebleau, and was called Le Connétable, because it had belonged to the Constable de Bourbon (*Pantrophéon*). Oranges were known in England as early as temp. Henry VIII. An

orange stuck with cloves was a new year's gift. Sir Francis Carew, who bought Beddington House, Surrey, about 1590, either first brought the trees into England, or first planted them in the natural ground. (*Fosb.*) The sweet and sour oranges come from Nice, &c., likewise from Genoa, Portugal, the American islands, and China; but the largest store of those we now use [in France] come from Provence. Oranges are considered whole after having been scooped and emptied or peeled entire; these we call whole oranges, or candied orange peel: the finest is that made at Tours. We have orange peel cut in chips, made at Lyons, which is what we call orangeat. The other chief use we make of oranges, sweet and sour, is to candy the flowers, which come chiefly from Italy and Provence. The distilled water we call naphtha or orange flower water, which is mostly used by the perfumers. The distillers draw a clear oil from orange flowers, of strong fragrancy, which the perfumers called Neroli; the best is made at Rome; next that in Provence. (*Pomet.*) Some divide oranges into three sorts: the crab or sour; the bitter or Seville; and the sweet or China orange. The bitter orange is of most virtue and chiefly used in physic, as the peel for confections, the oil for perfumes, juice for syrups, flowers for candying, seed or kernel for emulsions, and the water or spirit for a cordial; in all which forms they are stomachic, cephalic, and anti-cholic. (*Lemery.*) A dozen oranges cut in slices and put into a gallon of water, adding thereto an ounce of mercury sublimate, and boiled to the consumption of half, cureth the itch and manginess of the body. The sweet and odoriferous flowers of oranges be used of the perfumers in their sweet-smelling ointments. (*Ger.*) In *C.C. Dic.* are various recipes to candy, to dry, to preserve oranges in quarters or sticks; to make orange butter, compost [compote] of orange, faggots of orange, orange paste, orange marmalade, orange in zests, slips, &c., orange tarts, pudding and water, orangeade, essence and paste conserve of orange flowers, to preserve them, and to make orzat or orgeat. *Price* gives various similar recipes, amongst others to preserve green oranges, the Duchess of Cleveland's recipes to preserve oranges, &c., to make orange rings and faggots, cakes, &c. In 1583, a package of hops and oranges bought in London cost 6s. carriage to Smithills; In December 1591 seven oranges cost 2d., and in April 1609, at Islington, oranges were bought for 4d.

Orchard. (Anglo-Saxon *ortgeard*, Danish *urtgaard*, i.e. wort or herb yard.) An inclosure planted with fruit trees, and chiefly apple trees. (*Webs.*) A corruption of *oast garten*, Teutonic. (*B. Dic.*) In Anglo-Saxon times it was very common in suburbs, and was annexed to baronial seats in all parts

of Europe. It was to be found attached to all monasteries, and in some every monk had his part, and the trees were trained to take the form of crosses. (*Fosb.*) As objects of farming or field culture, orchards do not appear to have been adopted until about the beginning of the seventeenth century, though they had doubtless existed in Great Britain for many ages previously as appendages to wealthy religious establishments. (*Loudon.*) Fountains Abbey, on the north bank of the Skell, was found on the dissolution to have on that side of the stream twelve acres occupied by the building, its orchards, gardens, &c., while on the south side there were four "apple-garths" or orchards. At the dissolution, Whalley Abbey possessed the farmery garths, the kitchen garths, the Prior's orchard, Parry's orchard, Marston orchard, Wordell orchard, the Abbot's orchard, the Proctor's orchard, Hill orchard, Harwood orchard, Danby orchard, Haydock and Woods orchard, Dinkley orchard, &c. In a survey of the Abbey possessions taken soon after its dissolution, are enumerated a croft and an orchard, containing one acre; seven little orchards called the Ashes, one acre; Whitcar's orchard half an acre; the orchard, half an acre; the parish orchard, one rood; Mersten orchard, one rood; Denbie orchard, half an acre; two little orchards called Abbot's orchard and Hill orchard, one rood; two ditto ditto the Abbot's orchards and Harwood's orchard; two ditto ditto the Heydocks and Wood orchards; the Prior's orchard; Dinckley orchard, half a rood; Mr. More's orchard, half a rood; two orchards called the Proctor's of Whalley, half an acre, &c. (*Coucher Book.*) So that, although most of them were of small extent, the Abbey altogether possessed many orchards. An Elizabethan writer says: — Our orchards were never furnished with so good fruit, nor with such variety, as at present. For beside that we have most delicate apples, plums, pears, walnuts, filberds, &c., and those of sundry sorts, planted within forty years past, in comparison with which most of the old trees are nothing worth; so have we no less store of strange fruit, as abricots, almonds, peaches, figs, &c., in noblemen's orchards. I have seen capers, oranges, and lemons, and heard of wild olives growing here, beside other strange trees brought from far, whose names I know not. We have such workmen as are not only excellent in grafting the natural fruits, but also in their artificial mixtures, whereby one tree bringeth forth sundry fruits, and one and the same fruit of divers colours and tastes, dallying as it were with nature and her course, as if her whole trade were perfectly known unto them. Of hard fruits they will make tender, of sour sweet, of sweet yet more delicate; bereaving some of their kernels, other of their

cores, and finally enduing them with the savour of musk, amber, or sweet spices at their pleasure. (*Harri.*) For fruit, &c., see notes on their names, GARDEN, &c., and Index.

ORGAN. In February 1594 is an entry of 16s. for two couple of organ, which came from York. These are mentioned first after the purchase of herrings bought at the Meoles near Hoole, and of other fish bought at Preston, in readiness for Lent; and *B. Dic.* states that orges or organ ling is the greatest sort of the North Sea fish. The orgeys is named in a statute (31st Edward III. cap. 2) as the greatest sort of sea-fish and larger than lobfish. See notes on FISH, LING, &c.

ORMSKIRK. A market town, parish, and corporation, thirteen miles north-north-east from Liverpool, two hundred and eight miles from London. The fairs in the time of these Accounts were on Whit Monday and September 8 and 9, for horned cattle and horses. These fairs and the weekly market (Thursday) were established by a grant from Edward I. to the Canons of Burscough Priory, to whom the place formerly belonged. The parish church [Orme's kirk or church] is of considerable but uncertain antiquity. A chapel therein was erected according to the will of Edward third Earl of Derby (bearing date 1572); in it is the cemetery of the Stanley family, whose remains have been buried here since the dissolution of the monasteries. There is also a chantry belonging to the Scarisbrick family; and some of the monuments formerly at Burscough Priory have been removed to this church. Ormskirk was once known as the locality of a specific against hydrophobia, called the "Ormskirk medicine," which, however, proved to be valueless. It has long been celebrated for its manufacture of that favourite Lancashire sweet, "the real Ormskirk gingerbread." In August 1586, corn, the growth of some of the family estates, was sent to be sold at Ormeskyrke market. In October 1594, a glover about Ormeschurche bought of the Shuttleworths, as raw material for his trade, 12 mutton skins (at 14d. each), 10 chance sheepskins (at 10d.) and 3 calf skins (at 6d.) in all 23s. 10d.

OSBALDESTON OR OSBOSTON, GEFFRY. Third son of Edward Osbaldeston of Osbaldeston Esq. and of his wife Maud, daughter of Sir Thomas Halsall of Halsall Knt. He was knighted by Queen Elizabeth, became Justice of the Common Pleas, and died 33rd Elizabeth (1591) in the same year with his father. This father, Edward, was a Deputy Lieutenant and Justice of the Peace for the county. The panel to the extreme right over the fireplace of the drawing room at Gawthorpe, evidently represents the initials

(E. M. O.) of this Edward Osbaldeston and his wife Maud. In February 1591-2 (the year of his death) £3 6s. 8d. was borrowed from Mr. Geoffrey Osbostone.

Osbaldeston or Osboston, John. Son and heir of Edward abovenamed. He was born in 1555, married Ellen, daughter and co-heiress of John Bradley of Bradley, and succeeded his father in 1590-91. In the Accounts, in March 1593, having bought certain lands in Eccleshill and Darwen (of the yearly rent of £3 6s.) of Sir Richard Shuttleworth, he paid £15 on account, leaving unpaid £170 besides the redeeming of an annuity with arrearages valued at £120 (p. 80); in 1587, £15 more was paid "of the debt of Mr. John Osbostone which he is in arrearages of the annuity;" and in 1593 he paid 27s. 10d. for the fees of the commission sued out for the acknowledgement of a fine, by him and his wife, of David Field House.

Ostlers. As hostel or hostelry was the old name for an inn, its keeper was called hosteller (French hôtelier), out of which grew two words, the keeper being now denominated the host, and the servant who has charge of the horses the hosteller or ostler. Dryden uses the word hostry for a stable. In 1582, at a Yorkshire inn, a man travelling on horseback and staying the night gave the ostler 4d.; December 1593, the hay and provender for two horses during the night at an inn at Chester cost 2s. 4d., and 2d. was given to the ostler; in November 1602, two men and five horses travelled from Gawthorpe to York and back, and all that was given "to the ostlers by the way, going and coming," was 4d., the usual cost of the journey being 14s. 9d. In November 1610, at Manchester, the horsemeat cost 4s. 3d., and the ostler had 4d.; in September 1621, the steward went on horseback to Gisburne fair, and gave his horse a feed at Preston, 4d., and the ostler there 2d.

Oswaldtwistle. (Oswald's boundary.) A township in the parish of Whalley, between Haslingden and Blackburn, three miles east-south-east from Blackburn. In the money receipts of the Shuttleworths, in 1583, is 3s. 2d. for the turbary and pasture of Oswaldtwistle moor, and for the tithe corn silver of the charterers and tenants of Oswaldtwistle £3. 0s. 9½d., of which £2 6s. 8d. seems to have been paid to Mr. Ashton, the Queen's receiver. In 1585 the tithe corn silver received of the charterers and tenants was £3 1s. 1d., and John Barrow paid for turbary and pasture of the moor 3s. 8d. In 1590 the tithe corn silver was £3 1s. 3d., whereof was paid to Mr. Ashton seven nobles (£2 6s. 8d.) leaving a net balance of 14s. 7d.

Ousels. (Anglo-Saxon *osle.*) A name common to several species of birds of the thrush family, one being the blackbird. (*Webs.*) The blackbird. (*B. Dic.*) The blackbird (*merula vulgaris*), the ring ouzel (*merula torquata*), and the water ouzel (*merula aquatica*), are enumerated by *Ray*. The ring ouzel is often called the rock or the tor ouzel. It is larger than the common blackbird; length about 10½ inches. In the second part of *Henry the Fourth*, "a black ouzel, cousin"; and in a song in the *Midsummer Night's Dream*, "ouzel cock so black." In the Accounts, in December 1594, 5 ousles and 8 fieldfares cost 7d., and 2 oucles, 2 plofares, and 13 larks 7d. In December 1595, 2 oucelles, with 6 fieldfares, 16 sparrows and youlwringes, 2 snipes and 2 snipe-knaves, cost only 16d. In December 1597, 2 blackbourdes 1d. January 1598, 7 thrushes, 2 larks and one ooselle 12d. December 1598, 17 ousells cost 11d., and 9 ouselles with 2 fieldfares and 2 dozen larks 17d.

Ovens. (Anglo-Saxon *ofen*, Danish *ovn*, Dutch *oven.*) A place arched over with brick or stone, for baking, heating, or drying any substance. (*Webs.*) The bread oven of the Anglo-Saxons was called the *Llaf-oven*. It was a feudal privilege to have a common oven, and others were not permitted but by charter. These public ovens were very large, sixty sheep having taken refuge in one. 14 feet diameter was the common size; and mention is made of "a large pastery, with five ovens new built, some of them 14 feet deep." The "lord's oven," or public bakehouse of a manor, was occasionally leased, and persons were fined who did not bake at it, even so late as the reign of Elizabeth. These ovens were heated with fir branches or other materials. (*Fosb.*) *Leland* says that Breadcroft in Stanford was so called from the bakers selling bread in it; for all the town bread was then baked in a public oven at that place; and that formerly all public ovens were appointed to be outside all towns, to prevent fires, as the houses were built of wood. In Thomas de Grelley's charter to the burgesses of Manchester in 1301, the tenth clause runs thus: — "Also the said burgesses shall follow to [or do suit at] the lord's mill, and his common oven; and shall pay their customs to the said mill and oven, as they ought and were wont to do." In the charter granted by Ranulph de Blundeville Earl of Chester to the burgesses of Salford, in 1270, one clause declares that "no burgess ought to bake bread which may be for sale, unless at my oven, by reasonable custom." And similar provisions occur in the charters of old boroughs in this and other counties. In an extent of the manor, by two inquisitions post mortem, in April and May 1282, on the death of

Robert de Grelley, it is set forth that there is there [in the manor] a certain oven [of the lord's] worth yearly 10s. It seems to have fallen in value after the charter; for in the extent of the manor in 1322 it is set forth that "there is a certain common oven near the lord's court, worth yearly 6s. 8d., at which by custom every burgess ought to bake." The records of the Manchester court leet show that from the reign of Edward VI. downwards, the lord's oven was farmed by some burgess, who was frequently presented for accumulating gorse and kid [faggot] stacks outside the bakehouse, so as to endanger the safety of the neighbourhood from fire. In the Accounts are entries which show that ovens were erected at Smithils and Gawthorpe, for the use of the household. In October 1591, 4d. was paid for mending the ovens at Smithils; September 1592, Robert Hoppe and his brother, for making an oven there, were paid 5s.

OVERSEERS. Overseers of the poor were public officers created by the celebrated statute of 43rd Elizabeth (1603), to provide for the poor of every parish, and were two, three, or four in number, according to the extent of the parish. Churchwardens, by this statute, are called overseers of the poor, and they join with the overseers in making a poor's rate, &c.; but having a distinct business of their own, they usually leave the care of the poor to the overseers only; though anciently churchwardens were the sole overseers of the poor. (*Jacob.*) In the Accounts, in November 1617, the overseer of Pendle received for a gald towards provision of clothes for a poor child, 10d.; in April 1618 the overseers of Burnley levied a fifteenth for the relief of the poor there, Colonel Shuttleworth's quota of which was 7½d. In April 1619, for similar purposes, the levy and payment were of the same amounts. In March 1621, Mr. Ryley, overseer, received for the assessment for the poor at Whalley 12d.

OXEN. The plural of ox. (Anglo-Saxon *oxa*, Swedish and Danish *oxe.*) Strictly applied only to the cut males of the bovine genus. (*Webs.*) There is no kind of cattle whereof we have not great store in England, as oxen . . . . For where are oxen commonly more large of bone . . . . than here with us in England? Our oxen are such as the like are not to be found in any country in Europe, both for greatness of body and sweetness of flesh, or else would not the Roman writers have preferred them before those of Liguria. The flesh of our oxen and kine is sold both by hand and by weight, as the buyer will; but in young ware rather by weight. Their horns also are known to be more fair and large in England than in any other places . . . . . which quality, albeit it be given to our breed generally by nature, yet it is

now and then helped also by art. For when they be very young many graziers will oftentimes anoint the budding horns or tender tips with honey, which mollifieth the natural hardness of that substance, and thereby maketh them to grow to a notable greatness. Certes, it is not strange in England to see oxen whose horns have the length of a yard (or three feet) between the tips, and they themselves thereto so tall, as the height of a man of mean and indifferent stature is scarce equal unto them. (*Harri.*) Whether is better a plough of horses or a plough of oxen? In every place where the husband hath several pastures, to put his oxen in when they come fro their work, there the ox-plough is better. For an ox may not endure his work, to labour all day, and then to be put to the commons, or before the herdman, and to be set in a fold all night without meat, and go to his labour in the morning. But an he be put in a good pasture all night, he will labour much of all the day daily. Oxen will plough upon tough clay and upon hilly ground, whereas horses will stand still . . . . . Oxen will eat but straw and a little hay, the which is not half the cost that the horses must have; and they have no shoes, as the horses have. If any sorance come to an ox, wax old, bruised, or blind, for 2s. he may be fed, and then he is man's meat, and as good or better than ever he was. Therefore, meseemeth, all things considered, the plough of oxen is much more profitable than the plough of horses. (*Fitz.*) The larger are the best and most profitable, both for draught and feeding; for he is the strongest to endure labôur, and best able to contain both flesh and tallow. That ox is fittest for the yoke, which is of gentle nature, and most familiar with the man. Match oxen for the yoke as near as may be of one height, spirit, and strength. Your ox for the yoke will labour well with barley straw or peas straw, and for blend fodder, which is hay and straw mixed together, he will desire no better feeding. Your ox to feed should be ever lusty and young of years; or if old, yet healthful and unbruised. (*Mark.*) In the Accounts, the entries as to oxen, singly and in yokes, their prices, on sale at fairs and markets, the toll paid on them, the shoeing of them, treating them for diseases, and their slaughter, are very numerous; and it must suffice here to refer to the Index. See also notes on BEASTS, CATTLE, NEAT, &c., and for prices at different periods, Appendix II.

OXBOWS. The bow of wood that goes round the neck of an ox; differing from the yoke, which couples oxen for drawing two abreast. In May 1605, a wright, for working four days at "byding boses," which is probably

bending ox-bows, in the new barn, 2s.; October, a wright four days, "bynding the boses for the kine," in the new barn, 2s.

Oxford. Formerly Oxen-ford, 55 miles west of London by the old coach road. Alfred is said to have founded three colleges here; amongst others University College in the year 872. It was [re-]founded by William, Archdeacon of Durham, about 1232. St. Edmund's Hall dates from 1269. The foundations in the reign of Elizabeth were Jesus College, by Dr. Hugh Price in 1571; and St. Mary Magdalen Hall in 1602. In the reign of James I. and before 1621 — Wadham College by Nicholas Wadham and Dorothy his wife 1612; St. Mary's Hall 1616; and Pembroke College by Thomas Teesdale and Richard Wightwick, clerk, in 1624. In the Accounts, several entries refer to the Oxford carrier. See Index.

Oxgang. (*Bovata terræ.*) The oxgang of land was said to be as much as one ox or a pair of oxen could plough or keep in husbandry tilth in a year; by some accounted 24 or 18 acres; by others but 10, 12, 13, or 15; but, like carucates and other portions of land, it was uncertain, differing as the soil was harder or easier to plough. (*Note in Kelham's Domesday.*) It is commonly taken for 15 acres of land, or as much as one ox can plough in a year. (*Jacob.*) *Skene* saith that an oxengate of land should always contain 13 acres, and that 4 oxengates extend to a pound land. *B. Dic.* differing from all these, says it is as much land as may be ploughed by one team or gang of oxen in one *day*, 13 acres. *Ainsworth*, a Lancashire man, says that an oxgang is 20 acres of land. *Dr. Whitaker* asserts that the bovate averaged 16 acres; most probably it fluctuated (according to the nature of the land) between the two extremes of 18 (*Spelman*) and 13 (*Ducange*) acres. In the Accounts, the oxgang is chiefly named as the subject of a fine, tithe or tax. In September 1594, the fine of waste ground in Padiham was at the rate of 33s. 4d. the oxgang; and Sir Richard Shuttleworth paid for $2\frac{1}{4}$ oxgangs £3 15s. In February 1600, of the tax for furnishing soldiers for Ireland, 3 oxgangs and three acres of land at Gawthorpe paid 2s. 3d.; while 17 acres at Scholebank paid 9d. In February 1610, a gald for the relief of the plague-infected-in Liverpool, Euxton, &c., was half a fifteenth, and this was levied on $7\frac{1}{2}$ oxgangs at High Whitaker, $3\frac{3}{4}$d.; and on $1\frac{1}{2}$ oxgang at Scholebank, $2\frac{1}{4}$d. In August 1605, Lawrence Shuttleworth of Gawthorp held in Padiham 20 oxgangs of land at High Whitaker, half an oxgang at Copthurst, 2 oxgangs late Lister's lands, $1\frac{1}{2}$ oxgang late Banister's lands, 2 late Willasell's lands, 2 late Haydock's lands, 1 late Cockshot's lands, half an oxgang late Robinson's lands, and 5 acres in Dubcar late

of Marshall's oxgang. In all 29½ oxgangs and 5 acres, all of which were galded at 10s. the oxgang, towards the building of the new schoolhouse and new smithy at the west end of Padiham.

OX-LAY — OXEN FOR THE QUEEN'S TABLE. In the reign of Elizabeth the different counties were called upon to supply their sovereign with the cattle for her majesty's table; and beef was a standing dish even at the queen's breakfast. The county of Lancaster, by an agreement entered into at Wigan by the Earl of Derby, the Bishop of Chester, the Lord Strange, and a number of justices of the peace there assembled, compounded on behalf of the inhabitants of the county, for the provision of oxen and other cattle for her majesty's household; and Sir Richard Shirburn and Alexander Rigby Esq., on their resort to London during the ensuing term, were authorised to ratify the agreement with "Mr. Treasurer, Mr. Controuler, and Mr. Cofferer," with whom it was agreed (January 10th 1582) that the county of Lancaster should yearly yield for that purpose 40 great oxen, at 53s. 4d. apiece, to be delivered at her majesty's pasture at Crestow. The following award was then made from each hundred; in ratification whereof the undersigned affix their hands: — Derby hundred xxvj[li]; Amounderness xvj[li] x[s]; Lonesdall xv[li] x[s]; Salford xvj[li] x[s]; Blackborn xvj[li] x[s]; Leylond viij[li]. Soe in all C[li]. If the sum shall come to more or less, the same to be increased or abated after this rate. (Signed)

H. Derbie. W. Cestr.
Fer: Strannge.

Richard Shirburne	Wm. Ffarington	Robert Worsley
John Byron	Jas. Asshton	Robert Langton
John Radcliffe	Edw. Tyldesley	Tho: Eccleston
Richard Brereton	Richard Asshton	Nicholas Banester
Richard Holland	Xpifer Anderton	John Bradley.

These contributions (says *Baines*, vol. i. p. 574), which were reduced to a money charge, having subsequently fallen into arrear, a purveyor was sent down by government to execute the commission, by seizing the oxen in the county; but the Earl of Derby, aided by his treasurer, took order for enforcing the payment of the composition, and in any case where the money could not be had, the commissioners were directed to take in lieu thereof, "for her ma[te] provision, bacon, and such lyke thinges." (*Harl. M.S. Cod.* 1926.) The exactions of these purveyors "for her majesty's household and stables," had become so notorious, that in 1590 a commission was instituted in Lancashire, to investigate these delinquencies, and to certify the same

to the queen's government. In the Accounts in February 1600, the ox-lay for the Shuttleworths' part of West close was 6½d.; for Holt close 3d.

Oysters. Oysters of fine quality are generally of easy digestion, particularly when eaten raw. Some persons are said to have been able to eat from 15 to 20 dozens without being ill. They are not so good cooked; they become hard, tough, and consequently indigestible. They are eaten pickled with vinegar and sweet herbs; and in this state sent to countries distant from the sea, piled close, without shells, in small barrels. (*De Blainville.*) The British oysters, valued by the Romans, are supposed to have been those of Folkstone. Our ancestors barrelled and pickled them, and judged of their goodness by the greenness of their fin. (*Fosb.*) The British oyster was deservedly famous among the Romans, and was, even as early as the reign of Vespasian, thought worthy to be carried into Italy. The best were then gathered from the shore of Kent, called "oysters of Rutupis," and were probably collected from the same places as the present low-priced oysters of Milton and Feversham. The Romans first taught us the art of fattening our oysters in artificial beds. (*Manch.*) An English recipe for oyster brewet or broth, of 1381, may amuse: — They should be shelled and sodden in clean water. Grind pepper, saffron, bread, and ale, and temper it with broth. Do the oysters therein; boil it and salt it and serve it forth. (*Cury.*) We have plenty of oysters, whose value in old time for their sweetness was not unknown in Rome (although Mutianus, as Pliny noteth lib. 32, cap. 6, prefers the Cyzicene before them) and these we have of divers qualities. Albeit our oysters are generally forborne in the four hot months of the year — May, June, July, and August — which are void of the letter R; yet in some places they be continually eaten, where they be kept in pits, as I have known by experience. (*Harri.*) In the Accounts, in March 1591, a man who brought to Smithills smelts and oysters from Bold, had 18d.; in September 1608, in London, a peck of oysters cost 6d.; in April 1609, ditto 4d.

Packthread. In 1365–6, packthread was bought, with a little net, &c., (*Finchale*); in a compotus of the year 1425, is a Latin entry of "8 snoden de packthred," apparently for making a net for catching rabbits, &c. (*Ducange.*) In 1530, packthread was bought at 5d. per lb. (*Durham Bursar's Mem.*) From the Lincolnshire term of "a packthread gang," applied to a gang that would not hold long together (some being likely to "split" upon the others), we may infer that packthread was not always of the most tenacious and durable character; and we have heard a saying in the East Riding

of Yorkshire, "as rotten as packthread." In November 1592, packthread to mend the [wood]cock-nets cost 3d.; October 1593, packthread to the cock-net 2d.; August 1596, packthread was bought with girth-web for a saddle; June 1613, 3 knots of packthread cost 3d.

PADIHAM. The home or habitation of Paddi. In the catalogue of the *nativi*, in the chartulary of the Abbey of Cockersand, are named Jordan and Alexander, "filii Paddi, cum sequela." A considerable village, advantageously situated on the elevated bank of the Calder, four miles west of Burnley and a mile from Gawthorpe. The chapel, dedicated to St. Leonard, is the oldest place of worship in the parish of Whalley of the new foundation. A memorandum in the Townley MSS. states that Henry VI. had granted to one Mr. John Maresheale a licence dated 7th February in the 30th year of his reign (1452) to purchase certain lands for the use of a chantry priest at the church or chapel of Padiham. "William Boothe, clericus de Padiom" (1470), was probably the first chantry priest. John Baxter occurs as curate in the beginning of the register, 1573; he died in 1616, and was succeeded by Walter Borset. In 1536 the annual amount of the offerings at the shrine of St. Leonard is put down at 6s. 8d. There is reason to suppose that the older parts of the present church were built and made parochial temp. Henry VIII. Marshall's chantry was probably a very small and humble edifice. The masonry appears too good for the time of Henry VI., and the appearance of Abbot Paslew's arms upon the font and in the east window leads to a conjecture that it was rebuilt and obtained the parochial rights of baptism and burial in his time. The tower and little choir, both of excellent masonry, alone remain of the original building. The body of the church, having become ruinous, was rebuilt in 1766. The patronage of the church is vested in the Starkies of Huntroyd; and the church has long been a burial place of the families of Gawthorpe and Huntroyd. [For two monumental inscriptions of the Shuttleworths in this church see Appendix I., pp. 275, 279.] As to the chapelry of Padiham, an inquisition was taken at Blackburn June 25th 1650, before Richard Shuttleworth Esq. and others, by commission under the commonwealth seal, for inquiring and certifying the number and value of all parochial vocations &c. within the parishes of Whalley, Blackburn, and Rochdale. By which, amongst other things, it was found that the chapelry of Padiham is parochial, consisting of the townships of Padiham, Hapton, Simonstone, and Higham Booth; containing 232 families, and 1106 souls. That the inhabitants of Newlaund, Reedley Hollows, Filly Close, and Ightenhill Park, distant 1½

mile from Burnley, desire to be united to Burnley church, and to be made a parish. That the chapelry of Burnley consists of that township, Habergham Eaves, and Worsthorne, and contains upwards of 300 families. The manor of Padiham has never been granted out. In the great Lacy inquisition of 1311, there were only two free tenants, John de Whitacre 44 acres, yearly value 25s.; and Richard, son of Mawe, for 25½ acres 8s. 6d. There were besides 99 acres, demised to tenants at will, 33s. 2d.; 24 oxgangs in bondage, demised to 25 customary tenants at £7 4s.; services remitted 8s.; and one water mill £2. The town fields of Padiham were divided in 1529 by the commissioners for inclosure; the whole consisting of ten oxgangs of land, the distribution of which will show how extremely variable and irregular this ancient mode of admeasurement must have been. Divided into five parcels or plots of two oxgangs each, the first two oxgangs consisted of 40 acres, the second of 32, the third of 32, the fourth of 40, and the fifth of 49 acres. [The ten oxgangs therefore included 193 Lancashire acres, averaging 19·3 acres to the oxgang. See note on the word.] In this township are the remains of the house of High Whitaker, consisting only of one wing, strongly and respectably built, apparently temp. Henry VIII. It was found by inquisition that the estate of High Whitaker consisted of 100 acres of land, 100 of pasture, 20 of meadow, 100 of moor and morass, in High Whitaker, Simonstone, and Padiham. It is the property of the Shuttleworths of Gawthorpe. (*Whalley.*) Since Whitaker wrote, Padiham has undergone a great and marvellous change, having become a seat of the cotton manufacture. The village is now a town; some of the public buildings, schools, chapels, cotton mills, &c., and dwellings, are of substantial character, of stone, and exceedingly neat and appropriate in style. It is lighted with gas, and under the joint influence of the two chief landed proprietors of the neighbourhood, Sir James P. Kay Shuttleworth of Gawthorpe Hall, and Le Gendre Nicholas Starkie Esq. of Huntroyd, it has added several beneficial institutions for education and the training of young people in science and the useful no less than the fine arts. The principal estates of the Shuttleworths in Padiham are Northwood, Northwood Head, Copthurst and High Whitaker, Stockbridge, Tinkler's or Old Moss, Nearer Bendwood Grove, the Crossbank Farm, the Scole Bank, Scar Bank, &c. Padiham Hey is a field near Padiham and close to Gawthorpe. In the Accounts, the entries as to Padiham are numerous, for which see Index. A list of Mr. Lawrence Shuttleworth's tithe rents in Padiham in 1602 will be found pp. 145, 147; and a memorandum in 1605 of his lands (29½ ox-

gangs and 5 acres) and tofts (22) in Padiham, pp. 164, 165. The fairs are also noticed; they were May 8th and September 26th, chiefly for coopers' and other wooden ware. Padiham Mill is named in 1611, when five metts of meal were sold there at 3s. 8d the mett; March 1618, a man was paid for twice making candles at Padiham mill, 4d.; and in 1617, 39 metts of meal were sold at the mill at 4s. 8d the mett.

Paillet or Pallet. A small bed, so named from being generally stuffed with straw [French *paille*]. The ticks were made of busk or bustian. (*Edw. IV.*)

Panniers. (French *panier*). A dorser or basket to carry bread on horseback. (*B. Dic.*) But they were used for various other purposes. In February 1586, three pair cost 2s.; December 1590, a pannier to carry eggs and wildfowl in, 5d.; September 1591, a pair, 12d.; May 1593, two pair, and five horse loads of coals, 2s.; March 1594, a little hand pannier to carry wildfowl and chickens in, 4d.; January 1612, making a pair of panniers, 12d.; April 1620, ditto 12d. In the middle ages fish was carried in panniers.

Pans. (Anglo-Saxon and Danish *Panne.*) A kitchen vessel [of iron or brass]. (*B. Dic.*) In November 1612, two little pans for the house use at Barton, 5s. 6d.; 9 lb. of iron, 20d.; to the smith, for working it into hooks, pothooks, and builes [handles] to the pans, 12d.; February 1619, for a little porridge pan, 18d.

Pantables. (French *Pantoufles.*) Slippers. The phrase, "to stand upon one's pantables," meant upon one's honour. *Stubbes*, describing the ladies shoes, says "They have corked shoes, puisnets, pantoffles and slippers," of various coloured velvet, Spanish and English leather, stitched with silk and embroidered with gold and silver all over the foot, &c. In the Accounts, in July 1612, six pair of shoes and a pair of pantables to my mistress, cost 18s. 4d.

Paper. Paper was first brought to England from Germany in 1320 or 1324. Dr. *Prideaux* states that he saw a register of some acts of John Crauden, prior of Ely, made on linen paper, bearing date 14th Edward II. (1320), and that in the Bishop's registry at Norwich there is a register book of wills, all of paper, wherein entries are made dated in 1370, just 100 years before *Ray* says the use of it begun in Germany. In the Cottonian Library, British Museum, are several writings on linen paper, as early as 1335. White coarse paper was made by Sir John Speilman a German [jeweller to Queen Elizabeth] at Dartford, in 33rd Eliz. 1590, and there the first

paper mills were erected. (*Stowe.*) [That this is an error of the old chronicler will be seen below.] Previously and indeed till 1690, paper for writing and printing was chiefly imported from France and Holland. Our manufacture was almost wholly a coarse brown, rather than white paper, till the French refugees taught us; and an act (2nd William III. 1690) was passed to encourage the manufacture of writing and printing paper in England. (*Anderson.*) The paper used by Wynkin de Worde (1495-6) was made at a paper mill near Stevenage, co. Hertford, by John Tate jun., supposed to have been the first paper maker in England. (*Astle.*) "1498, May 25, for a reward given at the paper mill, 16s. 9d." (*Bacon's Henry VII.*) This is 90 years before the date assigned by Stowe above (1588) for the first English paper mill. The names of varieties of paper are derived from the early water-marks. A very ancient mark representing an open hand, is supposed to have given its name to "hand-paper"; another favorite mark (1539) was a jug or pot, whence "pot-paper"; paper of a particular size at a later date was stamped with a fool's head, wearing cap and bells, hence "foolscap"; and still later (1670) the device was a post-horn, whence "post paper." The entries of paper in the Accounts are numerous. See Index. In October 1612, blotting paper cost 2d. In October 1618, two quires of white paper cost 8d.

Papists. An anonymous pamphlet, probably written by the royal command, appeared in January 1581-2, about the same time as a severe statute declaring those guilty of high treason who should dissuade English subjects from their allegiance and from the established religion, or who should reconcile them to the church of Rome. The same penalty of high treason was denounced against those so dissuaded or reconciled. The pamphlet, which is entitled "The execution of justice in England, for maintenance of public and Christian peace, against certain stirrers of sedition and adherents to the traitors and enemies of the realm, without any persecution of them for questions of religion," &c. — was doubtless intended as an apology for and commentary on the act of parliament. Elizabeth was anxious to show that she did not persecute for religious opinions, or punish the catholic for being so, but only as a traitor, holding allegiance, not to her his rightful sovereign, but to a foreign potentate; for Pius V. had in a bull denied her legitimacy and sovereignty, and forbidden her recognition as queen of England. Amongst other means to foster popery "it was devised to erect by certain schools which they called seminaries [at Douay, Rheims, and Rome, where the students were carefully

instructed in three points of doctrine, obedience to the Pope, hatred to Elizabeth, and zeal for extirpation of Protestant heresy] to nourish and bring up persons disposed naturally to sedition, to continue their race and trade, and to become seedmen in the tillage of sedition, and them to send secretly into these the queen's realms of England and Ireland under secret masks, some of priesthood, some of other inferior orders, with titles of Seminaries for some of the meaner sort, and of Jesuits for the stagers and ranker sort, and such like; yet so warily they crept into the land as none brought the marks of their priesthood with them." [The tract then shows that none had suffered death for merely upholding the Pope's supremacy, but for high treason. Taking the Papists' own computation of three score persons executed in twenty-five years of Elizabeth's reign, it asserts that in little more than the five years of Mary's reign almost four hundred were executed, besides others murdered in prisons, including more than twenty archbishops, bishops, and other principal church dignitaries, above three score women and forty children. It is also shown that no Papist was executed till Elizabeth had reigned more than twelve years, and then it was for affixing the excommunicating bull of Pope Pius V. to the gates of the Bishop of London, near St. Paul's — an act of high treason. Then followed the rebellion in the north and that in Ireland, both instigated by the Pope; and it was for these seditions and treasons that those found to be promoting them were executed] and "not their books, nor their beads; no, nor their cakes of wax which they call Aguus Dei, nor other their relics; no, nor yet their opinions for the ceremonies or rites of the church of Rome." In the Accounts, in January 1583, a fifteenth was levied for the support of the papists and rogues in the prison at Manchester, to which Sir Richard Shuttleworth paid 18d. in Halliwell and 1½d. in Bolton. See also Recusants.

Paraments. In December 1617, 15½ yards of mixed "paramides" (at 2s. 4d.) cost 36s. 3d. The word is Anglo-Norman (paramenz, Carpentier, parure), meaning furniture, hangings of a room or bed, and, according to *Chaucer*, robes of state.

Parchment. (*Parchemin*, French, from *Pergamena*, Latin, said to be from having been brought to perfection at Pergamus; by others from *purgo*, Latin, to cleanse or purify.) The skin of a sheep or goat dressed or prepared (with pumicestone, &c.) so as to receive writing. Vellum is made of the skins of lambs, kids, or very young calves. (*Ure.*) Neither England nor Germany used any other substance than parchment for public acts before the discovery of paper from rags. (*Fosb.*) In the Accounts, in June

1588, six skins of parchment cost 2s. 10d.; September 1593, two skins ditto, on which to engross a commission, 20d.; April 1596, three skins 2s. and one skin 8d.; March 1605, one skin of parchment for my master's use, and one piece to be a covering for a book, 6d.

Parks. The Anglo-Saxons had their *deor-falds* or deer folds. In this country parks had existence at the Conquest, and Henry I., who is said to have introduced them (*parcus* being a general word for inclosure), was merely the first who had a menagerie of wild beasts at Woodstock. *Stowe* thinks it was only the first inclosure within a stone wall. *Collins* says that Henry Earl of Warwick, by imitating Henry I., brought them into vogue. Bishops had them on purpose to hunt in. Some were fifteen miles round, girt with a stone wall, and a manor-house in the middle. Every seat of consequence had two parks, a large one, commonly of 300 acres (chiefly confined to deer and perhaps made purposely for them), and a small one of 80 acres. Before deer were introduced into them (temp. Edw. III.) studs of horses were kept in parks. (*Fosb.*) In England the first great park particularly mentioned was that of Woodstock, formed by Henry I. in 1125. Of the London parks, St. James's (previously a mere marsh), now 87 acres, was drained by Henry VIII.; the Green Park (now 56 acres) forms a part of the ground inclosed by that king. Before the time of George II. nearly the whole of Kensington Gardens (300 acres) was included in Hyde Park, (which now only contains 349 acres,) and these three parks, in one continuous chain, inclose nearly 500 acres. (*Haydn*, and *Bohn's Handbook of London.*) An Elizabethan writer says that in every shire of England there is great plenty of parks, whereof some here and there, to wit well near to the number of two hundred, for her daily provision of that flesh [i.e. venison], appertain to the prince, the rest to such of the nobility and gentlemen as have their lands and patrimonies lying in or near unto the same. . . . . . . In Kent and Essex only are to the number of a hundred, and twenty in the bishopric of Durham, wherein great plenty of fallow deer is cherished and kept. . . . . . . Our parks are generally inclosed with strong pale, made of oak, of which kind of wood there is great store cherished in the woodland countries, from time to time in each of them, only for the maintenance of the said defence, and safe-keeping of the fallow deer from ranging about the country. . . . . . . I find also the circuit of these inclosures in like manner contain oftentimes a walk of four or five miles, and sometimes more or less. Whereby it is to be seen what store of ground is employed upon that vain commodity [deer], which bringeth no manner of gain or profit to the owner.

. . . . . [Instead of corn fields and cattle pastures] now there is almost nothing kept but a sort of wild and savage beasts, cherished for pleasure and delight; and yet some owners, still desirous to enlarge those grounds, as either for the breed or feeding of cattle, do not let daily to take in more, not sparing the very commons whereupon many townships now and then do live, affirming that we have already too great a store of people in England; and that youth, by marrying too soon, do nothing profit the country, but fill it full of beggars, to the hurt and utter undoing (they say) of the commonwealth. (*Harri.*) So there were Malthusians even in the days of good Queen Bess! The writer just quoted speaks of the inclosures of Cavisham, Towner, Woodstock, Bolton, &c. being overthrown by the Saxons and Danes; and he thus complains of these inclosures: — We had no parks left in England at the coming of the Normans, who added this calamity also to the servitude of our nation, making men of the best sort furthermore to become keepers of the game, whilst they (the Normans) lived the meanwhile upon the spoil of their revenues, and daily overthrew towns, villages, and an infinite sort of families, for the maintenance of the venery. Neither was any park supposed in their times to be stately enough that contained not at the least eight or ten hidelands, that is, so many hundred acres or families (or as they have been called in some parts of the realm carrucats or cart-ways) of which one was sufficient in old time to maintain an honest yeoman. King John travelling northwards in 1209, to war upon the King of Scots, in his return overthrew a great number of parks and warrens, of which some belonged to his barons, but the greatest part to the abbots and prelates of the clergy. For hearing as he travelled the complaint of the country, how these enclosures were the chief decay of men and of tillage in the land, he swore an oath that he would not suffer wild beasts to feed upon the fat of his soil, and see the people perish for want of ability to procure and buy them food, that should defend the realm. . . . . . . If the said prince were alive in these days, wherein Andrew Boord [the original "merry andrew"] saith there are more parks in England than in all Europe (over which he travelled in his own person) and saw how much ground they consume, I think he (King John) would either double his oaths or lay the most of them open, that tillage might be better looked unto. The frank chase taketh something both of park and forest; it differeth not much from a park, nay is in manner the selfsame thing, saving that a park is environed with pale, wall, or such like: the chase is always open, and nothing at all enclosed, as we see in Enfeeld and Malvern chases. (*Harri.*) Of the parks in Lancashire at the period of

these Accounts, the best enumeration we can offer is one derived from a careful inspection of Speed's map of the county in 1610, wherein a sort of paled circle indicates a park. There is not one in the map north of Morecambe Bay. Hatton Park, 3 miles north-east of Lancaster; Ashton Hall, 3½ miles south of Lancaster, then the seat of the Duke of Hamilton, had and has a fine park. In the township of Bonds, 2 miles north-east from Garstang, then stood Greenhalgh Castle and its park, built by Thomas Stanley first Earl of Derby temp. Henry VII. It was dismantled by order of parliament in the civil war, and one ruinous tower alone remains. Myerscough was not a park but a forest; but Barton Lodge, then a residence of the Shuttleworths, stood in its park. Osbaldeston Hall was within its park pale, being then the seat of the family of that name. Samlesbury Hall and park were the seat of the Southworths, who possessed the manor 350 years: it was sold to the Braddyls in 1677. Hapton Tower, in its park, 5 miles north of Haslingden, was an ancient seat of the Townleys, and was inhabited as late as 1667, but is now destroyed. Townley Park, with its mansion, still exists, and is the seat of the family. These were all the parks proper north of the Ribble. In what is now South Lancashire there were then very few parks, and these chiefly in the West Derby hundred. In the Salford hundred, indeed, we do not see one marked on the map, neither at Trafford nor elsewhere. In the western hundred three large parks are conspicuous, viz. Lathom park, Knowsley park (both seats of the Earls of Derby) and Toxteth park near Liverpool, anciently a park belonging to the Duchy of Lancaster. In 1770 it was entirely composed of farms; now it is a portion of the great town of Liverpool. There are four small parks, one at Billinge, another at Holcroft, a third at Bradley in Newton (a seat of the Leghs) and a fourth at Carr. In all, we have enumerated 15 parks in Lancashire at the beginning of the seventeenth century. But there were doubtless others which have since been laid open, as on the other hand many have been formed since 1610. We know that there was an Alde Park near Knott Mill, Manchester, and a New Park near Lathom, both the seats of the Earls of Derby; so that the list derived from the map must be very imperfect. Indeed in Speed's map of Cheshire are shown three Lancashire parks, none included in the map of the latter county — Holme or Hulme (a seat of the Mosleys and the Blands), Trafford Park (of the Traffords), and Barton near Eccles. In the map of Cheshire are the following parks: Warburton, Bramhall, Poynton, Lyme, Mere, Tatton, Tabley, Aston, Dutton, Gawsworth, Hooton, Bidston, Neston, Brereton, Kinderton,

Baddeley, Ridley, Wrenbury, and several small ones unnamed; clearly indicating that although a smaller county, Cheshire had at that time more parks than Lancashire. For the parks named in the Accounts, see their respective names, as Lyme, Lathom, Knowsley, both in the notes and index.

Parish Registers. — There have been various opinions as to the precise period when parish registers were first kept in England. The most trustworthy appears to be that of Dr. Prideaux, Bishop of Worcester, who in his "Directions to Churchwardens," says that "parish registers were first ordered by the Lord Viceregent [or Vicar-General] Cromwell, in the 30th Henry VIII. 1538; and from thence all parish registers have their beginning. Bishops Burnet, Kennett, Nicholson, as well as Stowe and many other authors who have treated of this subject, agree with Dr. Prideaux. On the 8th September 1538, Lord Cromwell issued certain injunctions to the clergy, amongst which was the following — "That you and every parson, vicar or curate within this diocese, for every church, keep one book or register, wherein he shall write the day and year of every wedding, christening and burial, made within your parish for the time, and so every man succeeding you likewise, and also there insert every person's name that shall be so wedded, christened and buried." [The parish, for the safe keeping of the book, to provide a sure coffer, with two locks and keys, one to remain with the parson, the other with the wardens; the parson every Sunday to take out the book and in the presence of at least one of the wardens to "write and record in the same all the weddings, christenings and burials made the whole week afore, and that done, to lay up the book in the said coffer as afore," on forfeiture for every omision of 3s. 4d., to be employed on the reparation of the church.] In 1547, a very similar injunction was made by Edward VI. only the penalty was to be employed to the poor-box of the parish. It is remarkable that in the churchwardens' accounts for 1538 for the parish of St. Margaret, Westminster, there should be the entry, "Paid for a book to register in the names of burials, weddings, and christenings, 2d." This being a parish in the immediate vicinity of the Court, it is most probable that the practice of registration was commenced there immediately upon Lord Cromwell's injunction being made. Some few church registers have been reputed to begin earlier than 1538; but examination has shown that with the exception of one or two in 1536, the rest were all in or subsequent to the date of Cromwell's injunction. One of these, as in Lancashire, may be noticed here. The register of Kirkham,

near Preston, was supposed to begin in 1529. Burn, in his "Registrum Ecclesiæ Parochialis," says — "A certificate is now before the author, of the date of 1529, and is to the following purport — '1529, Jan'rie. Jno. Weton (de Weton) and Eliz. Scarisbricke xxvj°.' But upon reference to the register, it appears to be an original document only so far back as 1618, although the book commences with the year 1529; the former part having been 'taken at the commencement of publique authoritie out of ancient copies and minutes, and copied out by the aforesaid Thomas Robinson.'" There was probably some order for keeping parish registers in 1536, for besides two or three which profess to commence in that year, the insurrection in Yorkshire, &c., in the latter end of 1536 gave out amongst other things that "they should be forced to pay for christenings, marriages and burials (orders having been given for keeping registers thereof), and for licences to eat white bread." (*Carte.*) In the register of Tarporley co. Chester is a break from 1643 to 1648 with this remark: "This intermission happened by reason of the great wars obliterating memorials, wasting fortunes, and slaughtering persons of all sorts." In the register of St. Bridget's, Chester, at the end of 1643 is the following: "Here the register is defective till the year 1653, Thomas Walker, register, the tymes were such." In that of Trinity parish, Chester: "Yere wanting from this place, for then the clarke was put out of town for delinquinsy, so no more is entred till 12 March 1645; for all this tyme the citty was in strait siege." Bishops' transcripts of the parish registers were first ordered in 1597. Those of the diocese of Chester commence in 1650, and are stated to be perfect as to 262 parishes. Those of the Dean and Chapter of York begin in 1660, include 90 parishes, and are said to be perfect. (*J. S. Burn's Regist. Eccles. Paroch.*) The register of burials for the parish of Whalley is still preserved, commencing with 1538. That of Winwick commences 15th June 15th Elizabeth (1563); that of Padiham 4th June 1573; Manchester, August 1573; Bolton, January 1587; Deane in 1637; Forcet, near Richmond, Yorkshire, baptisms at Christmas, burials in June, 1596. Very few parish registers now exist prior to 1580.

Parker, Robert, of Browsholme. He was the eldest son of Edmund Parker of Browsholme and his wife Jennet, the granddaughter of Robert Parker of Browsholme, hereditary bowbearer of the forest of Bowland. He married Elizabeth, daughter of Edmund Chadderton of Nuthurst, and sister of William Chadderton Bishop of Lincoln. Robert Parker was living

in 1591, and left four sons. Edmund, the eldest, died unmarried, being drowned at Cambridge; Thomas, the third son, succeeded his father as bowbearer. He married Bridget, daughter and coheir of James Tempest of Rayne in Craven. Roger, the second son, entered the church, became D.D. and Dean of Lincoln, and died in 1629 aged 71. The fourth son, William, was also D.D. and Archdeacon of Cornwall; he died about 1628. In the Accounts, in March 1594, Cuthbert Hesketh paid over to Mr. Robert Parker of Broosome £20. In 1610 Mr. Parker's man brought venison to Gawthorpe and had 2s. 6d. for his fee. For other Parkers, not distinguishable, see Index.

Parker, of Extwistle. Robert Parker, who married Jane, daughter of Evan Haydock, was living towards the close of the 16th century. They left two sons and two daughters. John, the eldest son, married Margaret, daughter of Lawrence Townley of Barnside, and died 1633-4. Ambrose was born in 1588; Margaret married Mr. Henry Walton of Marsden; and Helen married Charles Bannister Esq. John and Margaret Parker had nine children, eight sons and a daughter. John, born September 1578, was High Sheriff of Lancashire 6th Charles II. (1654, i.e. temp. Commonwealth). He married Elizabeth, daughter of Cuthbert Holdsworth, and died April 1655. Lawrence and William died infants. Francis was born 1582; Charles 1584; Peter 158–; Nicholas 1587, and William; Jane was born 1576, and married George Tempest Esq. In 1602, three incalf heifers were sold to Mr. Parker of Extwistle for £8 3s. 4d., to be paid for at St. Peter's day (June 29) at Gawthorpe. For other Parkers named in the Accounts, see Index.

Parliament. (*Parler la ment*, French, to speak one's mind.) The name was applied to the general assemblies of state under Louis VII. of France, about the middle of the twelfth century; but it is said not to have appeared in our law till its mention in the statute of Westminster 3d Edward I. (1272). Coke, however, both in his Institutes, and when Speaker (1592), declared that this name was used temp. Edward the Confessor (1041). The first summons by writ to parliament on record, was directed to the Bishop of Salisbury 7th John (1205). The first clear account of the representatives of the people forming a House of Commons was in the 43rd Henry III. (1258), when it was settled by the statutes of Oxford that twelve persons should be chosen to represent the commons in the three parliaments which, by the sixth statute, were to be held yearly. (*Burton's Annals.*)

The general representation of the commons by knights, citizens and burgesses took place 49th Henry III. (1265.) (*Dugdale's Sum.*) The first regular parliament, according to many historians, was in the 22nd Edward I. (1294.) In that year the Commons received various distinctions and privileges. In 1308 they first became a legislative power (previously they had been a deliberative assembly only) whose assent was essential to constitute a law. The shortest parliament was that of 1399, of only one session, and that only of one day, when Richard II. was deposed. Lawyers were excluded from the House of Commons in 1404. In 1413 members were obliged to reside at the places they represented. In 1429 freeholders only were to elect knights. The journals of parliament commenced in 1509. In 1542 Mr. George Ferrars, a member of the House of Commons then sitting, was taken in execution by a sheriff's officer for debt, and committed to the Compter. The House sent their Sergeant to demand his release: he was resisted, and in the affray his mace was broken. The House in a body complained to the Lords, the contempt was adjudged to be very great, and the punishment of the offenders was referred to the lower House. The sheriffs delivered up Mr. Ferrars; the civil magistrates and the creditor were committed to the tower, the inferior offenders to Newgate, and an act was passed releasing Mr. Ferrars from liability for the debt. Henry VIII. highly approved of these proceedings, and the transaction became the basis of that rule of parliament which exempts members from arrest. Francis Russell, son of the Earl of Bedford, was the first eldest son of a peer who sat in the House of Commons, in 1549. The parties of "Court" and "Country" were first formed in parliament in 1620. Beginning with the 27th Edw. I. (1299), the following are the numbers and durations of parliaments to the end of the reign of James I.

	Yrs. Reign.	Parlts.		Yrs. Reign.	Parlts.
Edw. I.	8	8	Richard III.	2	1
Edw. II.	20	15	Hen. VII.	24	8
Edw. III.	50	37	Hen. VIII.	38	9
Richard II.	22	26	Edw. VI.	6	2
Hen. IV.	14	10	Mary	5	5
Hen. V.	9	11	Elizabeth	45	10
Hen. VI.	39	22	James I.	22	4
Edw. IV.	22	5			

The following are the durations of parliaments within the reigns of Elizabeth and James I.: —

Elizabeth.		Elizabeth.	
Day of Meeting.	When Dissolved.	Day of Meeting.	When Dissolved.
23 Jan. 1558	8 May 1558	24 Oct. 1597	9 Feb. 1598
11 Jan. 1562	2 Jan. 1567	7 Oct. 1601	29 Dec. 1601
2 April 1571	29 May 1571		
8 May 1572............	18 March 1580	James I.	
23 Nov. 1585	14 Sep. 1586	19 March 1603	9 Feb. 1611
29 Oct. 1586	23 March 1587	5 April 1614	7 June 1614
4 Feb. 1588............	29 March 1588	30 Jan. 1620	8 Feb. 1621
19 Nov. 1592	10 April 1593	19 Feb. 1623	24 March 1625

(*Haydn.*) From this table it would seem that of the 45 years of Elizabeth's reign, the country was without a parliament in the intervals between dissolutions and the assembling of the new parliaments, for about 29 years and 9 months! *Coke* says that parliament hath sovereign and uncontrollable authority in making and repealing laws. It can regulate or new-model the succession to the crown, as was done in the reigns of Henry VIII. and William III. It can alter and establish the religion of the country, as was done in the reigns of Henry VIII. Edward VI. Mary, and Elizabeth. The long and tranquil reign of Elizabeth was a period of law certainly, but hardly any law was paramount to the will of the sovereign. The courts of star-chamber and high commission, martial law, arbitrary imprisonments, with torture, were powerful instruments in the hands of a power in all but the name absolute. Neither judge nor jury dared to acquit when the crown was bent on a conviction. Even the parliament was a feeble bulwark against the despotism of the executive. The crown had so many indirect sources of income, that it was almost entirely independent of the commons, and the ordinary resource of stopping the supplies was little or no check upon its authority. "Benevolences" might be demanded, and compulsory "loans" levied on individuals, without the consent of parliament. Some branches of the customs were increased merely by an order in council. A species of ship-money was imposed about the time of the Spanish armada. When levies were wanted for foreign service, Elizabeth obliged the counties to raise soldiers, to arm and clothe them, and convey them to the seaports at their own charge. [See notes on Fifteenths, Soldiers for Ireland, &c.] By the practice of "purveyance" the queen might victual not only her court, but her fleets and armies, at the cost of suffering individuals, not regularly taxed, but marked out for oppression. By the "court of wards" she obtained possession of the estate during the minority of the heir; and

had authority to dispose of the heir or heiress in marriage. The arbitrary imposition of "embargoes," the forbidding the sale of particular commodities, and the granting of patents and monopolies, formed other sources of revenue wholly beyond the control of parliament. Royal proclamations continued as omnipotent as in the preceding reign, when parliament itself declared them equivalent to law. They were sometimes issued for directing the deportation or punishment of vagrants; sometimes for annulling statutes or inserting clauses in them; sometimes for regulating the costume, diet, or arms of the people. By special warrants the queen claimed the right to interfere to stop the course of justice. These warrants, for exempting particular persons from all lawful suits and prosecutions, were granted (as asserted) in right of the royal prerogative, which was neither to be canvassed, disputed, nor examined. It is clear that constitutional liberty had not begun to exist in the sixteenth century. The last of the Tudors, like the first, only acted on the maxims of their predecessors, with this difference, that they were less restrained by the power of the aristocracy. The House of Commons, as a co-ordinate branch of the legislature, was still in embryo. (*Wade.*) [However, towards the close of the reign, its tenth and last parliament took heart and began to show signs of a freer vitality. Monopolies and patents had been complained of about four years previously, and a few had then been annulled, but most of them were continued. In 1601, it was moved in the House of Commons to have these patents and monopolies revoked, and the patentees punished for their extortions. Sir Francis Bacon asserted the queen's right to grant such patents, and that it touched her royal prerogative. But the Commons were not thus to be checked; and a list of 30 or 40 monopolies being read in the House, a member asked if the making of bread were not among them, observing that if not, it would be shortly, unless a stop were put to such grievances. The queen took the hint, and without waiting to be addressed, sent a message to the House promising that these patents should be revoked, secretary Cecil adding that her majesty hoped there would never be any more; at which the House in general said "Amen."] Elizabeth granted or restored the privilege of sending representatives to parliament to 31 boroughs (two members each), amongst which the only Lancashire borough was Clitheroe. The following are the taxes granted by parliament or levied by the crown during her reign: —

Yr. Reign.	Subsidy.	15ths.	10ths.	And also
1st	one of	2	2	tonnage and poundage for life.
5th	one	2	2	6s. in £ from provinces of Cant. & York.
8th	one	1	1	4s. in £ from clergy.
13th......	one	2	2	6s. in £ do.
18th......	one	3	3	6s. in £ do.
23rd......	one	2	0	6s. 8d. in £ do.
	(2s. 8d. on goods, 4s. on lands.)			
26th......	one of	2	6	6s. do. do.
28th......	one	2	0	6s. do. do.
	and a "benevolence" of 2s. in the £.			
30th......	two	4	0	2 of 6s. do. (paid yearly at 2s.)
34th......	three	6	6	2 of 4s. do. do.
39th......	three	6	6	3 of 4s. at 6 payments.
43rd......	four	8	8	4 of 4s. from clergy.
	20	40	30	88s. 8d. clergy.

(*Hansard's Parl. Hist.*) *Wade* says that Elizabeth received during the 45 years of her reign only 20 subsidies and 39 fifteenths; averaging about £66,666 a year. (See also Fifteenths, Subsidies, Statutes, &c.) In the Accounts, in August 1600, is a payment in Padiham, for Gawthorpe, 2½ ox-gangs of land, of 15d., towards two "quidines" (quindismes or fifteenths) granted unto her majesty by the last parliament.

Parocke. In 1604 is an entry of ground set (i.e. let) viz. the little marled earth and the parocke at the head of it, for 31s. *Palsgrave* gives as the meaning of parrocke, a little park, *parquet*. *Jamieson* says that in North Britain a very small inclosure or apartment is called a parrock, and to *parrach* signifies to crowd together like many sheep in a small fold. A fenced inclosure of nine acres at Hawsted, in which deer were kept in pens for the course, was termed the parrock. (*Cullum's Hawsted.*) *Parroken*, to inclose or thrust in, occurs in *Piers Ploughman*. The term was also applied to a cattle-stall. (*Halli.*) In Westmorland it denotes an inclosure near a farmhouse. (*Brockett.*) The meaning of it, in the Accounts, is evidently a small inclosure at the head of the close called the marled earth.

Parsley. (Anglo-Saxon *peterselege*, Danish *petersille*, *persil*, French *persil.*) A plant of the genus *Petroselinum*, the leaves of which are used in cookery, and the root is an aperient medicine. (*Webs.*) There be divers sorts, two grown in gardens, viz , garden parsley, and curled parsley; which

prosper in moist places, the first is called Persele, Parsely, common and garden Parsley. The leaves are pleasant in sauces, with broth, as Pliny writeth. The seeds are more profitable for medicine. (*Ger.*) Persley is very diuretic, yet nourishing, edulcorated in shifted warm water; but of less value than Alexanders; nor so convenient in our crude sallet, as when decocted on a medical account. There being nothing more proper for stuffing (farces) and other sauces, we consign it to the olitories. It is not so hurtful to the eyes as is reported. (*Evelyn's Acet.*) In 1390 it was used in English cookery, under the names of persel, persele, persil and parcyle; amongst others, with sage, &c., in a dish called "pigs in sauce sage," [Is this the origin of sausage?] also in "eels in brewet," and juice of parcyle was used in brewet of Lombardy. (*Cury.*) In the Accounts, in July 1608, at Islington, parselie and brimstone cost 1d. In Lancashire of course it would be grown in the kitchen garden.

Parsnips. Properly parsneps, the last syllable being the Anglo-Saxon *næpe*, Latin *napus* (turnip or naphew) a plant of the genus *pastinaca.* The root of the garden parsnep is deemed a valuable esculent. (*Webs.*) There be two sorts of parsneps, the tame and the wild; the latter altogether less than the former, and not fit to be eaten. The garden parsnep requireth a fat and loose earth, and that digged deep. They flower in July and August, and seed the second year. We have surnamed the garden parsnep *latifolia* or broad leaved, to distinguish it from the other garden parsnep, which is the true staphylinus or garden carrot. In English we call that of the garden parsneps and mypes [? nepes]. Parsneps nourish more than do turneps or carrots. There is a good and pleasant food or bread made of the roots of parsneps, as my friend Master Peat hath set forth in his book of Experiments, which I have made no trial of, nor mean to do. (*Ger.*) In a recipe of 1390 for rapes [i.e. turnips] in pottage, it is added that a similar dish may be made in the same wise of pasturnakes and skyrwates. The former is evidently a Norman form of *pastinaca*, parsneps, and the other means skirrets. (*Cury.*) The parsnep first boiled, being cold, is of itself a winter sallet, eaten with oil, vinegar, &c., and having something of spicy, is by some thought more nourishing than the turnep. (*Evelyn's Acet.*) In the Accounts parsneps are usually called *pasmetes*, showing that to be the local form, and they are still called *pasmets* in Wiltshire. In like manner in Lancashire turnips are called *turmets.* In March 1583, "pasmete sides" (parsnep seeds) cost 1½d. September 1588, pasmetes 2d. September 1590, pasnepes 2d.; and in October 1608, pasnepes 3d.

PARTLETS. Ruffs or bands for women.

PARTRIDGES. (French *perdrix*, Latin *perdix.*) Gallinaceous birds of the genus Perdix. (*Webs.*) Our common partridge is the *perdix cinerea*, the *perdrix grise* of the French, the *coriar* of the ancient British, and the *pertrisen* of the modern Welsh. Partridges have ever been celebrated for their artifices to attract attention, so as to give their young brood time to escape the fowler and also for their pugnacity in defence of their brood, even defeating the predatory kite and crow. The red-legged partridge (*perdix rubra*) has in modern times been introduced into our preserves from France and the Channel Islands. The quail, in its plumage, form, and spurless legs, and in its pugnacity and other habits, closely resembles the partridge. Under the forms of partruches, partyches, and perteryches, we meet with these birds in the ancient MSS. of cookery. In 1390 they were boiled, and one "Nota" sets forth that peacock and partruch should be parboiled, larded and roasted, and eaten with ginger. At a marriage feast in 1530 they were served eight in a dish, forty partridges costing 6s. 8d. In 1528, eighty cost 26s. 8d. (*Cury.*) In the Accounts, in December 1590, four gray plovers, three woodcocks, and two parteregdes, cost 3s.; December 1591, two perteregies 6d.; January 1592, a gray plover and a parteregd 8d.; February 1592, two parteregde and three plovers 17d.; October, three dozen larks and a perteryghe 9d.; January 1593, four gray plovers and a pertereighe 20d.; February, two perterighe 4d.

PASLEW. (Norman *passe l'eau.*) In May 1613 a woman brought a letter to Gawthorpe from Francis Paslew, and had 4d.; and Richard Southam was paid 2s. for making a bond betwixt my Master and Mrs. Alice Paslew. These were of the family of Paslew of Wiswall, which is supposed to have given its last abbot to the monastery of Whalley, the ill-fated John Paslew, who was executed for taking part in the insurrection called the Pilgrimage of Grace. Francis Paslew (supposed by Dr. Whitaker to be the abbot's father) had a grandson named Francis, whose son Thomas married the Alice named in the text, and died in 1564. His son Francis (the writer of the letter in the text) was baptised in 1559, married Margaret, daughter of John Slater of Billington, and died in 1641, leaving four daughters, of whom Alice, the youngest, married Richard Townley of Barnside, but ob. s.p.

PASTEBOARD. So called from being made by pasting several sheets together, so as to form a thick and stiff sheet, like board. It was used for armour and for stiffening articles of dress, and in the Accounts is usually

named with the cloth for dress, as, in January 1613, pasteboard and russet [coloured] fustian 10d.; April 1613 (fustian and whalebone being also bought) a sheet of pasteboard cost 2d.

Pasture and Pasturing. (French *pâture*, from Latin *pasco*, *pastum*, to feed.) Grass or grazing for cattle, and the ground covered by grass to be eaten off by cattle, horses, &c. (*Webs.*) In old deeds and grants, pasture is always named third in the enumeration of different kinds of land, as [arable] "land, meadow, pasture." Beasts, nor horses, nor sheep, alone (except it be sheep upon a very high ground) will not eat a pasture even, but leave many tufts and high grass in divers places, except it be overlaid with cattle. Wherefore know that horses and beasts will agree well in one pasture; for there is some manner of grass that a horse will eat and the beast will not eat, as the fitches, flashes [unsound grass] and low places, and all the hollow buns [dry stalks] and pipes that grow therein. But horses and sheep will not so well agree, except it be sheep to feed, for a sheep will go on a bare pasture and eat the sweetest grass; and so will a horse, but he will have it longer. Howbeit he will eat as nigh the earth as a sheep, but he cannot so soon fill his belly. To a hundred beasts ye may put twenty horses, if it be low ground; and if there be grass enough put in a hundred sheep, and so after the rate, be the pasture more or less. If it be high ground, put in more sheep and less beasts and horses. Milch kye and draught oxen will eat a close much barer than as many fat kye and oxen. Mean grass is best to keep a milch cow in a mean estate. Ye cannot give your draught ox too much meat, except it be the aftermath of a late mown meadow, for that will cause him to have the gryce[?], and then he may not well labour. An there be too much grass in a close, the cattle shall feed the worse, for a good bit to the earth is sufficient; for if it be long, the beast will bite off the top and no more, for that is sweetest; and the other lieth still upon the ground and rotteth, and no beast will eat it but the horse in winter. (*Fitz.*) *Tusser* says, in January,

> In ridding of pasture, with turfs that lie by
> Fill every hole up as close as a die;
> The labour is little, the profit is gay,
> Whatever the loitering labourers say.
> The sticks and the stones go gather up clean
> For hurting of scythe or for harming of green.

To make pastures smooth and to cover with turf, or to sow seeds, where the grass is destroyed, is a cheap but valuable improvement. In May he says —

For coveting much, overlay not thy ground,
And then shall thy cattle be healthy and sound;
But pinch them of pasture, while summer doth last,
And lift at their tails ere a winter be past.

Mark. says there are only two ways to cure barren pastures, by water or manure. His directions are the same as for MEADOWS, which see. In the Accounts there are various entries of charges for summer and winter pasturing, for which see notes on GRASS, EDDISH, AGISTMENT, and Index. In September 1617, the gist-money of two heifers summered at Copthurst was 19s.; a cowgate there 12s.; the eddish and winter pasture of Church Hills 7s. 6d.; twenty cowgates at Scolebank (at 12s.) £12; March 1618, for the winter pasture of three score and ten sheep (at 12d.) £3 10s.; September, for pasturing the fallows in Thompson's fields this year 20s.; January 1619, for oxen taken into the summer grass at Hebblethwaite £3; September, for winter pasture of four horses at Scholebank 26s. 8d.

PAVING AND PAVIOURS. (French *paver*, or *pavire* Latin, to lay a way with stones; *un paveur*, French, a maker or mender of pavements.) In England little had been done towards a sound and scientific construction of roads at the close of the period of these Accounts. London was unpaved till 1417, when Henry IV., finding Holborn deep and dangerous, ordered two ships, each of twenty tons burden, to be laden with stones, at his own expense, to repair it. (*Pulleyn.*) In England there were few paved streets before the reign of Henry VII. London was first paved about 1533. (*Haydn.*) There are numerous entries of paving and wages to paviours in the Accounts, for which see Index. In May 1589, two men were paid for paving each 9½ days at Smithills, 6s. 8d.; in September 1604, a paviour of Burnley paved several lengths of road, a yard broad, at 2d. the lineal rood.

PEARS. (Anglo-Saxon *pera*, Danish *paere*, Latin *pyrum.*) The well-known fruit of the *pyrus communis*, of many varieties. (*Webs.*) It is doubtful what country first produced the pear tree; it grew at a very remote period in Palestine, and is claimed as indigenous to Alexandria, Mount Ida, and various parts of Greece. The French have a celebrated pear named *Le Bon Chrétien*, which thus had its name: — Louis XI. of France sent for St. François de Paule from Calabria, in the hope of recovering his health through the holy man's intercession. The saint brought with him the seeds of this pear; and as he was called at Court "Le Bon Chrétien," the fruit introduced by him into France received this appellation. (*Pantropheon.*) Whitaker in his *Manchester* thinks pears were brought to this country by the

Romans; but the Berkeley MSS. speak of them as "a new fruit." (*Fosb.*) Under the names of *peers*, *pers*, *perys*, &c., they were prepared for the table in 1381—1390; apple-tarts contained also pears, figs, raisins and spices, and were coloured with saffron. "Peers in Confit" were sliced and boiled with red wine and mulberries, and afterwards served in a syrup of vernage [vernaccia, a sort of Italian white wine] with blanche-powder, or white sugar and powdered ginger. A tart for Bryme, or mid-lent, consists of figs, raisins, apples and pears, boiled with wine and sugar and mixed with salmon, codling, or haddock and spices, put into a paste "coffin," and baked, being covered with stoned prunes and damsons and quartered dates! (*Cury.*) To write of pears and apples in particular would require a volume; the stock or kindred of pears are not to be numbered; every country hath its particular fruit; myself know some one, curious in grafting and planting of fruits, who hath in one piece of ground at the point of [i.e nearly] three score sundry sorts of pears, and those exceeding good, and he might have gotten together the like number of those of worse kinds, besides the diversities of those that be wild. To describe all apart were to send an owl to Athens. The jenneting pear, St. James's, the pear-royal, the bergamot, the quince-pear, the bishop's pear, the Katherine, and the winter pear, with many sorts more, and those both rare and good, are growing in the orchard ground of Master Richard Pointer, a most cunning and curious graffer and planter of all manner of rare fruits, dwelling in a small village near London called Twicknam; and also in the ground of an excellent graffer and painful planter, Master Henry Banbury, of Touthill Street near Westminster; and likewise in the ground of a diligent and most affectionate lover of plants, Master Warner, near Horsey Down, by London, and in divers other grounds about London, (but beware the Bag and Bottle: seek elsewhere for good fruit, faithfully delivered). All pears are cold, have a binding quality and an earthy substance; but the choke pears and those that are harsh be more earthy. Wine made of the juice of pears, called in English perry, is soluble, purgeth those unused to it; notwithstanding, it is as wholesome a drink, taken in small quantities, as wine; it comforteth and warmeth the stomach, and causeth good digestion. Of the wild pears there be the great and the small choke pears (*pyrum strangulatorium*), some of such a choking taste that they are not to be eaten of hogs, &c.; the wood of which is very fit to make divers sorts of instruments, tool handles, [woodcuts] and many pretty toys, for coifs, breast-plates, and such like used among our English gentlewomen; also the wild hedge pear, wild crab pear, lousy wild pear, and crow pear.

Pears have also divers names according to their places. (*Ger.*) He does not name the warden or the pucelle. The former (of *weardan*, Anglo-Saxon, to defend, as keeping long without rotting) was a large sort of delicious baking pear. (*B. Dic.*) A recipe in *C. C. Dic.* for marmalade of pears indicates that it should be made of wardens, which are also to be used for pear pie and for stewing. *Price* gives recipes for compôtes both of wardens and of bon chrétiens. The pearmains were apples. There are many entries of pears in the Accounts. In August 1586, half a peck cost 6d.; September, pucelles 8d.; August 1590, apples and puselldes 20d.; November 1591, to a man which brought a few bastard wardens to my lady from Hugh Scott, 3d.; August 1593, pucelles 6d.; July 1594, two dozen of "pires," 8d., may be either pears or the birds called purres. August 1595, pusell peares cost 3d. For other entries see Index. "Pear plums" were a kind of plum; and clear cakes were made of white pear plums and sugar, poured into glasses and dried in a stove.

Pease. (*Pisum*, Latin.) There be divers sorts of peason, differing very notably in many respects, some of the garden, and others of the field, and yet both counted tame, [i. e. not wild]; some with tough skins or membranes on the cods, and others have none at all, whose cods are to be eaten with the pease when they be young, as those of the young kidney bean; others carrying their fruit in the tops of the branches are esteemed and taken for Scottish peason, which is not very common. The great or rouncivall pease, the garden and field pease, the tufted or Scottish, the pease with skins in the cods, and the wild and everlasting wild pease. Pease are set and sown in gardens, as also in the fields in all places in England. The tufted pease are in reasonable plenty in the west of Kent, about Sevenoaks; in other places not so common. The wild pease do grow in pastures and arable fields in divers places, especially about the fields belonging unto Bishop's Hatfield, Hertfordshire. They be sown in spring time, like as be also other pulses, which are ripe in summer: they prosper best in warm weather, and easily take harm by cold, especially when they flower. The great pease is called in England Roman or the greater pease, also garden pease; and some branch pease, French pease and rounsivals [Roncesvalles]. The little pease is so called or the common pease. (*Ger.*) Thou shalt sow thy pease upon thy clay ground, and thy beans upon the barley ground. Sow both in the beginning of March. At every two paces cast from thee a handful of peas; you must open as well your fingers as your hand; and the higher and farther that ye cast your corn [i. e. seed-pease] the better shall it

spread, except it be in great wind. An acre of ground by the statute, (16½ feet to the perch or pole, 4 perches to an acre in breadth, and 40 perches to an acre in length) may be meetly well sown with two London bushels of pease, the which is but two strikes in other places. (*Fitz.*) Of pease there are two kinds, the garden and the field pease; the garden pease are best, for they are the soonest boiled and most tender, and serve for most use, as for pottage, boiling, parching, spelting [splitting; *Pegge* has "spelched peas"], and of these garden pease there are divers kinds, as white, French, Hastings, Rounsivals, and such like; the first being the longest lasters, the second the pleasantest in taste, the third the earliest and tenderest, and the last largest and fullest. The field pease are only of two kinds, the white and the gray, and they seldom make pottage, because they are unapt to break, but are only for boiling and making of leap pease [in the west, gray pease are still called leapers] or for parching; yet a good and strong food. (*Mark.*) Under the forms of pise, pisyn, pysen, and peson, pease entered largely into the English cookery of the 14th century. Perrey or purée (i.e. pulp) of peson, was a mess of pease seethed till they burst, and then mixed with minced onions, oil, sugar, salt and saffron, and again well seethed. Peson of Almayne [Germany] was made of white pease, long seethed till the hulls come off, then steamed, and boiled with milk of almonds, ground rice, ginger, saffron and salt. "French owtes" was made of the pulp only of white peas, with onions, saffron and powder douce. (*Cury*, 1381 and 1390.) Carlings are gray peas, steeped some hours in water and then fried in butter and seasoned with pepper and salt. In the north of England they are served at table on the second Sunday before Easter, thence called Carling Sunday. (*B. Gloss.*) In the Accounts, in February 1609, a peck of pease cost 20d.; March 1610, half a peck of "making piese" for pottage 2s.; July, half a peck of "peese" 6d.; in March 1605, two mettes of "sowing pesen" 4s. 10d.

Peasecods. The pods, hulls, or shells of the pease, which, as the last note shows, were often eaten, when young, as we now do the shells of French beans. Pease in the hulls were also called peasecods, and these were frequently offered as presents from inferiors; while in "the London Lickpenny" they are said to have been cried about the streets of London. "Peskoddes" are named in an English MS. of cookery in 1390. (*Cury.*) In May 1502, a woman had 2s. for bringing a present of peesecoddes to the queen of Henry VII. (*Eliz. York.*) In May 1531, a man in reward for bringing pescoddes to the king had 4s. 8d. (*Hen. VIII.*) In May

1538, Mr. Tyrrell's servant for bringing to the princess (afterwards queen) Mary, cream, strawberries, pescoddes and other things, had 2s.; and in June 1543, Biggs's servant for bringing pescoddes at Havering had 2s. (*Princess Mary.*) A "scadding of peas" is a custom in the north of boiling the common gray peas in the shell, and eating them with butter and salt, first shelling them. A bean, shell and all, is put into one of the peapods; whoever gets this bean is to be first married. (*Grose.*) In *As you like it*, and *Lear*, peascod is named. In the Accounts, in July 1594, apples and peasecoddes cost 6d.; August 1595, pease coddes, 2d.

PECK. A measure of capacity in dry measure; in which 8 pints or 2 pottles=one gallon, and 2 gallons one peck; 2 pecks=one tovet, and 4 pecks, or 2 tovets, or 8 gallons=one bushel; 2 bushels=one strike of corn; 4 bushels=one sack or coomb; 2 sacks or 8 bushels=one seam or quarter of corn; 5 seams or quarters=one wey or load of corn; 2 weys or 10 quarters=one last of corn; 40 bushels=one cart-load of corn. When sea-coal or salt is measured by the corn measure, it is either heaped measure, or else 5 striked pecks=one bushel. Seeds, oysters, mussels, cockles, &c., are also measured by dry measure. (*Snelling.*) In the Accounts, February 1596, a peck to be a measure at Smithills cost 12d; January 1605, a new peck to measure corn with cost 9d. Leather patches for making glue or size were also sold by the peck measure.

PENDLE HILL AND FOREST. The forest of Blackburnshire was subdivided into those of Pendle, Trawden, Rossendale and Accrington. That of Pendle was so called from the celebrated mountain of that name, over the long declivity of which it extended. It is an enormous mass of matter, 1803 feet in height, and extending in a long ridge from north-east to south-west, and on the south-east side forming a noble boundary to the forest, which stretches in a long but interrupted descent of nearly five miles to the water of Pendle, a barren and dreary tract, except on the verge of the water, where it is warm and fertile. George Fox, the Quaker, is stated to have received his first inner influences on the top of Pendle. The whole extent of Pendle Forest cannot be less than 25 miles, or 15,000 acres, which, as early as the great inquisition of 1311, were divided into eleven vaccaries, each of which paid 10s. In the computation of Henry VIII., amongst these vaccaries and their values, we find West Close and Hunterholme 46s. 8d.; Higham Booth 66s. 8d.; and Feely or Filly Close, "the flower of the forest," 26s. 8d. There was a portion of the forest upon which the freeholders and customary tenants of the eight following towns, viz. Merley,

Penhulton, Wiswall, Read, Simonstone, Padiham, Downham and Worston, claimed right of common. (*Whalley.*) Pendle Forest in 1633 was the scene of the supposed orgies and foul deeds of the Lancashire witches, Potts's pretended discovery of which has formed a curious and interesting volume under the able editorship of the President of the Chetham Society. It may suffice here to add, that the examination of Edmund, son of Edmund Robinson of Pendle Forest, mason, the boy upon whose evidence a number of the wretched women were apprehended, was taken at Padiham before Richard Shuttleworth and John Starkie Esqrs., two justices of peace, on the 10th February 1633. *Pendleton* is so called from the hill upon whose northern skirts it stands. For entries as to Pendle and the forest, see Index.

PEPPER. (Anglo-Saxon *peopor* and *pipor.*) *Pomet* and *Lemery* enumerate various kinds; white and black, Thevet, long, long American, long black, and Guinea pepper, or pimento. They speak of the white, as Dutch or coriander pepper; black is of three kinds, the finest from Malabar, and this is used in Venice treacle and in most of the "gripe-waters;" the long pepper is brought in plenty by the Dutch and English from India; it is used in physic, especially in the great treacle and some Galenical compositions. The long black is sometimes called Ethiopian pepper. The Guinea pepper or pimento is red, and of three sorts; the French get it about Nismes in Lanquedoc; it is chiefly used in making vinegar. Some make comfits of it to carry to sea. The people of Siam eat it raw, but it must please better in sauces, being preserved in pickle, made of strong brine, wine, vinegar and spirit of wine. (*Pomet.*) There be divers sorts of pepper, white and black, long, Ethiopian, &c. Another kind is called of the Spaniards *pimento de rabo* or pepper with a tail. Black and white pepper groweth in the kingdom of Malabar; in Malacca also, but not so good; that of Ethiopia is also called *longa vita* and *cardamomum.* I received a branch thereof at the hands of a learned physician of London, Master Stephen Bredwell, with his fruit also. Dioscorides and others affirm that pepper resisteth poison, and is good to be put in medicaments for the eyes. Pepper (capsicum) long and small. These plants are brought from foreign countries, as Guinea, India, and those parts, into Spain and Italy; from whence we have received seed for our English gardens, where they come to fruit-bearing; but the pod doth not come to that bright red colour which naturally it is possessed with, which hath happened by reason of these unkindly years that are past. But we expect better when God shall send

us a hot and temperate year. (*Ger.*) Under the names of peper, pepyr, piper, &c., it entered largely into the seasoning of dishes in the English cookery of the fourteenth century; being used both whole and in powder, and also the long pepper; and it was a chief ingredient, with ginger and other warm spices, pulverised, of the compound mixture called "powder-fort," which was kept in readiness for high seasoning. In the form of "powder of peper" it seasoned "Egurdouce" or "sour-sweet:" whole pepper was used to boiled pheasants, partridges, capons and curlew; and "poiuz long" (poivre) was one of the spices used in making hippocras. (*Cury.*) Grocers were formerly called pepperers, and a writer on London speaking of Soper's lane, says — Within this lane standeth the grocers' hall, which company being of old called pepperers, were first incorporated by the name of grocers in 1345. (*Stowe*, 1599.) There is a story of a mayor of Chester, whose daughter being carried off by a young man, who came in through the Peppergate, his worship wisely ordered the gate to be shut; and hence the old saying "When the steed's stolen shut the stable door" had its local version "When the daughter's stolen, shut the Peppergate." For numerous entries in the Accounts as to pepper, see Index.

Perch (French *perche*, Latin *perca*) the fresh-water fish of the genus perca. He is a dainteous fish, and passing wholesome, and a free biting. These be his baits — In March the red worm; April, the bob under the cowturd; May, the sloe-thorn worm and the cod worm; June, the bait that breedeth on an old fallen oak and the great canker; July, the bait that breedeth on the osier leaf, and the bob that breedeth on the dunghill, and the hawthorn worm and the cod worm; in August the red worm and maggots; all the year after the red worm as for the best.. (*Fishing with an Angle.*) As for perch, a delicate fish, it prospereth everywhere: I mean so well in ponds as rivers, and also in moats and pits, as I do know by experience, though their bottoms be but clay. (*Harri.*) The bleak, ruff and perch are fishes which bite neither high nor low, but for the most part in the midst of the water; therefore your line must be very lightly plumbed and far from the hooks. The baits that most entice them, besides the red worm, is the house fly in summer and fat of bacon in the winter. Your line would be small and well armed from the hook a handful, with smaller wire, for the teeth of the perch will else gnaw it asunder. (*Mark.*) In the Accounts, in March 1596, two dozen dace and one perch cost 5d.

Perfumes. In the forms of oils, waters, balls, soaps, powders, &c., perfumes were extensively in favour during the Tudor dynasty in England;

and the Accounts have numerous entries of sweet soaps, sweet waters, sweet balls, pomander (which see), &c. A satirical writer of the period, not only inveighs against their use, but even that of the natural flowers, in bouquets or posies carried in the hand or worn in summer: — Is not this a sweet pride, to have civet, musk, sweet powders, fragrant pomanders [balls of perfume, worn in bags or cases], odorous perfumes and such like, whereof the smell may be felt and perceived, not only all over the house or place where they be present, but also a stone's cast off, almost. . . . . And in the summer time, whilst flowers be green and fragrant, ye shall not have any gentlewoman almost, no, nor yet any droye [duster or dishwiper], or pussle [? pucelle or puss, here a contemptuous term, q.d. conceited puss] in the country, but they will carry in their hands nosegays and posies of flowers to smell at, and, which is more, two or three sticked in their breasts, before. (*Stubbes.*)

Pestles. Pestel is a leg of an animal, generally of a pig, and a pestle of pork is still in common use. A pestel of flesh, Palsgrave translates by *jambon;* pestels of venison occur in *Warner*, and a pestle-pie is a large standing-pie, containing a whole gammon, sometimes a couple of fowls and a neat's tongue, — a favourite dish at country fairs and Christmas feasts. (*Halli.*) Pestle is the leg or legbone of an animal, most frequently a pig, as "a pestle of pork," probably from the similarity between a legbone and a pestle used in a mortar. Pestle is sometimes applied to a gammon of bacon. In a satirical allusion to slender diet, *Hall* speaks of the "pestle of a lark, or a lover's wing." (*Nares.*) Some one has suggested that pestel is derived from pedestal. In May 1589, two "pesteles of porke" were sent from Smithills to London.

Pewter. Tin and lead . . . . . are very plentiful with us, the one in Cornwall, Devonshire (and elsewhere in the north), the other in Derbyshire, Weredale, and sundry places of this island; whereby my countrymen do reap no small commodity, but especially our pewterers, who in time past employed the use of pewter only upon dishes, pots, and a few other trifles for service here at home, whereas now they are grown unto such exquisite cunning, that they can in manner imitate by infusion any form or fashion of cup, dish, salt, bowl, or goblet, which is made by goldsmith's craft, though they be never so curious, exquisite, and artificially forged. Such furniture of household as we commonly call by the name of vessel, is sold usually by the "garnish" [set or suit] which doth contain twelve platters, twelve dishes, twelve saucers, and those are either of silver fashion, or else with broad or

narrow rims, and bought by the pound, which is now valued at 6d. or 7d., or peradventure at 8d. Of porringers, pots, and other like thing, I speak not, albeit that in the making of all these things there is such exquisite diligence used, I mean for the mixture of the metal and true making of this commodity (by reason of sharp laws provided in that behalf) as the like is not to be found in any other trade. I have been also informed that it consisteth of a composition, which hath 30 lb. of kettle brass to 1,000 lb. of tin, whereunto they add 3 lb. or 4 lb. of tin-glass; but as too much of this doth make the stuff brickle, so the more the brass be, the better is the pewter, and more profitable unto him that doth buy and purchase the same. . . . . . In some places beyond the sea a garnish of good flat English pewter of an ordinary making (I say flat, because dishes and platters in my time begin to be made deep like basins, and are indeed more convenient both for sauce, broth, and keeping the meat warm) is esteemed almost so precious, as the like number of vessels that are made of fine silver, and in manner no less desired among the great estates, whose workmen are nothing so skilful in that trade as ours, neither their metal so good, nor plenty so great, as we have here in England. . . . . Old men yet living have noted amongst things marvellously altered in England within their sound remembrance, the exchange of vessels, as of treen platters into pewter, and wooden spoons into silver or tin. For so common were all sorts of treen stuff in old time, that a man should hardly find four pieces of pewter (of which one was peradventure a salt) in a good farmer's house. . . . . Yet now will the farmer think his gains very small if he have not a fair garnish of pewter on his cupboard, with so much more in odd vessels going about the house, &c. (*Harri.*) In the manufacture of pewter, English workmen were so famous, that they were prohibited by statute from quitting the realm, or imparting their mystery to foreign apprentices. (*Wade.*) Pewter was formerly much more employed than at present, especially in the manufacture of plates and dishes. The finest pewter is said to consist of twelve parts of tin, one part of antimony, and a very little copper; white common pewter consists of about eighty parts of tin and twenty of lead. It is now chiefly employed in the manufacture of the drinking vessels called "pewter pots." (*C. Knight.*) In 1311, there were in the kitchen of Finchale Priory six dozen dishes and salt-cellars of pewter, worth 24s. Elsewhere are enumerated eight dishes and twelve salsers [salt-cellars] of pewter, weighing 25½ lb. (at 5d.), 10s. 7½d.; and six dublers [large dishes], weighing 11½ lb. (at 5d.), 4s. 10d. One plate [it must have been large

and heavy], $6\frac{1}{2}$ lb., 2s. $8\frac{1}{2}$d. (*Finchale.*) In June 1502, three pewter basins, weighing $8\frac{1}{2}$ lb. (at 6d.), cost 4s. 3d. (*Eliz. York.*) In the Accounts, in June 1602, five pewter spoons cost 4d., and 20 lb. pewter for solder (at 6d.), 10s.; June 1606, was paid in Burnley for exchange of old pewter for new, 3s. 4d., and for a dozen pewter spoons, 12d. August 1608, in London, a pewter can cost 3s. 4d.

Piccadel. (French *Piccadille.*) A piece set round the edge of a garment, at the top or bottom; but most commonly a collar. *Blount* says it is a kind of stiff collar, made in fashion of a band. In *Beaumont* and *Fletcher's* "Pilgrim," speaking of a halter, it is said —

> 'Twill sit but scurvily upon this collar,
> But patience is as good as a French pickadel.

The word is used also by Ben Jonson, Massinger, Drayton, &c., and Blount says that a famous ordinary near St. James's, was called Pickadilly, from Higgins, a tailor, who built it, having got most of his estate by piccadilles, which were much in fashion. Higgins built other houses adjoining, and so at length the street came to be called Piccadilly. In 1615, when James I. was expected at Cambridge, the Vice-Chancellor made an order against wearing piccadilles, or as they were also called, peccadilloes; and hence the line — "For he that wears no pickadell, by law may wear a ruff." (*Nares.*) The piccadel was made so that it could be taken off at the pleasure of the wearer. (*Halli.*) In January 1613, young Barton Shuttleworth had a piccadell to his doublet, costing 18d.

Piggin. A little pail or tub with an erect handle. (*Ray.*) Small wooden vessels like half barrels, one stave longer than the rest for a handle. (*Halli.*) For milking piggins and other sorts, see Index.

Pig (*Pign*, Anglo-Saxon, Swedish and Danish, means a little girl, a maid servant, a little one), the young of swine of both sexes. (*Webs.*) A pig of the sounder was a young wild boar of the first year. (*B. Dic.*) One pig of a litter is generally smaller than the rest, weak and white; and this is called "piggy-whidden;" "pigwiggen" is a name for a dwarf, and is given by Drayton to one of his fairies; "pigsnie" was a term of endearment to a little girl; and "pig-tail" in Yorkshire is the name for the least candle in a pound, put in to make weight. (*Halli.*) All these have the common signification of small. But pigs is now used for swine generally, large or small, old or young; though "roast pig" still denotes a young animal roasted entire, and is never applied to pork. As for swine (says an Elizabethan writer) there is no place that hath greater store, nor more wholesome in

eating, than are these here in England, which nevertheless do never any good till they come to the table. (*Harri.*) See Hogs. See how many swine thou art able to keep, and let them be boars and sows all, and no hogs. If thou be able to rear six pigs a year, then let two of them be boars and four of them sows, and so to continue after the rate. A sow, ere she be able to kill, should bring forth as many pigs or more as she is worth; and if thy sow have more pigs than thou wilt rear, sell them or eat them; and rear those pigs that come about Lenten time, specially the beginning of summer; for they cannot be reared in winter, for cold, without great cost. (*Fitz.*) A sow will bring forth pigs three times a year, viz., at the end of every ten weeks; and the number is great. I have known one sow have twenty pigs at one litter; twelve, fourteen and sixteen are very common. A sow will bring pigs from one year old till she be seven years old. My sows will devour their pigs when farrowed, which to help, take away the pigs, and anoint the worst all over with the juice of stone-crop, and so give it the sow; if she devour it, it will make her vomit so extremely that the pain of her surfeit will make her loath to do the like again. But of all cures the best for such an unnatural beast is to feed her well and then kill her. (*Mark.*) In 1530, nine pigs cost 45s. (*Durham Bursar's Mem.*) For the numerous entries of pigs in the Accounts, see Index. See also Hogs, Swine, Bacon, Pork, &c.

Pigeons. One of the eastern carrier or courier pigeons will carry a letter from Babylon to Aleppo, thirty days' journey, in forty-eight hours. (*Lithgow.*) Of two carrier pigeons dispatched from Paris to Cologne, the flight must have been nearly 150 miles an hour, in a direct line. Of thirty-two pigeons, from London to Antwerp, one accomplished the flight in five hours, another in 5¼ hours; the rest not till the following day, in November 1819. (*Phillips.*) In Europe and the British isles the wild species of the genus Columba are the ring-dove, cushat or quest; the stock-dove, the rock-dove, and the turtle-dove. *Selby* thinks that most of our curious varieties of domestic pigeon have arisen from the rock-dove, which in its natural state is more slender than the stock-dove, and may be distinguished also by the white colour of the lower part of the back, and the two distinct bands of leaden black across the wings. These marks are found in our ordinary dove-cote pigeons, and though in the fancy kinds they become imperceptible, they are ever ready to return, and hence one of the difficulties of keeping up a particular fancy stock. To the rock-dove the domestic pigeon and its varieties must be referred; all of which breed with

each other and with the wild rock-dove; and without due care, all soon "degenerate" as it is termed, — that is, return to nature, and regain the original form and colouring. — Amongst our tame fowl are pigeons, now a hurtful fowl by reason of their multitudes, and number of houses daily erected for their increase (which the bowres [boors] of the country call in scorn alms-houses and dens of thieves and such like), whereof there is great plenty in every farmer's yard. (*Harri.*) In the Accounts there are numerous entries of pigeons, for which see Index. In June 1612, they were bought at 1s. a dozen. There was a pigeon-house at Gawthorpe near the brewhouse, in 1521. See also Dove.

Pike (*Esox Lucius*), called also the jack, luce, pickerel; in Scotland the gedd. There are few lakes, meres or rivers in the United Kingdom in which this voracious fish is not abundant. In temp. Edward I. the value of the pike, as estimated by royal ordinance, exceeded that of fresh salmon, and was ten times greater than that of the best turbot or cod. In temp. Henry VIII. so scarce was this fish that a large one sold for double the price of a house lamb in February, and a small one (or pickerel) for more than a fat capon. The pike is still in repute for the table. Horsea Mere and Higham Sounds, two meres in Norfolk, covering 600 acres, are celebrated for the quantity and quality of their pike, and Yarrell states that those of the Medway when feeding on the smelt, acquire excellent condition with peculiarly fine flavour. The pike grows rapidly, and attains large dimensions. In Horsea Mere pike have been caught weighing 28 lb. to 34 lb. each, and Yarrell states that four days' fishing in the two meres named produced 256 pike, weighing 1,135 lb. Yet, as old Izaak Walton observes, "old or very great pike have in them more of state than goodness, the smaller or middle-sized being by the most and choicest palates observed to be the best meat." As to its longevity, a pike taken in 1497 at Heilbron, in Suabia, had a brazen ring with a Greek inscription purporting that it had been put into the lake by Frederick II. in 1230; being therefore 267 years old. Its skeleton, 19 feet in length, was long preserved at Mannheim. As to its voracity Mr. Jesse states that eight pike of about 5 lb. each, consumed nearly 800 gudgeons in three weeks. One of them in a quarter of an hour swallowed five roach, each about four inches long. Dr. Plot states that at Trentham, Staffordshire, a pike seized the head of a swan when under water, and gorged so much of it as killed them both. The pike is a good fish; but, for he devoureth so many, as well of his own kind as of other, I love him the less; and for to take him you shall do this:

Take a codling hook, and take a roach or a fresh herring and a wire with a hole in the end, and put it in at the mouth and out at the tail, down by the ridge of the fresh herring; and then put the line of your hook in after, and draw the hook in to the cheek of the fresh herring. Then put a plumbe of lead upon your line, a yard long from your hook, and a float in midway between, and cast it in a pit where the pike useth. This is the best and most surest method of taking the pike. Another manner there is: Take a froshe [frog] and put it on your hook at the neck, between the skin and the body on the back half, and put on a float a yard therefrom, and cast it where the pike haunteth, and ye shall have him. Another manner: Take the same bait and put it in assa fœtida, and cast it in the water with a cord and a cork, and ye shall not fail of him. And if ye list to have a good sport, then tie the cord to a goose foot, and ye shall see good hauling, whether the goose or the pike shall have the better. (*Fishing with an Angle.*) Of all fish none are more prejudicial to their neighbours that dwell in the same water than the pike and eel, which commonly devour such fish and fry or spawn as they may get and come by. Nevertheless the pike is friend unto the tench, as to his leech and surgeon. For when the fishmonger hath opened his side, and laid out his rivet [roe] and fat unto the buyer, for the better utterance of his ware, and cannot make him away at the present, he layeth the same again into the proper place, and, sewing up the wound, he restoreth him to the pond where tenches are, who never cease to suck and lick his grieved place, till they have restored him to health, and made him ready to come again to the stall, when his turn shall come about. The pike, as he ageth, receiveth divers names, as from a fry to a gilthead, a pod, a jack, a pickerell, a pike, and last of all to a luce. (*Harri.*) The pike is a fish of great strength and weight, insomuch that you can hardly have a line of hair to hold him; therefore your best anglers use most commonly a chalk-line. Your hook would be of the strongest wire white or yellow, and made double, the points turning two contrary ways, and then armed with strong wire a foot at least. His best bait is a little small roach, dace, or minnow, the hook being put in at the tail and coming forth under the gills; and you must seldom or never let your bait lie still in water, but draw it up and down, as though the fish did move in the water, and fled from the pike; for this will make him more eager and hasty to bite; and, having bit, you must be sure to tire him well before you take up. The yellow live frog is an excellent bait for the pike; for they naturally delight not in any dead or unmoving food. Some take a great

delight and pleasure to snickle or halter the pike, which is done when pikes are broke out of ponds and rivers, and come into small ditches or rundles. The way to halter them is first to find the pike where he lieth, which in the heat of the day you may easily do. Then make a large running noose of your chalk-line, and put it gently into the water, about two feet before the nose of the pike. Then, when you feel it touch the ground, cause one to go behind the pike, and with a pole to stir him: then, as he shooteth, meet him with your noose, and so with a sudden and quick jerk throw him upon the land. In this sport you must be very ready, nimble, and quick-sighted; for, if you give him the least time, he will escape you. (*Mark.*) In the Accounts, in March 1585, a pike cost 20d.; March 1588, two pikes and two breams, 2s. 7d.; January 1598, four breams and a pike from Hoole, 2s. 8d.; December 1595, a pike and two breams, 3s.; January 1596, two breams and a pike, 2s. 2d.; January 1597, a pike 12d.; April 1598, a pike, 2s. 4d.; March 1599, a pike, 8d. In May 1596, an entry of "a pyke dogge" 10d., was at first supposed to be a male pike; but it is more probably a fish which *Ray* classes among sea-fish, of the cartilaginous kind and long, and to which he gives the names *Catulus spinax* and "picked dog."

PIKES. The weapon so named was introduced into France by the Swiss temp. Louis XI., and soon became an infantry weapon throughout Europe. Pikemen composed a principal part of the English army from the reign of Henry VIII. to that of William III. (*Planché.*) In the Accounts, in April 1590, mending a lock and sharping pikes cost 6d.; July 1620, the smith was paid 6d. for work about the pikes; July 1621, a pike-head cost 6d. The length of the pike-staff does not appear to have been fixed; but it probably was seldom less than six feet.

PILKINGTON AND PARK. Pilkington is a township in the parish of Prestwich, six miles N.W. of Manchester. It gave name to an old family (the original seat of which was Pilkington Tower or Stand, soon after the Conquest), one branch of which settled at Rivington. The park, during the period of our Accounts, was the property of the Earl of Derby, and was stocked with deer, from which a fat buck or doe occasionally found its way as a present from the Lord-Lieutenant of the county to the Judge of Chester, at Smithills. This is the same park, now the seat of R. N. Philips Esq. M.P., High Sheriff of the county in 1856-7. In the Accounts, in December 1584, 15d. was paid at the request of Mr. Fox, towards the building of a bridge upon Pilkington water. July 1593, the keeper of Pilkington Park brought

a buck from the Earl of Derby to Smithills, and had 5s. fee; in June 1600, two loads of syling timber [i.e. for beams or rafters] were bought at Pilkington for 47s. 6d.

PINS. Thorns curiously scraped and dried were used till lately by poor women in Wales, and called *pindraen*. Small brass pins for fastening linen have been found in British barrows; also pins of bone. Metal pins are first mentioned in statutes of 1483, but the date of the English pin manufacture is placed by Henry Anderson in 1543, before which (says the latter) ribbons, loopholes, laces, clasps, hooks and eyes, and skewers of brass, silver and gold, were used. Hair pins were more ancient; occurring with needles in a computus of 1318. Pins were at first made of iron-wire, blanched. (*Fosb.*) At first pins were so ill-made, that in 34th Henry VIII. (1542) it was enacted that none should be sold unless double-headed, and the heads soldered fast to the shank of the pin. This act nearly annihilated the manufacture, and three years afterwards it was repealed. In the Accounts, in September 1610, pins to my mistress cost 4d.; December 1616, a paper of pins 4d.; July 1621, 2,000 pins 20d.; so that, if at the same rate, "a paper of pins" would hold 400, the price would be at the rate of 1d. per 100.

PINDER (Anglo-Saxon *pindan*, to include or inclose), the keeper of a town or village pin-fold or common pound. One of the ballads in Robin Hood's Garland throws some light on the office; "the jolly pinder of Wakefield on the green" declaring that neither knight nor squire nor baron bold dared make a trespass on the town of Wakefield, "but his pledge goes to the pin-fold." Robin, Scarlet, and Little John trespass over a corn-field, on which the jolly pinder attacks all three, and with such bravery that Robin Hood seeks to make him one of his band. The pinder replies—

At Michaelmas next my covenant comes out,
When every man gathers his fee,
Then I'll take my blue blade in my hand,
And plod to the greenwood with thee.

* * * * * *

If Michaelmas once was come and gone,
And my master had paid me my fee,
Then would I set as little by him
As my master doth by me.

The pound (*parcus*) is generally any place inclosed, to keep in beasts; but especially a place of strength, to keep cattle which are distrained, or put in

by any trespass done by them, until they are replevied or redeemed. A pound overt is an open pound, usually built on the lord's waste, and which he provides for the use of himself and tenants, and is also called the lord's or the common pound; and a backside, yard, &c., whereto the owner of beasts impounded may come to give them meat without offence, is also a pound overt. A pound covert is a close place, where the owner of cattle cannot come without giving offence, as a house, &c. A common pound belongs to a township, lordship, or village, and ought to be in every parish, kept in repair by them who have used to do it time out of mind. The oversight is to be in the steward of the leet, where any default herein is punishable. Pound-breach (the owner breaking the pound and taking away the cattle, &c.) is an offence which may be inquired into at the sheriff's tourn, as a common grievance in contempt of the authority of the law. (*Jacob.*) In the thirteenth century bees trespassing in a garden might be impounded in a hive, and held in pledge. Parks were used as pounds for estrays. (*Fosb.*) The pinder seems to have been paid by a local tax or gald on the landowners, for in October 1605 the charge for the pinder of Padiham, on the Shuttleworths, was 4d. per oxgang of land, on sixteen oxgangs, 5s. 4d.

Pinsone. In March 1585-6, Thomas Shuttleworth makes the entry, "Mending of a pinsone of my brother's, 1d." The pinsone was a thin-soled shoe or sock (*Palsgrave*), a shoe without heels, a pump. (*B. Dic.*) Pinsons was an old name for pincers.

Pipers. Amongst the old minstrels or itinerant musicians, or waitts, were players on pipes of various kinds. Some of them even made with green corn-stalks, such as are used by shepherds' boys. There were Dutch pipers, to play love-dances, springs, or rays. Probably among the pipes should be included oboes or haut-bois, and the word waitts, for musical watchmen, originally meant oboes. Bagpipes might also be amongst the instruments of the so-called pipers. (*Fosb.*) A company seem to have been called "a poverty of pipers," as a blast of hunters, a melody of harpers, &c. The "Lord of Misrule" is described by *Stubbes* as having in his train "bawdy pipers and thundering drummers, to strike up the devil's dance withal." (*Strutt.*) For numerous instances of "paying the piper" in the Accounts, see Index.

Pistols. The pistol, and its variety, the dag or tacke, are temp. Henry VIII. The pistol superseded the mace in the hands of officers in this reign (*Planché*); more generally in that of Edward VI. The demi-haques gave

occasion to the origin of pistols, invented during the latter part of the reign of Henry VIII. at Pistoia, in Tuscany (according to Sir James Turner, by Camillo Vitelli). De la Noue says the reiters (freebooters of all nations, hired by our kings) first brought pistols into general use. Their length was then 20½ inches. Grose says the pistol is mentioned in 1544; that it was used by the Germans before the French, and that the most ancient are wholly of iron, the ramrod excepted. The utility of the pistol was so apparent that attempts were made to unite it with such weapons as the mace, battle-axe, &c. (*Fosb.*) In the Accounts, in January 1597, Thomas March or Marsh, an armourer, was paid 20s. for a case of pistols; in July 1621, John Harmer, armourer, was paid 30s. for two French pistols, furnished; i.e. with furniture.

Pitch. The ancients used it for various purposes, to give odour to wine, to stop close earthenware wine-vessels, to tear hair from the body in punishment, to light the funeral pile, boiling to throw on besiegers, mixed with hair for a cement, and for torches. (*Fosb.*) For numerous entries in the Accounts see Index. In 1583, 6 lb. for marking sheep cost 18d.

Plague (Danish *plage*, Swedish *plaga*, Latin *plaga*, a stroke), a pestilential disease; an acute, malignant, febrile disease that often prevails in Egypt, Syria and Turkey, and has at times raged in the large cities of Europe, with frightful mortality. (*Webs.*) Our notices must be limited to those plagues experienced in England during the Tudor period. In 1500 the plague was so dreadful at London that Henry VII. and his court removed to Calais. (*Stowe.*) In 9th Henry VIII. (1517) the sweating sickness (mortal in three hours) destroyed half the inhabitants in most of the chief towns in England, and Oxford was depopulated. In 1522, many thousands at Limerick perished from plague. In 1525, a pestilence throughout Ireland; in 1528, the English sweat extended thither; and in 1575, a pestilence in Dublin. In 1603-4, a fatal plague in Ireland, and 30,578 perished in London. In 1625, in London 35,417 persons perished of plague. This was the last plague within the period to which this work is confined; but we may add that "the great plague in London" commenced in December 1664, and reached its height in September 1665, in the middle of which month more than 12,000 persons perished in one week; 4,000 died in one night. 100,000 persons perished in London of this plague, and it is thought the infection was not totally destroyed till the great fire of London in 1666. (*Haydn*, *Defoe*, &c.) This was the last so-called plague from which this country has suffered. Of

course all the instances of "plague" specified above must not be supposed to be the same disease; for plague was the general, short name for any extensive infectious or contagious disease. As to the sweating sickness, we derive the following from "A Boke or Counseill against the disease commonly called the Sweate or Sweating Sicknesse," by John Caius, M.D. (London 1552). He speaks of evil mists and exhalations drawn out of the ground by the sun, as in England in 1551; which mist, in the country where it began, was seen to fly from town to town, with such stink in mornings and evenings that men could scarcely abide it. He noticed that the disease was augmented by neighbourhood to dwelling places, marsh and muddy grounds, puddles or dunghills, sinks or canals [channels or kennels] easing-places or carrion, dead ditches or rotten grounds, close air in houses or valleys, &c. He attributes much to the evil, gross diet of the English, and states that in this last sweat, in Calais, Antwerp, and other places of Brabant, only our countrymen were sick and none others. Then the sufferers were either men of wealth, ease, or, if of the poorer sort, idle persons, good ale-drinkers and tavern haunters, which heaped up in their bodies much evil matter; whereas labourers and thin-dieted people either had it not, or with no great danger. Therefore, who will have their spirits pure and clean and himself free from sweat, must keep a pure and clean diet, and then he shall be sure. Above all things, of little and good he must eat and spare not. My counsel is that the meats be healthful and wholesomely killed, sweetly saved, and well prepared in roasting, seething, baking, &c. The bread of sweet corn, well leavened, and well baked. The drink of sweet malt and good water, kindly brewed, without other dross now-a-days used. No wine in all the time of sweating; except for medicine, nor except the half be well sodden water. In other times, old, pure and small. The meats I would to be veal, mutton, kid, old lamb, chicken, capon, hen, cock, partridge, pheasant, fieldfare, small birds, pigeon, young peacocks (whose flesh by a certain natural and secret property never putrifies, as hath been proved), coneys, pork of mean [middle] age, neither fat nor lean, the skin taken away, roast and eaten cold. Tarts of prunes, jellies of veal and capon. Young beef, a little powdered [salted] is not to be dispraised, nor new eggs and good milk. Butter in a morning with sage and rue, fasting, in a sweating time, is a good preservative; beside that it nourisheth. Crabs, cravasses [cray-fish], pickerel, perch, ruff, gudgeon, lampreys out of gravelly rivers, smelts, dace, barbel, gurnard, whiting, soles, flounders, plaice, millers' thumbs, minnows, with such others, sod in water

and vinegar with rosemary, thyme, sage and whole maces, and served hot. . . . . . . But we are now-a-days so unwisely fine, and womanly delicate, that we may in no wise touch a fish. The old manly hardiness, stout courage, and painfulness of England is utterly driven away; in the stead whereof men now-a-days receive womanliness, and become nice, not able to withstand a blast of wind, or resist a poor fish; and children be so brought up, that if they be not all day by the fire with a toast and butter, and in their furs, they be straight sick. Sauces to meats I appoint, first, above all things, good appetite, and next olives, capers, juice of lemons, barberries, pomegranate, oranges and sorrel, verjuice and vinegar, juice of unripe grapes, thepes or gooseberries. After meat, quinces or marmalade, pomegranates, oranges sliced eaten with sugar; sucket of the peels or barks thereof, and of pomecitres, old apples and pears, prunes, raisins, dates and nuts. Figs also, so they be taken before dinner, else no fruits of that year, nor raw herbs or roots in sallets, for that in such times they be suspected to be partakers also of the infected air. . . . . . All these things duly observed and well executed, if moreover we can set apart all affections as fretting cares and thoughts, doleful or sorrowful imaginations, vain fears, foolish loves, gnawing hates, and give ourselves to live quietly, friendly and merrily one with another, as men were wont to do in the old world, when this country was called "merry England," and every man to meddle in his own matters, thinking them sufficient, and avoid malice and dissension, the destruction of commonweaths and private houses, — I doubt not but we shall preserve ourselves both from this sweating sickness, and other diseases. (*John Caius*, *M.D.*, 1552.) We can only indicate that *Ger.* has various prescriptions to preserve from the pestilence, and expel it out of the infected, and against its infection; also to break, dissolve, or cure pestilential boils, botches or carbuncles; also many things "good against the plague," to keep away its infection or drive it out of one infected, and several things "singular good for a plague sore," or else "to drive the venom from the heart and other vital or spiritual parts, &c." Other writers of the period abound in preventives and cures. *Mark.* gives one "preservation against plague," being five spoonsful of a decoction of red madder, angelica, celandine, mithridate, ivory and dragon-water in a quart of old ale; and afterwards to bite and chew the dried root of angelica, smell on "a nosegay made of the tasselled end of a ship-rope, and they will surely preserve you from infection." If infected, mithridate in dragon-water, hot cloths or bricks to compel yourself to sweat, and when the sore begins to

rise, apply to it a live pigeon cut in two, &c. For pestilence, fetherfew, maleslot, scabins, and mugwort mixed in old ale; or a drink of yarrow, tansy and fetherfew, in urine; or sage, rue, briar or elderleaves, bruised in a quart of white wine with ginger and a spoonful of "the treacle" as drink every morning and evening. Even in the cookery books, recipes for plague waters found a place. One in *Price* consists of twenty-two herbs and roots distilled in a gallon of white wine and a quart of brandy; another includes no fewer than twenty varieties of roots, seventeen of flowers, nineteen of seeds, and three of spices, in all fifty-nine ingredients; and in *C. C. Dic.* are two recipes for plague water. In the Accounts, in February 1610 (a year not named in the enumeration of plague years at the beginning of this note) half a fifteenth was imposed in various townships, "to the relief of the infected of the plague in the several towns of Liverpool, Vxton [Euxton], and others," the quota of the Shuttleworths in Habergham Eaves being 4d. In Baines's *History of Liverpool* there is no notice of this plague. The following are a few scattered notices of plague visitations in Lancashire: The plague which had broken out in London in the first year of the king's reign [James I., 1603-4], and carried off 30,000 of its inhabitants, when its whole population did not exceed 150,000, spread the following year into Lancashire, and became so extremely fatal that in Manchester alone 1,000 of the inhabitants died of that malady in 1605, which was probably equal to one-sixth of its population. At this time it was not usual to inter the dead of the lower class of people in coffins, and the bodies were probably often insufficiently covered with earth, which must conduce to the spread of the pestilence; indeed as late as 1628 it was no unusual thing to bury the poor without coffins. (See *Spelman.*) . . . . In 1540 Liverpool was nearly depopulated by a plague. This dreadful malady was the forerunner of an epidemic called "the sweating sickness," which broke out in April 1551, and extended its ravages to almost every corner of the kingdom. . . . . The plague, so forgot in these times, prevailed in Liverpool in 1651, of which 200 of the inhabitants died (a number probably equal to one-tenth of the population), and were buried in the street now called Sawney Pope Street, but then bearing the name of Sick Man's Lane. . . . . A dreadful epidemic, designated by the name of "the great sickness of the plague of pestilence," ravaged Preston in the early part of the reign of Charles I., of which 1,100 persons died, within the township and parish, between the 10th November 1630 and the 10th November 1631. [In *Whalley*, it is stated that £53 was gathered in 1630, and £43 in 1631,

"for the relief of Preston and other places afflicted with the plague." About the same period the plague is said to have been increasing in Manchester, Wrexham, Shrewsbury, &c.] From the parish registry of Cockerham it appears that the plague was fatal there in 1651; 21 died in July, 34 in August, including the vicar, 5 in September, and 4 in October, the last on the 8th; "and here the plague ceased." . . . . In 1631 the plague broke out in Dalton and in Biggin, in the Isle of Walney, appearing in July and ceasing about the Easter following. In 1631 there died in Dalton of the plague 360, and in Walney 120. . . . . A note in the parish register of Ulverston, on the great number of burials in 1551, ascribes the cause to the visitation of the plague in that year, and enumerates 39 burials in August. When the plague raged at Dalton in 1631, the market of Ulverston took precedence of Dalton market. As to Manchester, "a sore sickness" is mentioned as prevailing amongst the inhabitants in the year 1565, and which greatly increased the effects of Dean Nowell's preaching in the town. There is a very prevalent but obscure tradition in the neighbourhood that a plague prevailed in Manchester at some distant period; but whether this "sore sickness," or "the plague of 1604," is not clear. On the foothpath of the road from Stretford to Manchester there is a stone about three feet high, on the top of which are cut two small basins. It is called "the plague stone," and it is said that when this malady raged in Manchester these basins were filled with water [or vinegar.] When the country people brought their provisions, the purchasers put their money into one of the basins, to purify it from the pestilential touch of the town's people, before it went into the hands of the farmers. There are several other stones about the town, of a similar appearance, and no doubt applied to the same purpose. (*Baines.*) [Where are or were these other stones placed?] The late Dr. Hibbert Ware, in his ***Foundations in Manchester*** (vol. iv.) regards these stones as the remains of stone crosses, originally placed as meters of the depth of the waters, when the low tract of land was flooded, by the rise of the Mersey and the Irwell. He says, however, that these crosses suggested convenient sites for traffic, when Manchester was visited with the plague of 1604-5. In 1605, Manchester was again visited with a dreadful epidemic, so fatal in its consequences as to obtain the name of the plague. In 1604, the number of deaths in the bills of mortality for the parish was 188; in 1605, they were 1,078; and in 1606, they were reduced to 103. In 1605, Rowland Mosley, Esq., then lord of the manor, appropriated six acres of land in Collyhurst nearest Manchester, as a burial

place for those who died of the plague, and for erecting cabins for those infected on any future appearance of the plague. Monuments of this malady still exist on the road to Stretford and other places in the neighbourhood of Manchester, in what are called "plague-stones," if indeed these stones do not claim a higher antiquity. In 1645, the town was again visited with the scourge of pestilence, and the number of burials in Manchester increased from about 200 (the general average) to upwards of 1,200. This visitation was so ruinous that parliament, on the 9th July, directed that £1,000 should be appropriated to the relief of Manchester, which is described to have been for a long time "so sore visited by the pestilence, that none were for many months permitted either to come in or go out of the said town." (*Baines.*) Adam Martindale (see his Life, vol. iv. of the Chetham Society) also notices this pestilence; stating that persons sickened and died in a night, that public fasts were held at Blackley and other places, and that the Manchester markets were for a time wholly discontinued. Before the end of the year the malady was stayed, and in 1646 the burials were reduced from 1,200 to 144. In Chester a pestilence broke out in 1647, and between June 22 and October 14, there were 1,875 burials in that city. (*Harl. MS.* 1929.)

Plaice (French *plie*, Danish *plat-fisk*, i.e. flat-fish), a sea fish of the genus *platessa*, allied to the flounder, and growing to the size of 8 lb. or 10 lb. or more. It is more flat and square than a halibut. (*Webs*) To this family belong the turbot (or brett), soles, flounders (called also flooks, and at Yarmouth butts) and flat fish generally. *Ray* gives to the plaice the name of *Passer maculosus*. In 1583, plaice at Preston cost 9d. In London, in April 1609, two plaice cost 6d.

Planting or Setting. If thou have pastures thou must needs have quicksetting, ditching and plashing. When it is green and cometh to age, then get thy quicksets in the wood country, and let them be of white thorn and crabtree, for they be best; holly and hazel be good. If thou dwell in the plain country, then mayst thou get both ash, oak and elm, for those will increase much wood in short space. And set thy oak-sets and the ash ten or twelve feet asunder, and cut them as thou dost thy other sets, and cover them over with thorns a little, that sheep and cattle eat them not. Also weed them clean in midsummer moon or soon after; for the weeds, if they overgrow, will kill the sets. But get no black thorn for nothing, for that will grow outward into the pasture, and doth much hurt in the grass, and tearing the wool of the sheep. Let all thy sets lean toward the ditch,

and a foot from that make thy ditch; for if thou make it too nigh thy sets the water may fortune to wear the ground on that side, and cause thy sets to fall down. If thy ditch be four feet broad, then would it be two and a half feet deep; if five feet broad, then three feet deep; and if five feet broad, then it would be double set, and the rather it would fence itself, and the lower hedge will serve. To make a hedge thou must get the stakes of the heart of oak, for those be best: crabtree, blackthorn and alder be good. Reed-withy is best in marsh ground; ash, mayle [? mallow] hasel and white thorn will serve for a time. (*Fitz.*) *Tusser* in October says—

> To plow up, or delve up, advised with skill,
> The breadth of a ridge, and in length as ye will;
> Where speedy quickset, for a fence ye will draw,
> To sow in the seed of the bramble and haw.

In January he adds—

> In making or mending as needeth thy ditch,
> Get set to quickset it; learn cunningly which,
> In hedging, where clay is, get stake, as ye know,
> Of poplar and willow, for fuel to grow.

And in February—

> Buy quickset at market, new gathered and small;
> Buy bushes or willow, to fence it withal.
> Set willows to grow, in the stead of a stake,
> For cattle in summer a shadow to make.

Quickwoods and moats, or ditches of water, where the ground is level, is the best fence [for an orchard]. Set without with three or four chess [tiers or rows] of thorns, and within with cherries, plums, damsons, bullace, filberds (for I love those trees better for their fruit, and as well for their form, as privet) for you may make them take any form. (*Lawson*, who gives details as to planting, sets, graffing, &c., of fruit trees.) In the Accounts, in March 1603, ditching twenty-six roods, and setting it with quickwood, about the spring above Hugh Cockshot's house (at 7d. the rood or 220 yards), 15s. 2d.; October 1604, a labourer six days setting of willows by the water-side, &c. (1½d. the day), 9d.; February 1605, two men ditching, setting with quickwood and hedging eleven roods of new ditch between the wood and the horse coppy (at 8½d. the rood), 7s. 9½d.: January 1606, a labourer five days ditching and setting of quickwood in the new ditch at the head of the garden at Gawthorpe (at 2½d. the day) 12½d. February, a labourer two days, stubbing of ash in the spring [of water] and setting them again, 6d.

Plashing or Pleaching a Hedge. If the hedge be of ten or twelve years' growing sith it was first set, then take a sharp hatchet, or a hand-bill, and cut the sets in a plain place, nigh unto the earth, the more [better] half asunder, and bend it down toward the earth, and wrap and wind them together, but always so that the top lie higher than the root a good quantity, for else the sap will not run into the top kindly, but in process the top will die. Then set a little hedge on the back side, and it shall need no more mending many years after. (*Fitz.*)

Plasterers. Plaster of lime, water, and sand, has long been used for coating walls and partitions of houses. When houses were of timber and clay or loam, applying the latter to the wattles was called "daubing," and the clay or loam used was "daub;" hence pits containing it on the site of the Manchester Infirmary were commonly known as "The Daubholes." When lime came to be used for mortar and plaster, then the workmen using it were called limers, white limers, and plasterers. An Elizabethan writer says that in old time the houses of the Britons were slightly set up with a few posts and many raddles [small wood, or sticks split like laths, to bind a wall, for the plastering it over with loam or mortar]; in woody soils our houses are commonly strong and well timbered, so that in many places there are not above 4, 6, or 9 inches between stud and stud; but in the open and champaine country they are enforced for want of stuff to use no studs at all . . . . . with here and there a griding whereunto they fasten their splints or raddles, and then cast it all over with thick clay to keep out the wind . . . . . . The clay wherewith our houses are impannelled is either white, red, or blue; the first doth participate very much of the nature of our chalk, the second is called loam, but the third eftsoons changeth colour so soon as it is wrought, notwithstanding that it look blue when it is thrown out of the pit. Of chalk also we have our excellent asbestos of white lime, made in most places, wherewith (being quenched) we strike over our clay-works and stone walls, in cities, good towns, rich farmers' and gentlemen's houses. Otherwise, instead of chalk (where it wanteth, for in some places it is so scant that it is sold by the pound) they are compelled to burn a certain kind of red stone, as in Wales, and elsewhere other stones, and shells of oysters and like fish found upon the sea coast, which being converted into lime, doth naturally (as the other) abhor and eschew water whereby it is dissolved, and nevertheless desire oil, wherewith it is easily mixed, as I have seen by experience. Within their doors also such as have ability do oft make their floors and parget [rough-

east wall] of fine alabaster burned, which they call plaster of Paris, whereof in some places we have great plenty, and that very profitable against the rage of fire. In plastering likewise of our fairest houses over our heads, we use to lay first a laine [layer] of white mortar, tempered with hair, upon laths, which are nailed one by another (or sometimes upon reed or wickers, more dangerous for fire, and made fast here and there with sap-laths for falling down), and finally cover all with the aforesaid plaster, which, beside the delectable whiteness of the stuff itself, is laid on so even and smoothly, as nothing in my judgment can be done with more exactness. (*Harri.*) As to daubing or plastering with lime or clay, we meet with the following entry: — In 1531, paid for wattles [hurdles or twigs] and "dalbyngstours" [daubing-stowers or plastering stakes] for four chimneys, 6d. (*Durham Bursar's Mem.*) These were evidently chimneys of clay, and the twigs and daubing-stowers constituted the framework to which the clay was applied. Such chimneys may still be seen in old houses. (*Finchale.*) Paid to a mason for daubing the windows and gables of the chancel of Edenham for one day 4d. (*Coldingham Roll*, 1330.) "Wattle and dab" is a term still used in Warwickshire for describing a mode of building with close hurdle-work, plastered over with a mixture of clay and chopped straw. The post and pan is a mode of building a house of uprights and cross pieces of timber, which are not plastered over, but generally blackened, as many old cottages [granges, manors, and mansions] are in various parts of England. (*Halli.*) Sometimes houses are described as "post and petroll," the last being a kind of chalky clay. "Dauber" was the old name for plasterer. The ancient style of a branch of the fraternity of bricklayers in Newcastle-on-Tyne was "Catters and Daubers." The cat was a piece of soft clay thrust in between the laths, which were afterwards daubed or plastered. (*B. Gloss.*, *P.P.*, &c.) For numerous entries of plasterers' work and wages in the Accounts, see Index.

Plate. A flat piece of metal. In July 1594, three sheets of white plate for the cheeseboard cost 10d.; March 1595, eight sheets of plate, to put upon the ropes of the cheese crates, to save the crates from the cheese, 2s.

Players and Plays. The English drama became perfect in the reign of Elizabeth [prior to which there was no building set apart for dramatic performances]. The first royal license for the drama in England was to Master Burbage and four others — servants to the Earl of Leicester — to act plays at the Globe theatre, Bankside, in 1574. A license was granted to

Shakspere and his assistants in 1603. Plays were opposed by the Puritans in 1633, and afterwards suspended till the Restoration in 1660. (*Haydn.*) The English drama, and the actors and theatres, constitute too large a subject for elucidation here. Novels, histories, tales, and plays from the Latin, French, Italian, and Spanish, supplied most of the materials for the English romantic drama, which about 1580 was beginning to rise in popular favour. Twenty dramatic writers flourished between 1560 and 1590. The earliest produced play of Shakspere (Henry VI. Part I.) was prior to 1592, since it is referred to by Nash in his "Pierce Pennilesse" of that year. Stubbes is very bitter against these amusements. Writing in the time of Shakspere, he says that all stage plays, interludes and comedies, are either of divine or profane matter: if irreverently representing divine things, they are sacrilegious; if plays be of profane matters, "then tend they to the dishonour of God, and nourishing of vice, both which are damnable." In either case "they are quite contrary to the word of grace, and sucked out of the devil's teats, to nourish us in idolatry, heathenry and sin. . . . . But if there were no evil in them save this, namely, that the arguments of tragedies are anger, wrath, immunity, cruelty, injury, incest, murder, and such like; the persons or actors are, gods, goddesses, furies, fiends, hags, kings, queens, or potentates. Of comedies, the matter and ground is love, bawdry, cozenage, flattery, whoredom, adultery; the persons or agents, whores, queans, bawds, scullions, knaves, courtesans, treacherous old men, amorous young men, with such like, of infinite variety. If, I say, there were nothing else but this, it were sufficient to withdraw a good Christian from the using of them. For so often as they go to those houses where players frequent, they go to Venus' palace and Satan's synagogue, to worship devils and betray Jesus Christ." He calls players "a great sort of idle lubbers and buzzing dronets, who suck up and devour the good honey, whereupon the poor bees should live. . . . . Away, therefore, with this so infamous an art! for go they never so brave, yet are they counted and taken but for beggars. And is it not true? Live they not upon begging of every one that comes? Are they not taken by the laws of the realm for rogues and vagabonds? (I speak of such as travelleth countries with plays and interludes, making an occupation of it), and ought so to be punished if they had their deserts." (*Stubbes.*) Though probably 24 or 25 out of the 37 plays of Shakspere were written and played during the reign of Elizabeth, we do not find any satisfactory evidence of their being favourites at Court. Elizabeth seems to have preferred pieces in which allegorical characters administered to her

vanity by the most extravagant compliments and adulatory praise. James I. (says Mr. Peter Cunningham in his "Revels at Court") saw five times as many plays in a year as Queen Elizabeth was accustomed to see. As to the players, there was from the reign of Henry VII. to the close of that of Elizabeth, a royal or court company, receiving regular stipends from the sovereign. It became the custom, as players multiplied, to associate in small companies and to call themselves the servants of some nobleman; they wore his badge and livery (sometimes he gave them these), and they thus secured powerful protection against puritanical prosecution. By the account of the expenses of the Duke of Norfolk (temp. Henry VII.) it appears that his players were provided by him with doublets. Several companies of players from different parts of the kingdom experienced the bounty of Henry VII. and the actors of not a few of the nobility performed at court. Certain players of Suffolk, and others attached to the Earl of Wiltshire, were the only companies which exhibited at court during the first twelve years of Henry VIII.; but, in imitation of the king, most of the nobility kept theatrical retainers of their own. The king's players, as well as those of the nobility, seem to have travelled round the country representing plays, wherever they could obtain adequate rewards. Between 1580 and 1590 Queen Elizabeth and the court were principally entertained by public performers, who acted under her name and those of her chief nobility; and the Inns of Court and other bodies occasionally gave representations of plays to the Queen. In 1586, Mr. Payne Collier supposes there were about ten companies, of ten or twelve persons each, performing in London and its vicinity, amongst which were those of the Queen, the Lords Leicester, Oxford, and Nottingham (Lord Admiral). In 1591 Lord Strange's players occupied the theatre called the Rose, on the Bankside; in 1593 Lord Sussex's players are named; and the Queen's players were subsequently called the Lord Chamberlain's. Of this last Shakspere was one of the principal "sharers;" for these companies were divided into sharers, three-quarter sharers, half sharers, and "hired men." Other noblemen named as the patrons of particular companies, were the Earls of Worcester, Pembroke, Derby, &c. As to the fees or wages of players, after 1574 the performance of a play at court was rewarded with £10 (15 marks); previously it had been £6 13s. 4d. or 10 marks; and from 1562 the eight "interlude players" of the Queen were paid in the whole £30 or 45 marks a year, being £3 6s. 8d. or 5 marks each; in the whole as fee £26 13s. 4d. or 40 marks; the other £3 6s. 8d. or 5 marks being an allowance for the

liveries of the eight. In 1521 the royal trumpeters had 16d. a day; seven violinists 20d. and £16 2s. 6d. for their liveries; six flutists from 12d. to 2s. 8d. a day; six sackbutts from 8d. to 16d.; ten musicians 8d. to 12d. a day, and seven of them £16 2s. 6d. for liveries; while the interlude players were reduced from eight to four in number, having each £3 6s. 8d. for wages and £1 2s. 6d. for liveries yearly. The term interlude was applied to all dramatic entertainments; because these were originally played in the intervals between banquets and other festive entertainments. From the reign of Henry VII. to that of James I. it was customary for players to perform during private festivities, but especially at the marriages of the nobility and gentry; and several payments to players in the Accounts appear to have been made about the periods of the weddings of Ellinor and Ann Shuttleworth. In the expenses of the wedding feast of Mr. Wentworth with the daughter of Lord Burghley in 1581, are entries of £10 given to the musicians and £5 to the players. It was not unusual, when players heard of "a banquet towards," to go to the house where the party was assembled, and offer to perform. In the historical play of "Sir Thomas More," (written probably before 1590,) an interlude is played before supper, by the Cardinal's players, who are rewarded with 10 angels (£5). The custom for dramatic performers to journey from place to place is very ancient; frequent instances occur in the reign of Henry VI. Many noblemen at that date had companies of players as their retainers, and they (to use the expression of an old dramatist) "travelled upon the hard hoof from village to village," and from country seat to country seat, receiving uncertain rewards for their exhibitions, — Decker says "for cheese and buttermilk;" speaking of bad but ambitious players, who, out of a desire "to wear the best jerkin," and to "act great parts, forsake the stately and more than Roman city stages," and join a strolling company. No check seems to have been given to the practice of actors wandering over the country in the exercise of their vocation, until 14th Elizabeth cap. 5 (1572), by which it was enacted that all players, &c., not licensed by any baron or person of higher rank, or by two justices of the peace, should be deemed and treated as rogues and vagabonds. Doubtless many companies wandered from place to place pretending to be the retainers of nobility, and to the vagrancy of such persons this statute would put an end. It would also terminate the existence of companies taking their name from any particular town, unless they procured authority from two justices of the peace. After the lapse of about 25 years this statute seems to have fallen into disuse, and

it was therefore revived by the 39th Elizabeth cap. 4 (1596-7). It does not seem to have been usual for the chief actors of the established companies of London to travel into the country, unless the capital were at any period visited by the plague, when the privy council or the city authorities interdicted performances at the theatres, as bringing together crowds and spreading infection. In general only the inferior performers left the metropolis; and J. Stephens (1615) giving the character of "a common player," observes, "I prefix the epithet of common to distinguish the base and artless appendants of our city companies, which oftentimes start away into rustical wanderings, and then, like Proteus, start back again into the city number." They returned to London when their acting proved no longer profitable in the country. The receipts in the country were always smaller than in London; and in several instances Henslowe stipulated with his "hirelings," that should the company be obliged to go into the country, they should play "at half wages." Gamaliel Ratsey the highwayman richly satisfied some players performing a private play before him, by giving them 40s., "for they scarcely had 20s. audience at any time for a play in the country." In the prologue to "The Hog hath lost his Pearl," (acted about 1614 "by certain London prentices,") Taylor, the author, thus apologises in the prologue: —

> We are not half so skilled as strolling players,
> Who could not please here as at country fairs.

Dr. Whitaker, in his "Craven," observes that strolling players were probably of no higher rank or greater talents than those who are now content to amuse a country village in a barn. He gives extracts from a household book of the Clifford family, showing that in 1595 Lord Willoughby's men had 30s. for playing twice; April 1609, Lord Vaux's men were not permitted to play, because it was Lent, but had 10s. given; in 1614, Lord Wharton's players played one play (fee not stated); in 1619 was given to fifteen men that were players who belonged to the late Queen [Anne, consort of James I., who died in the March of that year] but did not play, 13s. 4d.; September 1619, Prince Charles's players, for one performance, had 11s.; in 1624, to "a set of players going by the name of the king's players," who played three times, £3. 1663, to certain players itinerants £1; 1635, to a certain company of roguish players who represented "A New Way to pay Old Debts," £1; and to Adam Gerdler, whom my Lord sent for from York, to act a part in "The Knight of the Burning Pestle," 5s. There would seem to have been four classes of itinerant players: — First,

those regular actors who occasionally left London for the country. We are told that in 1593, even "the Queen's players broke [separated] and went into the country;" and an agreement is preserved of December 1597, in which Henslowe engages an inferior hireling named William Kendall, for two years with two single pence [a fast-penny for each year] after the statute of Winchester, for every week of his playing in London 10s., and in the country 5s. Henslowe's Diary shows that during the last illness of Queen Elizabeth, in March 1602, several companies of London players went into the country to perform, the London theatres being closed. Second, those really the retainers, or allowed to bear the name, livery, and badge of some nobleman. Third, those really the public players of towns, as in the case above, where an actor was sent for from York to play a particular part, in which probably he excelled. And fourth, those who were "roguish players," assuming the titles of some company of one of the three former classes. We purposely omit, as foreign to our purpose, all notice of the companies of juvenile actors, such as the boys of Windsor, the Earl of Oxford's boys, &c. As to the players of provincial cities and towns, it appears that in cities and large towns, at a very early date, the getting-up and acting of miracle-plays devolved upon the trading companies; each guild undertaking a portion of the performance and sustaining a share of the expense. Such was the case at Chester, Coventry, York, &c. When the regular drama had succeeded, there seems to have been in some places a stage belonging to the town; and in Lodge's and Greene's "Looking Glass for London and England" (1594), the father of one of the low comic characters is reported as "keeper of the town stage," or the stage used by the inhabitants for the representation of plays, either by the townsmen, or by actors belonging to the town, who sometimes travelled to adjoining [and even distant] places to perform. In Willis's "Mount Tabor" (1639), is an account by the author, of "a stage play which I saw when I was a child," and the writer states that "In the city of Gloucester the manner is (as I think it is in other like corporations) that when players of interludes come to town, they first attend the mayor, to inform him what noblemen's servants they are, and so get license for their public playing; and if the mayor like the actors, or would show respect to their lord and master, he appoints them to play their first play before himself and the aldermen and common council of the city; and that is called 'The Mayor's Play,' where every one that will comes in without money, the mayor giving the players a reward as he thinks fit, to show respect unto them." As to the number of actors in a company temp. Henry VII.

and VIII., they were generally only four or five; doubling the parts. The custom of composing pieces so that one actor might undertake two or even three characters, continued till late in the reign of Elizabeth. In 1567 a printed play sets forth that fourteen players [dramatis personæ] are introduced, but that "four may easily play this interlude." In "King Darius" were twenty characters, but "six may easily play this interlude." In "Sir Thomas More" (written about 1590), Cardinal Wolsey's players are spoken of as only four and one boy. Henry VIII. was the first of our monarchs who entertained eight performers; but even they were in two companies, the new and the old players. We may readily comprehend that itinerant companies would not comprise any "supernumeraries;" as, with limited audiences, three or four players could live upon "receipts" which would not keep ten or twelve. In April and May 1559 were issued proclamations by Queen Elizabeth, prohibiting the performance of plays or interludes from that time "till All Hallows tide next ensuing" (November 1st), except they be notified beforehand and licensed within any city or town corporate by the mayor or other chief officers, and within any shire by the queen's lieutenants therein, or by two justices of the peace of that part of the shire. Special charge is given to her nobility and gentlemen to take good order with their servants being players, that the queen's commandment be duly kept and obeyed. In the following month (June 1559) Sir Robert Dudley (afterwards Earl of Leicester) having a company of theatrical servants, wrote in their behalf to the Earl of Shrewsbury, Lord President of the North, stating that they had license of divers lords to play under their authority in divers shires, and asking the Earl's hand and seal to their license for the like liberty in Yorkshire. A few particulars may be noted as in the early part of the reign of James I. In his first year (1603) by a lease under the privy seal (followed by patent under the great seal) authorised Lawrence Fletcher, *William Shakspere*, Richard Burbage, Augustine Phillips, John Hemmings, Henry Condell, William Sly, Robert Armyn, Richard Cowley, and the rest of their associates, freely to use and exercise the art and faculty of playing comedies, tragedies, histories, interludes, morals, pastorals, stage plays, and such other like, &c., publicly, when the infection of the plague shall decrease, as well within their now usual house called the Globe, co. Surrey, as also within any town halls, or moot halls, or other convenient places within the liberties and freedom of any other city, university, town, or borough, within our realms and dominions. This company, which in Elizabeth's reign had been styled the Lord Chamber-

lain's, now became the King's players; the Earl of Worcester bestowed his company upon James's queen Anne, and they were styled "the Queen's servants;" Prince Henry adopted as his servants the Earl of Nottingham's players, and at the Prince's death they were transferred to Frederick, the Prince or Elector Palatine of the Rhine, consort of the Princess Elizabeth daughter of James I. In 1621, the Elector Palatine's players were called "the Palsgrave's servants." He afterwards assumed the title of King of Bohemia. Before her marriage, the Princess Elizabeth had a company of players, styled "The Lady Elizabeth's servants." In 1615, after the death of Prince Henry, the title of "the Prince's players" denoted the company of Prince Charles, afterwards Charles I. During his journey to the North, in 1617, James I. was attended by a regular company of players, probably those just referred to as the king's servants; and a warrant was issued in that year to the treasurer of his majesty's chamber, to pay certain players, for three stage plays that were acted before his majesty in his journey to Scotland, such sums of money as is usual in the like kind. From ***Revels at Court*** we find that John Townsend and Thomas Moore, two of the players, who acted three plays before the king in his journey towards Scotland, received £30. The number of companies of players acting under the names and protection of the nobility, very early in the reign of James I., was felt to be a great inconvenience. Accordingly the statutes of the 14th and 39th Elizabeth (above noticed) were repealed by the 1st James I. cap. 7, [1603-4] which enacts that no authority given by any baron of the realm, or other of greater degree, unto any other person or persons, shall be available to free or discharge them or any of them from the pains and punishments of the 39th Elizabeth. Thenceforward all actors travelling round the country, protected only by a nobleman's license, were to be liable to the pains and penalties enacted against vagrants. As an illustration of the habits of the period, we may state that in Shakspere's time, in London, plays were acted only once a day, commencing at three p.m. and usually terminating about five p.m., so that the public might go to supper. Shakspere, in the prologues to ***Romeo and Juliet*** and ***Henry VIII.***, speaks of the duration of the entertainment as two hours. The public theatres had a "twopenny gallery," the playbills were stuck on posts, trumpets sounded thrice to intimate that the play was about to commence, and there was music in the intervals. The audience before the performance, read, played at cards, drank ale and smoked tobacco. For some time plays were acted on *Sundays only;* after 1579 they were acted on Sundays and other days

indiscriminately. The entries in the Accounts as to players are as follows, in chronological order: — 1586, July, yeven unto my Lord Morlesse [Morley's] pleyerres 2s. 6d.; October 1588, geven to plaeres of Sur Peter Lyghe, knyghte, being his menne, 5s.; to one of the said men to get a letter conveyed from Hornby (Lancashire) to Barbone (Westmoreland) 6d.; December 1588, geven to the plaeres of Preston, 5s.; to towe pieperes [pipers], 8d.; January 1589, geven to the plaeres of Nante wyche, 2s.; January 1591, geven unto the plaeres of Downam, 2s. 6d.; geven to the wyethes [waitts] of Elande, 4d.; payed to another piper, 4d.; December 1591, to plaeres which came from Rachdall, 2s. 6d.; geven unto the wyathes [waitts] of Hallyfaxe, 8d.; January 1592, unto playeres which came frome Garstynyg, 2s.; geven unto a piper, 4d.; geven unto players which came from Blackburne, 3s. 4d.; unto playeres which came furthe of Cheshiere, 12d.; January 1594, seven players which came from Downeham, 2s. 6d.; August 1594, ye same daye [August 31] to my Lo. off Essex players which came hither to Smytheles, 2s.; January 1596, given unto the plaiers of Downeham, 5s.; unto the musisioners of Chester, 12d. [There seem to have been no later visits of players to Smithills; the building of Gawthorpe Hall (1600-1605) would not permit of their performances there during that period, and it is probable that Lawrence Shuttleworth, being a clergyman, might not countenance them; for the next entry relating to players in the Accounts, the first as to their performances at Gawthorpe, is in December 1609, Lawrence Shuttleworth having died in February 1608, and being succeeded by his nephew Col. Richard Shuttleworth.] December 2, 1609, given to the lord of Darbies [Earl of Derby's] plaieres by my master's appointement, 6s. 8d.; to the piper of Padiham, by my mistress' appointment, 12d.; to foure musitianes which came to Gawthroppe, by my mistress' appointment, 12d.; March 13, 1610, given to Distle [or Disley] and his companie the plaiers [? of Lord Dudley], 20s.; given to the Hallifax fidlers, by my master's appointment, 12d. [this was the month before Eleanor Shuttleworth's marriage to Mr. (afterwards Sir Ralph) Assheton of Whalley]; July 25, 1610, given to my Lord Mounteagle's plaiers, 6s. 8d.; August 11, 1612, given to my Lo. Mounteagles his plaiers, at my master's commandment, 50s.; August 12, given to my Lord Darbie his plaieres 26s. 8d. [two marks]; September 16, 1612, to my Lo. Stafford plaieres, 40s.; to Arthur Gurney, piper, 12d.; to three fidlers, 12d.; October 7, 1612, given to Disley and his companie, my Lo. Dudleye his plaeres, 30s.; given by Tho. Yate to two fidlers, 6d.; December 12, 1612, given to my Lorde of Darbie his plaieres, 7s. 4d.; to Dynnley, piper, 6d.; March 4, 1613, given

to Distle and his companie [of players, ? Lord Dudley's], 6s. 8d.; given to Alex. Grundy, piper, at my master's command, instead of oates [? orts] 18d.; September 1613, to my Lo. of Darbie his ... [? players — a part of the leaf torn off], 20s.; November 7, 1616, given by my master's appointment to Distle and his companie [of players] 6s. 8d.; January 25, 1617, given to my Lord Stafford his plaiers, 3s. 4d.; March 11, 1617, given to three plaiers, by master's appointment, 12d.; March 18, given to my lo. Darbie his plaieres, 3s. 4d.; December 9, 1617, given to my Lorde Stafford his plaieres, 3s. 4d.; January 26, 1618, given to the plaieres, by my master appointment, 2s. 6d.; given to Dynley, pyper, 12d.; March 10, 1618, given to the queene's plaieres, by my master's appoyntment, 10s.; March 11, given to the waits of Durraham, by my master appoyntment, 3s. 6d. — This is the last entry in the Accounts as to players. The family seem to have been from home about Christmas in 1619 and 1620, and the Accounts close in October 1621. The itinerant players visiting Smithills and Gawthorpe, and giving their performances for the entertainment of the family and household, divide themselves into two of the classes already noticed, the licensed companies of the queen and the nobles or others of rank, and those of towns. Of the former class, Sir Peter Legh's players came from Lyme to Smithills, in honour of their patron's daughter, Lady Shuttleworth. Lord Morley was probably the Henry Parker, Lord Morley, who succeeded his grandfather of the same name in 1555, and had summons to parliament by that title in 1571. He married the Lady Elizabeth, daughter of Edward Earl of Derby, by whom he had issue a son and heir, Edward Lord Morley, who married Elizabeth, sole daughter and heiress of William Lord Mounteagle. (See *Stanley Papers*, part ii., vol. xxxi. of the Chetham Society.) The Earl of Essex was the gallant and ill-fated Robert Devereux, who was the favourite of Elizabeth, and was beheaded in the Tower on the 25th February 1601. In January, July, and September, 1589, two dramatic companies arrived at Knowsley at the same time, the Queen's and the Earl of Essex's players; and on the Sunday after one of their arrivals, the rector of Standish preached in the morning, the Queen's players acted in the afternoon, and the Earl of Essex's at night. In February and June of the next year the players were again found at New Park and Knowsley. (*Stanley Papers*, part ii.) On the 17th July 1584, a stage play was enacted on the High Street at Shrewsbury by the Earl of Essex's men. (*Fosb.*) The entry in the Accounts is the latest notice we have found of the Earl of Essex's players. " My Lord of Darbie's

players" were those of William, sixth Earl, who was probably the first of his family to give a company of players his name and badge; for Henry, fourth Earl, we are expressly told by the Rev. Canon Raines in his notes on the *Stanley Papers*, part ii., notwithstanding the magnificence of his establishment, had not a private company of players; and Ferdinando, fifth Earl, only held the earldom two years. All the notices of Lord Derby's players in the Accounts relate to those of William, sixth Earl, who succeeded in 1595 and died in 1642. They seem to have played at Gawthorpe December 2, 1609; August 12 and December 12, 1612; in September 1613, and March 18th 1617. Lord Mounteagle was probably the William Lord Mounteagle to whom the anonymous letter was addressed which led to the discovery of the gunpowder plot of November 5th 1605, and whose daughter Elizabeth married Edward Lord Morley, son of Henry Earl Morley and the Lady Elizabeth, a daughter of Edward Earl of Derby. His players performed at Gawthorpe July 25, 1610, and August 11, 1612. Lord Stafford was in all probability Edward Stafford, the great-great-grandson of the Duke of Buckingham who was beheaded in 1483; great-grandson of Edward de Stafford (the Duke's son and heir) who was beheaded in 1521, and being attainted, all his honours were forfeited; grandson of Henry Stafford (son of the last named) and son of Edward Lord Stafford who died in 1603. The Edward Lord Stafford whose players we are noticing succeeded his father in the barony in 1603, and died in 1625. The visits of his players to Gawthorpe were in September 1612 and January 1617. "My Lord Dudley" was Edward, son of Edward (and grandson of Sir John Sutton) Lord Dudley, by his second wife, the Lady Jane, daughter of Edward Earl of Derby. Edward the father died in 1586. Edward the son married Theodosia, daughter of Sir James Harrington Knt. Their son Sir Ferdinando died in 1621, in his father's lifetime, and the estate passed to Frances, sole child of Sir Ferdinando. (*Notes to Stanley Papers*, No. ii.) Though only once named in the Accounts, in October 1612, when his players acted at Gawthorpe, it is probable from the name of the manager of that company — the only one of an actor that occurs in the Accounts — that the same company played several times there. That name is Distle or Distley (perhaps it would now be Disley) which does not occur in Mr. Payne Collier's *Annals of the Stage* or in Mr. P. Cunningham's *Revels at Court*. But he seems to have been well known in Lancashire, for the company is called by his name oftener than by Lord Dudley's. March 13, 1610, "Distle and his company the players" were at Gawthorpe; October 7th 1612, "Distley and his company my

Lord Dudley his players," and March 4th 1613, "Distle and his company." The Queen's players seem only once to have visited Gawthorpe, March 10, 1618. Of course they were the company originally the Earl of Worcester's, but afterwards those of the queen [Anne] of James I. She died of dropsy March 2nd 1619, in the 46th year of her age. As to the players named in connection with towns and places, a distinction must be drawn between those said to be "of" such a place, and those who merely came last "from" that place to the Shuttleworths' residence. We have the players of Downham, three miles from Clitheroe, but too poor a village to have a company of its own; so that these were probably a company to whom Mr. Assheton of Downham had given some patronage. They seem to have played thrice at Smithills. There were also the players of Preston and of Nantwich, as well as some which "came forth of Cheshire." Others merely came last from Rochdale, from Blackburn, and from Garstang, and there is nothing to show that they belonged to those places. As to players' fees, they were probably regulated by the number of performances given, the number and the quality or reputation of the actors, and the name of the nobleman whose servants they were called. In most yearly payments of the time of Elizabeth the sums seem to have been reckoned by the noble (6s. 8d.), the mark (13s. 4d.), or the angel (10s.) But when London actors went into the country they were paid only half wages. Lord Morley's players had 2s. 6d. or a quarter of an angel; those from Rochdale and Downham the same; Sir Peter Legh's 5s. or half an angel; those of Preston the same; those of Nantwich and of Garstang (fewer perhaps) only 2s. respectively; those of Blackburn 3s. 4d. or half a noble; those of Cheshire only 1s.; Lord Essex's 2s.; seven players from Downham 2s. 6d.; and the players of Downham 5s. These all came to Smithills. Of those who visited Gawthorpe, Lord Derby's had 6s. 8d. [a noble]; on another occasion, 26s. 8d., or two marks; again, 7s. 4d. [if the payment were 8d. per head, this would make the fee of ten actors 6s. 8d., of eleven 7s. 4d.; if 16d. per head, then it might be five men, and a boy paid half-fee]; and on another occasion 20s.; again 3s. 4d.; Lord Dudley's or Distle's company 20s., on another occasion 30s., on a third and fourth, 6s. 8d.; Lord Mounteagle's 6s. 8d., and two years afterwards 50s; Lord Stafford's 40s. (three marks), while five years afterwards they only had, in January and December 1617, 3s. 4d. each time. The Queen's players had 10s. Only twice is the number of the company mentioned: seven players from Downham in 1594 had 2s. 6d. — $4\frac{1}{4}$d. each; in 1617, three players (whose or whence does not appear)

had 12d., or 4d. each. However, some may merely have had a gratuity, and been dismissed without giving a taste of their quality, as was the case when players came in Lent to a godly house; and the rate of fee must be merely matter for conjecture. Mixed with the entries of payments to players, are others of gratuities to pipers, waitts, or musicians, who seem either to have itinerated with the players, or to have followed them closely from place to place; music being used to fill up the intervals of performances, between acts, &c. The sums paid on the one hand to players, and on the other to musicians, might denote the relative estimation in which music and the drama were then held, if there had been any specification of numbers or quality. In the absence of these, there are no data for comparison of country fees with those of Queen Elizabeth to her musicians and her interlude players, given above.

Plough and Ploughing. The most general living that husbands can have is by ploughing and sowing of their corns, and rearing or breeding of their cattle, and not the one without the other. Then is the plough the most necessary instrument that a husband can occupy; wherefore it is convenient to be known how a plough should be made. There be ploughs of divers makings in divers countries, and in like there be ploughs of dyfacions [different make] and that is because there be many manners of grounds and soils, — some white, some red clay, some gravel or chilturn, some sand, some mean earth, some medled [mixed] with marl, and in many places heath ground; and one plough will not serve all places: wherefore it is necessary to have divers manners of ploughs. In Somersetshire about Zaleester [?] the share-beam, that in many places is called the plough-head, is four or five feet long, and it is broad and thin, because the land is very tough, and would soke [suck] the plough into the earth if the share-beam were not so. In Kent they have other manner of ploughs. Some go with wheels, as in many other places, and some will turn the shield breadth at every land's end, and plough all one way. In Buckinghamshire are ploughs made of another manner, and also other manner of plough irons, the which meseemeth generally good, and likely to serve in many places, and specially if the plough-beam and share-beam be four inches longer between the sheath and the plough-tail, that the shel-brede [? shield-board] might come more aslope, for these ploughs give out too suddenly, and therefore they be the worse to draw, and for no cause else. In Leicestershire, Lancashire, Yorkshire, Lincolnshire, Norfolk, Cambridgeshire, and many other countries, the ploughs be of divers makings, the which were too long pro-

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cess to declare how, &c. But howsoever they be made, if they be well tempered and go well, they may be the better suffered. Ye shall know that the plough-beam is the long tree above, the which is a little bent. The shar-beam is the tree underneath, whereupon the share is set; the plough-sheath is a thin piece of dry wood made of oak that is set fast in a mortice in the plough-beam, and also into the share-beam; the which is the key to the chief band of all the plough. The plough-tail is that the husband holdeth in his hand, and the hinder end of the plough-beam is put in a long slit, made in the same case and not set fast, but it may rise up and go down, and is pinned behind, and the same plough-tail is set fast in a mortice in the hinder end of the share-beam. The plough-stilt is on the right side of the plough, whereupon the rest is set; the rest is a little piece of wood, pinned fast upon the nether end of the stilt, and to the share-beam in the further end. The sheld-brede is a broad piece of wood, fast pinned to the right side of the sheath in the further end, and to the outer side of the stilt in the hinder end. The fen-brede is a thin board pinned or nailed most commonly to the left side of the sheath in the further end, and to the plough-tail in the hinder end. The said shelbrede would [should] come over the said sheath and fenbrede an inch, and to come past the midst [middle] of the share made with a sharp edge, to receive and turn the earth when the coulter hath cut it. There be two rough staves in every plough in the hinder end, set aslope between the plough-tail and the stilt, to hold out and keep the plough abroad in the hinder end, and the one longer than the other. The plough-foot is a little piece of wood with a crooked end, set before in a mortice in the plough-beam, set fast with wedges, to drive up and down, and it is a stay to order of what deepness the plough shall go. The plough-ear is made of three pieces of iron, nailed fast unto the right side of the plough-beam, and poor men have a crooked piece of wood pinned fast to the plough-beam. The share is a piece of iron, sharp before and broad behind, a foot long, made with a socket to be set on the share-beam. The coulter is a bent piece of iron, set in a mortice in the midst of the plough-beam, fastened with wedges on every side, and the back thereof is half an inch thick or more, and three inches broad, and made keen before, to cut the earth clean, and it must be well steeled [steel-edged, or "laid" with steel at the edge] and that shall cause the easier draught, and the irons to last much longer. The plough-mall is a piece of hard wood, with a pin put throughset in the plough-beam, in an auger's bore. It is necessary for a husband to know how these ploughs should be tempered to

plough and turn clean, and to make no rest-balks. A rest-balk is where the plough biteth at the point of the coulter and share, and cutteth not the ground clean to the furrow that was ploughed last before, but leaveth a little ridge standing between, the which doth breed thistles and other weeds. A man may temper for one thing in two or three places, as for deepness. The foot is one; the setting of the coulter of a deepness is another; and the third is at the plough-tail, where [are] the two wedges to be called float-wedges. The one is in the float above the beam, the other in the said float under the plough-beam; and other while he will set both above, or both underneath. But let him alway take good heed and keep one general rule, that the hinder end of the share-beam alway touch the earth, that it may kill a word [? worm] or else it goeth not tauly [? truly]. The tempering to go broad and narrow, is in the setting of the culter; and with the driving of his side wedges, fore-wedge and keel-wedge, which would be made of dry wood; and also the setting on of the share helpeth well, and is a cunning point of husbandry; but it is so narrow a point to know, that it is hard to make a man understand it by writing, without he were at the operation thereof to teach the practice ; for it must lean much into the furrow, and the point may not stand too much up nor down, nor too much in the land, nor into the furrow.. Howbeit, the setting of the culter helpeth much. Some ploughs have a band of iron triangle-wise, set there as the plough-ear should be, that hath three nicks on the farther side. If he will have his plough to go on a narrow furrow, as a seed furrow should be, then he setteth his foot-team in the nick next to the plough-beam; and if he will go a mean [medium] breadth, setteth it in the middle nick, that is best for surring (?) If he would go a broad furrow, he setteth it in the outer nick, that is best for fallowing; the which is a good way to keep the breadth, and soon tempered, but it serveth not the deepness. Some have instead of the plough-foot a piece of iron set upright in the farther end of the plough-beam, and they call it a coke, made with two or three nicks; and that serveth for deepness. The ploughs that go with wheels have a straight beam, and may be tempered in the iron, as the other be, for the breadth; but their most special temper is at the bolster, whereas the plough-beam lieth, and that serveth both for deepness and for breadth. And they be good on even ground that lieth light; but meseemeth they be far more costly than the other ploughs; and though they be well tempered for one manner of ground, that temper will not serve in another manner of ground; but it must rest in the discretion of the husband to know when it goeth well. But ere he begin to

plough, he must have his plough and his plough-iron, his oxen or his horses, and the gear that belongeth to them, that is to say bows, yokes, lands, flylkynges [? fellicks, felloes] wreathing temes [turning teams or sieves] &c. If he go with a horse-plough, then he must have his horses or mares, or both, his holmers or collars, holmes whited, traces, swingle-trees, &c. If a young husband should buy all these things it would be costly for him; wherefore it is necessary for him to learn to make his yokes, ox-bows, stools, and all manner of plough gear . . . . There is "no man putting his hand to the plough, looking backward, is worthy to have" that thing that he ought to have; for if he go to the plough and look backward, he seeth not whether the plough goeth in ridge or in rain [a ridge (*Halli.*) more probably a furrow] maketh a balk, or goeth overthwart; and if it so do there will be little corn . . . . . . In the beginning of the year, after the feast of the Epiphany [Twelfth-day, or January 6th] it is time for the husband to go to the plough. And if thou have any leys to fallow, or to sow oats upon, first plough them, that the grass and the moss may rot, and plough them a deep square furrow. And in all manner of ploughing see that thy eye, hand, and foot do agree, and be always ready one to serve another; and to turn up much ground and to lay it flat, that it rear not an edge; for, if it rear on edge, the grass and moss will not rot. In some countries, if a man plough deep, he shall pass the good ground and have but little corn; but that country is not for men to keep husbandry upon, but for to rear and breed cattle and sheep; for else they must go beat their land with mattocks, as they do in many places of Cornwall, and in some places of Devonshire. (*Fitz.*, who gives directions how to plough for pease and beans, to fallow, &c.) In the North, the idiom is "to drive the plough," not the horses. Plough Monday is the first Monday after the Epiphany (in January) and so called from having been fixed upon by our forefathers as the day on which they returned to the duties of agriculture, after enjoying the festivities of Christmas. (*Ashe.*) On that day the ploughmen in the North country draw a plough from door to door and use to beg plough money to drink. (*B. Dic.*) In stiff clays, as are all the fruitful vales of this kingdom, as also Huntingdonshire, Bedfordshire, Cambridgeshire, and many other of like nature, the ploughs must be of large size and strong timber; in mixed soils, good and fruitful, as Northamptonshire, Hertfordshire, most part of Kent, Essex, Berks, and counties of like nature, the ploughs would be of middle size and indifferent timbers; but for the light sandy grounds, which have also a certain natural fruitfulness in them, as in

Norfolk, Suffolk, most part of Lincolnshire, Hants, Surrey, and counties of that nature, the ploughs would be of the smallest and lightest size, and of the least timber. Lastly, for the barren, unfruitful earth, as in Devon, Cornwall, many parts of Wales, Derbyshire, Lancashire, Cheshire, Yorkshire, and many other like or worse than they, your plough must not keep any certain proportion, but be framed ever according to the ground; the stronger and stiffer ground having ever the strong and large plough, and the lighter earth a plough of more easy substance. (*Mark.*, who gives directions for the ploughing of every barren soil, and labours during every month; for which see note on HUSBANDRY.) As to ploughs and their parts, the entries in these Accounts throw light on the cost, as for new ploughs, making and mending, also clouts, irons, shares, nether-heads, &c. The entries as to payments for ploughing are very numerous. For all these see Index.

PLOVERS (French *pluvier*, the water-bird, from Latin *pluvialis*, rainy, *pluo*, to rain), the common name of several species of birds that frequent the banks of rivers and the sea-shore, belonging to the genus *Charadrius* of Linnæus; their flesh is excellent food. (*Webs. and Partington.*) Sandy, unsheltered shores and exposed commons or moors are their chief haunts: they congregate in flocks, and run with great swiftness. Amongst the varieties may be named the gold thick-knee, also called by English writers the thick-kneed bustard, the stone-curlew, and the Norfolk plover; the golden plover (*Ch. pluvialis*) frequenting heaths, swampy moors, and wild, hilly districts, noted for its artifices to draw off man or dog from its brood, for its plaintive, monotonous whistle, and for frequenting fallow lands in the autumn, when they become very fat and are highly esteemed for the table. In autumn and winter the London and other large markets are abundantly supplied with golden plovers. The dotterel (*Ch. morinellus*) is rather a visitor to the shores of England than a permanent resident: its flesh in autumn is excellent. The grey plover (*Squatarola cinerea*) very much resembles the golden plover, but has a minute hind-toe, and long black feathers underneath the wings near the body, which the golden plover wants. It visits England during its southward migration in autumn and on its return northwards in spring; a few small flocks sometimes removing during the winter, frequenting oozy bays and the mouths of rivers along the coast. Its cry is similar to, but not quite so shrill as, that of the golden plover: its flesh is excellent and in high esteem. The lapwing (*Vanellus cristatus*) is called also the wype, the pees-weep, and peewit. It frequents open grounds and plains where the soil is moist. The male's artifices to

draw intruders from the nest, and its clamorous cry of *pee-weet*, are well known. In autumn lapwings assemble in vast flocks, old and young, and as the cold sets in gradually withdraw from the inland moorlands to the districts near the sea and the mouths of rivers, frequenting fallow lands, turnip fields, and low oozy grounds. In February or the beginning of March they revisit the moorlands and scatter abroad in pairs, when their variety of notes is very different from the monotonous, melancholy pee-weet. In the autumn the flesh of the lapwing or wype (probably pronounced *weep*, as it is called in the *Northumberland Household Book*), is excellent, but it is dry in summer. Mr. Selby thinks it is the bird called the *egret* (from its crest or aigrette), of which 1000 were served up at the feast of Archbishop Nevill. The turnstone (*Strepsilas interpres*) is found in this country from August to March or April, frequenting the rocks and gravelly shore, and turning over the stones along the water's edge with its hard bill. The godwit, which is really one of the *Scolopacidæ*, is called in some places the stone-plover; the black-winged stilt-plover (*Charadrius himantopus* of Linnæus) is also called the long-legged plover and long-shanks: it only occasionally visits this country. (*Mus. An. Nat.*) The kinds of plover most popularly known and sought for the table are the golden or green, the gray, and the bastard plover or lapwing. In the *Northumberland Household Book* plovers cost 1d. or 1½d. each. Of the two kinds most in request, the green was more esteemed than the gray, and the gray preferred to the lapwing; the prices given to the purveyor for Henry VIII. for these three varieties were respectively — green 2s. per dozen, gray 1s. 8d., and lapwing 1s. 6d. *Ray* names the godwit, or stone-plover, the lapwing, the green (*Pl. viridi*), the gray (*Pl. cinerea*), the sea-lark (*Charadrius*), which he says also wants the back claw [? toe], and the turnstone, which is lesser than a plover, and somewhat bigger than a blackbird. Many entries in the Accounts are simply of plovers, not specifying of what variety; golden plovers are nowhere named; but these are doubtless the same with what both *Ray* and the Accounts call "green plovers." Of these there are many entries; of gray still more; and what in one entry is called the sea-plover is probably the sea-lark of *Ray*. For these varieties and their prices, see the Index.

Plumbers, workers in lead, (from Latin *plumbum*, lead.) In the Accounts, in August 1586, the plumbers of Wigan were paid 5s. for forty-eight pounds of lead, or 1¼d. per lb.; the workmanship of the same in mending the great lead of the roof of Smithills cost 2s. 6d.; October 1588,

to a plumber for mending a gutter, 8d.; June 1593, the plumber of Wigan for casting the lead at Smithills, 10s.; for setting the furnace for the great lead [roof], 3s.; July 1602 [when Gawthorpe Hall was being erected], to the plumber for twenty pounds of lead to be solder (at 6d.) 10s.; October, the plumber for three [? four] score pounds of solder (at 6d.) 40s.; December, forty pounds of solder for the spouts, 10s.; two plumbers, the last part of their wages for the work of all the lead and spouts belonging to the new hall of Gawthorpe, £8.

Plumb-weight. Plummet, a mass of lead attached to a line and used to ascertain when walls, &c., are perpendicular or plumb. In April 1586, half a yard of "plome whitte" cost 12d.

Plums (Anglo-Saxon *plume*), the fruit of a tree belonging to the genus *Prunus*. To write of plums particularly would require a volume. Every climate hath his own fruit far different from that of other countries. Myself have three score sorts in my garden, and all strange and rare; there be in other places many more common; and yet yearly cometh to our hands others not known before. The plums or damsons (*Prunus domesticus*) differ in colour, fashion and bigness; some are of a blackish blue, of which some be longer, others rounder; others of the colour of yellow wax; divers of a crimson red, greater for the most part than the rest. There be also green plums, very long, of a sweet and pleasant taste: our common damson is known to all. The Mirobalane plum is round, red when about ripe, and being full ripe it glistereth like purple mixed with black: the flesh is full of juice, and pleasant in taste; the stone is small, or of a mean bigness. The almond plum is long, having a cleft or slit down the middle, of a brown-red colour, and pleasant taste. The Damascene plum is round, of a bluish black colour; the stone like unto that of the cherry, wherein it differeth from all other plums. The bullace and the sloe are wild kinds of plums. Of bullace some are greater and of better taste than others. Sloes are some of one taste, some of others, more sharp; some greater and others less: all and every of them known to the simplest. The greatest variety of rare plums (grafted) are to be found in the gardens of Master Vincent Pointer of Twickenham; although myself am not without some, and those rare and delicate. The wild plums grow in most hedges throughout England. The fruit are called in English prune and plum. Old writers have called those that grow in Syria near Damascus, damsons or damask plums, and those that grow in Spain, Spanish prunes or plums; others, from the countries, are called prunes of Hungary, France, &c. Plums ripe and new gathered

moisten and cool, but yield the body very little nourishment. Dried plums, commonly called prunes, are wholesome and more pleasant to the stomach; they yield more nourishment and better, and such as cannot easily putrefy. Spanish prunes, being boiled in mead or honeyed water, loose the belly very much, as Galen saith. We most commend those of Hungary, being long and sweet; yet more those of Moravia, for these, after they be dried, be most pleasant to the taste, and do easily without any trouble mollify the belly, as that in that respect they go beyond cassia and manna, as Thomas Jordanus affirmeth. The gum which cometh out of the plum-tree, doth glue and fasten together, as Dioscordes saith. The juice of sloes do stop the belly, lask, and bloody flux, &c. (*Ger.*, who also describes the sebesten or Assyrian plum, the Indian mirobalan plum, which are all astringent and sharp, like the unripe sorbus or service berries, and the jujube plums, useful in syrups, electuaries, &c., for coughs, the reins, &c.) The ancient Counts of Anjou transplanted the plums of Damascus into their province, and King Réné of Sicily introduced them into Southern Europe. The plums called "Monsieur" had the name from Monsieur, the brother of Louis XIV., being very fond of them. Those called "Reine Claude" owe their name to the first consort of Francis I., daughter Louis XII. Those named "Mirabelle" were brought from Provence into Lorraine by King Réné. In the fourteenth century, in England, under the name of prunes and damysyns, prones, prune orendge, &c., plums figured in our cookery. A "tartee" had prunes and raisins in it; a "tart de brymlent," or Mid-Lent, made of salmon, codling, haddock, &c., with figs, raisins and apples, wine and sugar, was "planted above" with stoned prunes and damysyns and quartered dates. Crustardes [pies] of fish were also flavoured with raisins, currants, and "prunes damysyns;" so were lenten leches fried, the fruit being stoned and carved a-two. "Porreyne" was made of the juice of prunys, sugar, rue-flour [? rye] or flour of wastel bread, served in dishes strewed with sweet powder. (*Cury.*) In the Accounts, in October 1597, plums bought at divers times cost 14d.; September 1598, apples, pears, and plums, 4s.; August 1608, in London, plums, 2d.; September, damsells (price omitted); damsons 1d.; nuts and bullesses [bullaces] 3d.

Points. These were tagged laces, to fasten the breeches, hose, &c. The laces or strings were frequently of silk ribbon, pointed with aiglettes of laton. (*Edward IV.*) They were superseded by buttons. The busk-point was the lace by which the busk was fastened. To truss a point or points, was to tie the laces which supported the hose or breeches; to

untruss was the contrary. (*Nares.*) Shakspere was fond of playing on the double meanings of the word. In the *First Part of Henry the Fourth*, Falstaff, telling his marvellous story of the combat, says, "Their [sword] points being broken,"——when Poins interrupts with, "Down fell their hose." So in *Twelfth Night*:—*Cl.* "I'm resolved on two points." *M.* "That if one break the other will hold; or if both break, your gaskins fall." In the Accounts, June 1597, two dozen points for the children cost 4d.; June 1599, three dozen 9d.; July 1610, a dozen to Lawrence Shuttleworth 3d.; December 1612, points to the three boys 6d.; July 1620, two dozen (apparently to my mistress) 16d.

Pomander. A ball or other form, composed of or filled with perfumes, worn in the pocket or about the neck. A pomander was sometimes a case of silver to hold perfumes, probably perforated with small holes (like the vinaigrette) to let out the scent. A book of devotions printed in 1578 was called "A Pomander of Prayers," (i.e. a sweet perfume of prayers). An old play gives a recipe for the perfume, consisting of an oz. of the purest garden mould, steeped seven days in motherless rose-water, and worked up with the best labdanum, benjamin, both storaxes, ambergris, civet and musk. "This will make you smell as sweet as my lady's dog." In the *Winter's Tale* pomander is among the list of things for sale by the pedlar Autolycus. Pomanders were often used against infection. (*Nares.*) In the inventory of jewels of the Princess (afterwards Queen) Mary (1542-46) is an entry of a pomander of gold with a dial in it, which was subsequently given to my lady Elizabeth quene (Queen Elizabeth). In the same work are four other entries of pomanders, and in all it is described as attached to the girdle of goldsmith's work which was worn round the waist, and hung often very low in front of the wearer, as seen in portraits of the time. The derivation is from *pomme d'ambre*, perfume ball, and its purpose was equally adapted for ornament as a locket. A receipt of 1586 is given, in which the scent seems to be from cinnamon, sanders and cloves, with ambergris, musk and civet. One or two balls were formed, perforated, and suspended from the bosom, wrist or girdle, or inclosed within gold cases of filigree work, or enamelled. (*Princess Mary.*) Take two penny worth each of labdanum and storax, one penny worth each of calamus aromaticus and balm, half $\frac{1}{4}$ lb. fine wax, of cloves and mace two penny worth, nutmegs eight penny worth, and of musk four grains; beat altogether into a perfect substance, and mould in any fashion you please. (*Mark.*) Take benjamin, labdanum and storax, of each one oz. Beat them all to a perfect paste in a hot mortar,

adding four grains of civet and four of musk; roll the paste into small beads, make holes in them and string them while hot. (*C. C. Dic.*) These are the sweet balls occasionally named in the accounts.

Pomegranate. Of the domestic pomegranates, plenty are brought from Provence and Languedoc as a fruit very agreeable to eat, as well as useful in physic, the juice serving to make syrup with. We sell a dried conserve of pomegranate, which is notably but sugar dissolved in the juice, which gives it a red colour, with the addition of a little cochineal, cream of tartar, and alum. This conserve is difficult to make because of the alum, for four ounces of alum will hinder 2,000 lb. weight of sugar from incorporating. Only a little alum therefore must be added to the sugar and juice of the pomegranate while moist, and afterwards they must dry in the air together; for alum is to sugar as oil to ink. The flowers of the wild pomegranate, brought from several parts of the Levant, are called Balaustians; they have no extraordinary use in medicine, only as powerful astringents. (*Pomet.*) There are three sorts of pomegranates, which differ in taste; one sort are eager or sharp; another sweet; and a third betwixt both, called vinous. These pomegranates are improved in gardens in all the warm countries. The flowers of the wild pomegranate, called Balaustians, are proper for bloody fluxes, diarrhœa, ruptures, spitting of blood, and some female disorders. (*Lemery.*) Pomegranates grow in Italy, Spain, and chiefly in the kingdom of Granada, which is thought to be so named from the great number of pomegranates there, which are called granadas or granatas. In gardens, vineyards, orchards, &c. they come up cheerfully. I have recovered divers young trees hereof, by sowing of the seed or grains, of the height of three or four cubits, attending God's leisure for flowers or fruit. (*Ger.*) In the English cookery of the 14th century we find the fruit used under the names of pommegarnet, Poungarnett, Powmis gernatys, &c. A "Sauce Sarzyne" (probably Saracen) is to be "flourished with pomme gurnet." "Berandyles" (a dish of hens and beef boiled and brayed in a mortar and seasoned) is to have cast into it ginger, sugar, and "granys of powmis gernatys." "Comyn" (a dish of wheat flour, rice flour, and almond milk, coloured with saffron) is to be dressed with "graynis of Poungarnetts" and sugar. (*Cury*, 1381 and 1390.) "Pomegranate clear cakes" were made of a jelly of the juice of pomegranate seeds, with that of one orange and a lemon, coloured with cochineal, thickened with sugar, and baked in little papers in the form of dripping-pans. (*Price.*) In the Accounts, in May 1610, 2 oz. of pome-

granate flowers beaten to powder and 2 oz. unpounded, cost 3s. 6d., a large sum in those days for 4 oz. of flowers. They were doubtless for medicinal uses, as hinted by *Lemery.*

POMPILION. Sometimes called Pawmpelion; a fur, so named perhaps from Pampelone, a town in the department of Tarn, twelve miles from Alby or from Pampeluna. In 1503, two skins of it cost 6s. (*Eliz. York.*) Pompillion, an ointment made of black poplar buds. (*Cotgrave.*) To make "popylyone:"—Take 4 lb. poplar leaves, 3 lb. herb water, 1 lb. each of henbane, pete-morell, orpyn and syngrene, ½ lb. each of weybrod, endive, violets and well-cresses; wash and stamp them, then add 2½ lb. of molten barows grease, mix well, and put in a close pot nine days, then worcke [work] it up. (*MS. penes Halli.*) It is apparently the fur and not the ointment that is named in the Accounts: June 1597, silk and buttons and pompyllion for the children's doublets, 3s. 4d.

POOR, THE. The poor of England, till the time of Henry VIII., subsisted (as the poor of Ireland till 1838) entirely upon private benevolence. By an ancient statute (23rd Edward III. 1348) it was enacted that none should give alms to a beggar able to work. By the common law, the poor were to be sustained by "parsons, rectors of the church, and parishioners, so that none should die for default of sustenance;" and by statute 15th of Richard II. (1391-2) impropriators were obliged to distribute a yearly sum to the poor. But no compulsory law was enacted till the 27th Henry VIII. (1535); and the origin of the present law is referred to the memorable statute of the 43rd Elizabeth (1601). In 1580 the poor rates were £188,811; in 1688, £665,562. (*Haydn.*) An Elizabethan writer states that with us the poor is commonly divided into three sorts—so that some are poor by impotency, as the fatherless child, the aged, blind and lame, and the diseased person that is judged to be incurable; the second are poor by casualty, as the wounded soldier, the decayed householder, and the sick person visited with grievous and painful diseases; the third consisteth of thriftless poor, as the rioter that hath consumed all, the vagabond that will abide nowhere, but runneth up and down from place to place (as it were seeking work and finding none), and finally the rogue and strumpet, which are not possible to be divided in sunder, but run to and fro over all the realm, chiefly keeping the champaign soils in summer, to avoid the scorching heat, and the woodland grounds in winter, to eschew the blustering winds. For the first two sorts, the poor by impotency and the poor by casualty, there is order taken throughout every parish in the realm, that

weekly collection shall be made for their help and sustentation, to the end that they should not scatter abroad, and by begging here and there, annoy both town and country. (*Harri.*) See also notes on PUNISHMENTS and ROGUES. The long reign of Elizabeth is filled with acts for supplying the deficiencies or correcting the errors of former poor laws. . . . . . . The censures of the church were not sufficient to compel collectors for the poor, on quitting their offices, to account for the money remaining in their hands. The gentle exhortation of the ministers and the charitable persuasions of the bishops were inadequate to raise the necessary sums for the relief of the poor. It was therefore enacted (by 5th Elizabeth, cap. 3, 1563) that collectors might be committed to gaol till they had settled their accounts and paid over the sums due from them; and that any one refusing to give weekly to the relief of the poor, and resisting even the persuasions of justices at the quarter sessions, should be taxed a weekly sum and imprisoned till it was paid. Where a parish had more poor than it could relieve, the justices were empowered to license persons (wearing badges) to beg within the county. . . . The legislature at length, in 1572, directed that a general assessment for the relief of the impotent poor should be made in every city, village and hamlet, and any surplus money should be employed in setting rogues and vagabonds to work, under overseers. Begging without license, if the offender was above 14 years of age, was punished by whipping and burning the right ear; a vagabond above 18 offending a second time was liable to death as a felon. By the 18th Elizabeth, cap. 3, 1576, the justices are empowered to purchase or hire buildings, to be converted into houses of correction, and to provide a competent stock of wool, hemp, flax, iron, or other stuff, "to the intent that youth might be accustomed and brought up in labour," and that the "poor and needy may be set on work." Idlers to be sent to the house of correction, there to be kept at hard work. In 1597 several acts were passed relative to vagrancy and mendicity, and the various regulations of former statutes moulded in some degree into a uniform system. Instead of being burned in the ear, the rogue, vagabond, or sturdy beggar was "to be whipped until his body was bloody, and to be sent from parish to parish the next straight way to the place of his birth," &c. Incorrigible offenders might be banished or condemned to the galleys for life. Four overseers were to be chosen in each parish, to set poor children and others in want of employment to work and to raise a stock of materials for that purpose. Justices might levy the rate by distress; and for the relief of the impotent poor, churchwardens and overseers were

authorised to build convenient houses on the lord's waste (with his leave) and to place inmates, or more families than one, in each cottage. Begging, unless for victuals in the parish (soldiers and sailors with proper testimonials excepted), was entirely prohibited. By 35th Elizabeth, cap. 4 (1593) soldiers and sailors who had lost their limbs in the service of the state were to be maintained, each parish being charged to pay weekly for their support what the justices in sessions should appoint. No parish was to be rated above 6d. nor under 1d. weekly; and the sum total in any county where there were above fifty parishes was not to exceed the rate of 2d. each parish. These sums were increased to 8d., 2d. and 4d. respectively by the 39th Elizabeth, cap. 21 (1597). Increasing inconveniences at length produced the memorable poor law of the 43rd Elizabeth (1600), which continued for considerably more than two centuries to be the groundwork of every regulation affecting the poor. This act copied almost verbatim the principal clauses of the 39th Elizabeth respecting the appointment of overseers, levying the rate, setting the able to work, providing relief for the impotent, and binding out children apprentices. Amongst the chief alterations were sending those who refused to work to gaol instead of to the house of correction; the clauses relative to the prohibition of begging and vagrancy were omitted; and besides the ordinary poor rate, a sum was to be raised from every parish by a weekly rate not exceeding 6d. or under 2d., for the relief of poor prisoners in the King's Bench and Marshalsea, and also in the hospitals and almshouses in each county, so that every county should send yearly not less than 20s. to each of those gaols; the surplus to be distributed, at the discretion of the justices, for the relief of the poor-hospitals of the county and of those sustaining losses by fire, water, or other casualty, and to other purposes for the relief of the poor. Various penalties from £1 to £5 for nonperformance of the duties of justices, churchwardens and overseers, to be applied in aid of the poor rate. From the last clause in the statute it appears that it was only intended to be experimental; it was, however, continued by subsequent statutes, and by the 16th Charles I. cap. 24 (1640) made perpetual. (*Eden.*) The same writer says — Were I permitted to hazard a conjecture on this subject, I should estimate the number of the poor (i.e. persons either receiving or needing parochial relief) at the close of the sixteenth and beginning of the seventeenth centuries, to have borne a less proportion to the other classes of the nation, than the number of those in similar circumstances do at present [i.e. the close of the eighteenth century]. London about 1590 (according to the information of

a foreign historian) contained about 160,000 inhabitants. In 1595, a year of great scarcity, a survey was made by direction of the Lord Mayor, of the number of poor householders within his jurisdiction: they were found to amount to 4,132; but the annalist (*Strype's Stowe*) does not explain whether the number includes all the individuals of each poor family; nor does he mention what number of poor, who did not fall within the denomination of householders, was contained in London. Making a fair allowance for these omissions, we shall be justified in supposing that the increase of the metropolis has not kept pace with the increase of its poor. (*Eden.*) The Accounts show numerous entries of payments for the relief of the poor, for which see Index.

Population of England in the Sixteenth Century. A curious little tract, called *The Supplication of Beggars*, written in 1524 by Simon Fyshe, gives the following (probably exaggerated) statement of the sums annually collected by mendicant friars: — "There are within ye realm of England 52,000 parish churches, and this standing, that there be but ten households in every parish, yet there are 520,000 households, and of every of these households hath every of the five orders of friars a penny a quarter for every order, that is, for all the five orders 5d. a quarter for every house; that is, for all the five orders 20d. a year of every house. Summa, 520,000 quarters of angels, that is, 260,000 half angels, summa, 130,000 angels, summa totalis, £44,333 6s. 8d. sterling." This calculation of the number of houses in 1524 (observes Eden) is probably much below the truth. 520,000 households, multiplied by 5½ (a fair proportion of inhabitants to a house), give only 2,860,000. Mr. Chalmer's estimate (second edition) has shown from Harrison's and Sir Walter Raleigh's accounts of the number of fighting men in 1577 and 1583 that the population of England, towards the end of Elizabeth's reign, must have amounted to 4,688,000. (*Eden.*)

Pork. In various countries the trade in pork seems to have been kept separate from that of other flesh. During the middle ages, in France, no one was allowed to cook pork, if it was not "sufficient," or had not good marrow; no one could make sausages of anything but pork; no one could sell black puddings; and the French word charcutier (pork butcher) is derived from *chair cuite* (cooked meat). In the 14th century, they were prohibited to buy pigs fed by barbers or oil dealers. Pork in Paris was sold only at Sainte-Géneviève. (*Pantrophéon.*) See also Hogs, Pigs, Pestles, and Swine.

Porpoise. (q. d. *porcus piscis* Latin, *Mere-swin* Anglo-Saxon, *Porcpisce*, *Ben Jonson.*) The sea hog. (*B. Dic.*) An ordinance of King John informs us that in the 16th century people ate porpoises, and even seals. (*Delamarre.*) It occurs in the cookery of the 14th century, under the names of porpays, porpeys, and porpus. Furmenty with porpays shows that the porpoise was boiled and sliced in the furmenty if fresh, but by itself if salted. Porpeys in broth is another dish, with onions. (*Cury*, 1390.) The *Arundel MS.* 344, early in the 15th century, also contains a short recipe for "Furmente with purpeys:"—Take almond milk and [mix] with water, and make thy furmenty therewith, and dresse it forth with purpeys." At Archbishop Neville's feast (6th Edward IV. 1405) twelve seals and porpoises were served. In the old *Boke of Kervyng and Norture* porpoyse is enumerated amongst the fish. A porpoise was provided for the marriage feast of Roger, son of Sir Thomas Rockley, with Elizabeth, eldest daughter of Sir John Neville, in 1526; it cost 13s. 4d. Nay it was even a present to royalty; for a servant of my lord warden's had 10s. in reward for bringing of a purpesse and carps to the king at Calais in 1532. (*Henry VIII.*) The same king contracted to pay his purveyor for a purpas, provided it was not more than one-horse load, 13s. 4d. (a mark.) Porpoise was sold as food in Newcastle market in 1575. (*Brand.*) In the Accounts it seems to have been sent as an acceptable and dainty present to Smithills by Mr. James Anderson of Clayton, whose man had for bringing porpes from his master, 2s. 6d.

Porridge. (*Porreau* French, *porum* Latin, a leek.) A liquid food of herbs, flesh, &c. (*B. Dic.*) A sort of hasty pudding, or porridge-oatmeal mixed in boiling water and stirred on the fire till it be considerably thickened. In Durham it is called *poddish*. *Webs.* suggests that it is a corruption from pottage.

Porringer (of porridge). A small deep pot or vessel to contain porridge or other liquids. It may be a corruption of pottinger, a coarse earthenware pot with a handle. German *pott enge*, a narrow pot. A wager being made that a rhyme could not be found for porringer, the rhymester won it with the following lines:—

> The King of Spain a daughter had,
> He gave the Prince of Orange her;
> So pay your wager now, my lad;
> I've made a rhyme to porringer.

In May 1609, a porringer cost 12d.

POTATOES. (*Batatus; the solanum tuberosum* of Linnæus.) The potatoe is a native of Chili and Peru. Potatoes were originally brought to England from Santa Fé in America, by Sir John Hawkins in 1563. Others ascribe their introduction to Sir Francis Drake in 1586; whilst their general introduction is mentioned by many writers as occurring in 1592. Their first culture in Ireland is referred to Sir Walter Raleigh, who had large estates about Youghall, co. Cork. It is said that potatoes were not known in Flanders until 1620. (*Butler.*) In the "History of the new-found land Virginia" (named so in honour of Queen Elizabeth) by Heriot, a follower of Sir Walter Raleigh, printed in 1588, the potatoe is described as "a kind of root of round form, some of the largeness of walnuts, some far greater, which are found in moist and marsh grounds, growing many together one with the other in ropes, as if they were fastened by a string. Being boiled or sodden they are very good meat." Sir Walter Raleigh, after returning from America in 1586, is said to have first given it to his gardener in Ireland, as a fine fruit from America, which he desired him to plant in his kitchen garden in the spring. In August this plant flourished, and in September produced a fruit, but so different from the gardener's expectations that in an ill-humour he carried the potatoe-apple to his master, and asked: "Is this the fine fruit from America you prized so highly?" Sir Walter told the gardener, since that was the case, to dig up the root and throw the weed away. The gardener soon returned with a good parcel of potatoes. It was cultivated in the gardens of the nobility and gentry early in the seventeenth century as a curious exotic, and in 1684 was planted out in the fields in small patches in Lancashire, whence it was gradually propagated all over the kingdom as well as France. (*Report of Board of Agriculture.*) *Ger.* describes two kinds of potatoe, one the *Batata Hispaniorum* or Skirrit of Peru. These grow in India, Barbary, Spain, and other hot regions; of which I planted divers roots (that I bought at the Exchange in London) in my own garden, where they flourished until winter, at which time they perished and rotted. Its English names are Potatoes, Potatus, or Potades. The roots, being roasted in the embers, do lose much of their windiness, especially being eaten sopped in wine. Of these roots may be made a conserve, no less toothsome, wholesome and dainty than of the flesh of quinces, and likewise of these comfortable and delicate meats, called in shops *morselli placentulæ*, and divers others such like. The roots may serve as a groundwork or foundation whereon the cunning confectioner or sugar baker may work and frame many comfortable and delicate conserves and restora-

tive sweetmeats. Some infuse them after roasting, and sop them in wine; others boil them with prunes; and others dress, after roasting, with oil, vinegar, and salt, every man according to his own taste and liking. [Though called potatoes, this description and the figure of a long and thick bulb-root, show that this must have been either a yam or one of the beets, and not a potatoe.] The other kind is the Virginia potatoes. The root is thick, fat and tuberous, not much differing, either in shape, colour, or taste, from the common potatoes [i.e. the yam], saving that the roots hereof are not so great or long; some of them as round as a ball; some oval or egg fashion [? kidneys]; some longer and others shorter; which knobby roots are fastened unto the stalks with an infinite number of thready strings. It groweth naturally in America, where it was first discovered, as reporteth C. Clusius; since which time I have received roots hereof from Virginia, otherwise called Norembega, which grow and prosper in my garden as in their native country. The fruit is ripe in September. Because it hath not only the shape and proportions of potatoes, but also the pleasant taste and virtues of the same, we may call it in English, potatoes of America or Virginia. The virtues are referred unto the common potatoes; being likewise a food, as also a meat for pleasure, equal in goodness and wholesomeness to the same [i.e. the yam or the beet]; being either roasted in the embers, or boiled and eaten with oil, vinegar and pepper; or dressed in any other way by the hand of some cunning in cookery. (*Ger.*) Of the potato and such venerous roots as are brought out of Spain, Portingale and the Indies, to furnish up our banquets, I speak not, wherein our Mures [? moors] of no less force, and to be had about Crosby Ravenswath, do now begin to have place. (*Harri.*) It seems to us that what *Ger.* calls the common potato — whether yam or beet — was well known by that name before the Virginian or true potato, and that most of the allusions in the dramatical and other writers of the time apply to this sweet yam, and not to the new and strange tuber. In the *Merry Wives* we have — "Let the sky rain *potatoes* . . . . . hail kissing comfits, and snow eringoes," sweet things all; scarcely applicable to the potato of Virginia, but very fitting as to that which *Ger.* recommends to the sugar-bakers for conserves and confections. It is a fact in husbandry worthy of remark that the first potatoes raised in England were grown in Lancashire, and it is still famous for producing that valuable root. (*Baines.*) The first potatoes planted or set in Lancashire are said to have been from the cargo of a ship laden with them, bound for Ireland, and wrecked on the Lancashire coast.

Pots. (*Pot*, French, of *Potus*, Latin, drink.) Vessels to hold liquor, &c. (*B. Dic.*) It also stands for any pan containing broth or pottage, and hence when the dinner usually consisted of such viands, and rarely of roast, came the term "pot-luck," meaning the chance of what may be cooking in the pot. A squire in the north is said to have once asked George IV. when Prince Regent to "take pot-luck" with him. The "pot of ale" must have been originally a fixed measure; of which *pottle* (two quarts) was then the diminutive. The pot was probably two pottles, or a gallon; though we can nowhere find any authority for its exact capacity. Another meaning for pots in the north is crockery ware generally, and in this sense it is used in the first entry, in the Accounts:—October 1590, a horse-load of pots, which came from Eccleston, 8s. In April 1602, the tinker was paid 2s. 4d. for mending pots, pans and milk-basins; and eight white pots for the maids cost 8d.; November 1608, an iron pot 4s. ["And greasy Joan doth keel the pot."] July 1612, two black pots, 2d.; October 1617, three earthen pots to keep butter in, 2s.

Pottle. The measure of two quarts. It is only retained now as the name for a small conical basket of strawberries, which does not usually hold half that quantity. "Pottle-draughts," emptying a vessel holding two quarts, was a feat of topers, and in *Othello*, "potations pottle-deep" denote the heavy drinking which stole away the brains of Cassio and Roderigo. In September 1591, five gallons and a pottle of sack, that is twenty-two quarts, at 10d., cost 18s. 4d. May 1592, eleven pottles and one quart of sack, at 10d., 19s. 2d.; 1588, for seventeen gallons and a pottle of white wine, at 5d. the quart, 29s. was received. It is clear, then, that towards the close of the sixteenth century the pottle was a measure for liquids in Lancashire.

Poultry. (French *poule*, a hen, diminutive *poulet*, Latin *pullus*, a chicken.) The old English name was *pullen*, from French *poulain;* and *pullet* meant a young hen. Chaucer used *pulaile* (French *poulaille*) for poultry. Cotgrave has "*poullailer*, a poulter or keeper of pullaine." Our tame fowl are such for the most part as are common both to us and to other countries, as cocks, hens, geese, ducks, peacocks of Ind, pigeons, &c. The making of capons is an old practice, brought in the old time by the Romans, when they dwelt here in the land. Of poultry there is great plenty in every farmer's yard. They are kept there also, either to be sold for ready money in the open markets, or else to be spent at home amongst their neighbours, without reprehension, as to dine or sup with a quarter of a hen, or to make so great a repast with a cock's comb, as they do in some other countries;

but, if occasion serve, the whole carcases of many capons, hens, pigeons, and such like do oft go to wrack, beside beef, mutton, veal and lamb,—all which at every feast are taken for necessary dishes amongst the commonalty of England. (*Harri.*) In his lesson as to what works a wife should do, an early writer says—Thou must give thy poleyn meat in the morning, and when time of the year cometh thou must take heed how thy hens, ducks, and geese do lay, and to gather up their eggs, and when they wax broody to set them there as no beasts, swine, nor other vermin hurt them. All whole-footed fowls will sit a month, and all cloven-footed fowls but three weeks, except a pea-hen and great fowls, as cranes, bustards, and such other. When they have brought forth their birds, see that they be well kept from the gleyd [kite] crows, fullymarts [polecats] and other vermin. (*Fitz.*) A later author devotes an entire book to poultry, and the ordering, fattening, cramming, and curing of all infirmities of cocks, hens, chickens, capons, geese, turkeys, pheasants, partridges, quails, house-doves, and all sorts of fowl whatsoever. He gives directions for nourishing and fattening of herons, puets [pee-weets] gulls and bitterns; also the feeding of godwits, knots, gray plovers, or curlews; and the feeding of blackbirds, thrushes, field-fares, or any small birds. (See *Mark.*) In the reign of Edward III. (1327-77) a royal proclamation fixed the prices of the following amongst other articles:—A capon 6d., a hen 4d., a pullet 2½d.; a river mallard 5d. In 1531, for the funeral repast, on the burial of Sir John Ridstone, mayor of London, twenty-two capons cost 12s. 10d.; nine dozen pigeons, 10d. per dozen; four geese, 2s. 8d.; three hundred eggs, 3s. 9d. (*Strutt.*) In 1533, the prices of poultry for the monks of Durham were:—A chicken 1d., a capon 4d. to 10d., nine pigeons 7d.; in October, fifteen pigeons, 5d.; a pigeon ½d. and a goose 4d.; eggs 1s. per 120. (*Finchale.*) In the additions to the ordinances made at Eltham in the reign of Henry VIII. are others in the nature of contracts with "the King's Purveyor for his mouth, of poultry-stuff," and a list of the ordinary prices of all kinds of poultry-stuff, to be served by William Gurley, is appended, of 13th March, 1532. There follows "a like composition made with Thomas Hewyt for foule, of 21st June, 1541," and also a list of prices "limited to be received and paid between William Gurley and the Wardens of the Poultry of London," who it seems were to take of Gurley at these prices whatever surplus of poultry, &c., remained in his hands after supplying the king and court, "so that the same stuff be sweet." This is dated April 3, 1542. We have thrown the three lists into a tabular form, so as to show the prices in these years:—

Poultry, &c.	1532. s. d.	1541. s. d.	1542. s. d.
Swan	6 0	2 4	5 0
Crane, stork or bustard	4 8	2 4	...
Capon of gresse	1 10	2 0	1 6
—— good	1 2	1 6	...
—— Kent	0 8	...	...
Hen of gresse, large and fat	0 7	...	...
House rabbit	0 3	...	...
Peacock and Peachick ... each	1 4	...	...
Grewe and Egrett ... each	1 2	...	0 2
Gull	1 4	...	...
—— ... dozen	...	...	1 0
Mew	0 8	...	...
Godwit	1 2	...	...
Dottrell and cock ... each	0 4	0 4	0 3½
Quail, very fat	0 4	0 4	0 4
Rabbit, out of the warren	0 2½	...	...
—— ... dozen	...	...	1 4
—— runner	2 0	2 0	...
Winter cony	0 2½	0 2	...
—— ... dozen	...	...	2 4
Heron, shovelard, bittorn	1 8	1 8	1 6
Teale	0 2	0 2	0 2
Mallard	0 4	0 4	0 4
Wigeon	0 3	...	...
Kydde	2 0	2 4	...
Sparrows ... dozen	0 4	0 4	...
Pegions ... dozen	0 10	0 10	...
Geese, fat, Easter to Michaelmas	0 7	...	...
Geese of gress, Lammas to Twelfth Day	0 8	...	...
Eggs, from Shrovetide to Michaelmas ... 100	1 2	...	...
—— Michaelmas to Shrovetide ... 100	1 8	...	1 6
Butter, sweet ... lb.	0 3	...	...
Plover	0 3	0 3	...
Snyte [? snipe]	0 2½	0 1½	...
Larks ... dozen	0 6	0 6	0 5
Chickens ... dozen	...	2 0	...
Pullet	...	0 3	...
Partridge	...	0 4	0 4
Curlew	...	1 0	...
Pheasant	...	0 8	0 8
Plovers, green ... dozen	...	2 0	...
—— gray ... dozen	...	1 8	...

Poultry, &c.		1532. s. d.	1541. s. d.	1542. s. d.
Lapwing	dozen	...	1 6	...
Teales	dozen	...	2 0	..
Oxebirdes	dozen	...	0 8	...
Crocards and oliffs	dozen	...	3 4	...
Winders	dozen	...	2 4	...
Wild duck and mallard	dozen	...	4 0	...

For numerous entries in the Accounts, see Index and Notes, under Capons, Chickens, Cocks, Doves, Ducks, Geese, Hens, Pigeons, Pullets, Turkeys, &c.

Presents. The custom of making presents [even to sovereigns] was probably very ancient, and was continued as late as the reign of Henry VIII. [certainly throughout that of Elizabeth]. Among the articles presented to Elizabeth of York, Queen of Henry VII., were fish, fruit, fowls, puddings, tripe, a crane, woodcocks, a popinjay, quails, and other birds, pork, rabbits, Lanthony cheeses, pease cods, cakes, a wild boar, malmsey wine, flowers (chiefly roses), bucks, sweetmeats, rosewater, a cushion, and a pair of claricords, a kind of virginal. (*Eliz. of York.*) The presents in these Accounts were of stags, bucks and does, venison, fish and poultry, fruit and vegetables, &c. They are noticed under the names of the respective givers and gifts.

Preston. This ancient borough, market town, parish and township, had a charter from Henry II. in 1172, granting *inter alia* that the inhabitants might hold a gilda mercatoria or gild-merchant, which was held at irregular periods till 1562 (4th Elizabeth), when, by a by-law of the corporation they were appointed to be held regularly every twenty years, and this has been observed. The Preston Guilds, during the period of these Accounts, were in 1582, 1602, and 1622. The parish contains nine townships, Barton, Broughton, Elston, Fishwick, Grimsargh and Brockholes, Haughton, Lea, Ashton, Ingol and Cottam, Preston and Ribbleton. Its fairs are on the first Saturday after Epiphany (January 6), for horses chiefly; March 27, for horses and horned cattle; August 11, September 7, and November 7, for coarse cloths and small wares. Preston, by the old coach roads, was twelve miles from Blackburn, twenty-three from Burnley, and twenty from Bolton. There are numerous entries in the Accounts of purchases at Preston, and of sales of cattle at the fairs there, after the settlement of the Shuttleworths in the new hall of Gawthorpe. They also sent a man-at-arms, or a demi-lancer, to attend the musters held there. For these see Index.

PRISONERS. In January 1583, there was a gald in Bolton, collected by the constable, for the "papeste and other prisoners at Manchester." In April of the same year, at Tingreave, one and a half fifteenth was levied "towards the maintenance of the prysoneres and the rogges at Manchester." March 1585, paid to a man which was begging for prisoners in the Marshalsea at London, 3d.; December 1588, to one which did beg for the prisoners in the Marshalsea, 2s. The prisons in Elizabeth's reign were filled with sturdy beggars, rogues and vagabonds; and to these, in Lancashire especially, may be added a large number of Roman Catholics, under the severe laws against "recusants." The total number of these, returned to the council, was 50,000; and domiciliary visits and arrests were frequent, especially in the night. In 1584, fifty gentlemen's houses were searched on the same night, and almost all the owners dragged to prison. At one assizes in Lancashire six hundred recusants were presented; and the prisons everywhere were crowded. There were licenses granted to collect money for the prisoners in the Marshalsea prison, Southwark; and local taxes in various parishes of the hundred of Salford, for the maintenance of the recusants and rogues in the Manchester prison. This was either the chapel on the old Salford Bridge, which Hollingworth says was converted into a prison, or the New Fleet, on Hunt's Bank, on the site of the old Castle Inn, now Palatine Buildings. This latter is named by Hollingworth in 1589, a Mr. Worsley being then its governor or keeper. Manchester was appointed by the queen and council to be the place in Lancashire where all the recusants were to be confined; probably, as Hollingworth suggests, because of the residence of the Bishop of Chester there, to whom was committed the education of the Catholic children of recusants in the Protestant faith, or perhaps because the gentry, ministry and people of Manchester had then the credit of zeal for the reformed religion. See note on PUNISHMENTS.

PROVISIONS AND NECESSARIES. The whole of these Accounts form one record of their prices during about forty years. In January 1608, a weekly account was kept of the consumption in the two departments at Islington; and in the five weeks ending 31st March 1609, the household expenditure seems to have been, for provisions £9 10s. 3d.; necessaries, £3 19s. 3d.; together £13 9s. 6d. At a later period, commencing November 1616, a weekly account was kept at Gawthorpe, not of cost but of quantities of provisions and necessaries consumed in the kitchen, dairy and buttery, and also in the stable. (p. 215 et seq.)

PRUNES. Dried plums. See Index and also note on PLUMS.

"PUERILES." (p. 105 and p. 456.) The full title of this Elizabethan school-book seems to be "Sententiæ Pueriles," in Latin. Confabulationes Hesse. Henry Bynneman, a London printer, who lived successively in Paternoster Row, Knight-rider-street (at the sign of the Mermaid) and Thames-street, had a license to print this book in 1579. That Bynneman did print the "Sententiæ Pueriles" is evident from the facts that he made Ralph Newbery and Henry Denham (printers) his assignees or executors of his privilege, and that in 1583 (Newbery being warden) these executors gave up certain copies of printed books, part of his privilege, to the Stationers' Company, for the benefit and relief of the poorer members, and amongst them copies of this book. Bynneman must have been dead in 1583.

PUKES. This was the name not only for *puce* colour (a brownish purple) but for a kind of cloth of which hosen were made. (*Edward IV.*)

PUNISHMENTS. The greatest and most grievous punishment used in England, for such as offend against the state, is drawing from the prison to the place of execution upon a hurdle or sled, where they are hanged till they are half dead, and then taken down and quartered alive; after that their members and bowels are cut from their bodies, and thrown into a fire provided near hand, and within their own sight. Sometimes, if the trespass be not the more heinous, they are suffered to hang till they be quite dead. If a man be convicted of wilful murder, done either upon pretended malice, or in any notable robbery, he is hanged alive in chains near the place where the fact is committed, or else (upon compassion taken) first strangled with a rope, and so continueth till his bones consume to nothing. We have use neither of the wheel nor of the bar; but when wilful manslaughter is perpetrated, beside hanging, the offender hath his right hand commonly stricken off, before or near unto the place where the act was done, after which he is led to the place of execution. If a woman poison her husband she is burned alive. If a servant kill his master he is to be executed for petty treason. He that poisoneth a man is to be boiled to death in water or lead, although the party die not of the practice. Perjury is punished by the pillory, burning in the forehead with the letter P, the loss of all his moveables, &c. Many trespasses are punished by the cutting of one or both ears from the head of the offender, as the utterance of seditious words against the magistrates, fray-makers, petty robbers, &c. Rogues are burned through the ears; carriers of sheep out of the land [punished] by the loss

of their hands. Heretics are burned quick; harlots and their mates by carting, ducking, and doing of open penance in sheets. The dragging of some of them over the Thames between Lambeth and Westminster at the tail of a boat, is a punishment that most terrifieth them condemned thereto, but this is inflicted by none other than the knight marshal. Such as kill themselves are buried in the fold, with a stake driven through their bodies. Witches are hanged or sometimes burned, but thieves are hanged generally on the gibbet or gallows, saving in Halifax, where they are beheaded after a strange manner. Rogues and vagabonds are often stocked and whipped; scolds are ducked upon cucking-stools in the water. Such felons as stand mute and speak not at their arraignment, are pressed to death by huge weights laid upon a board that lieth over their breast, and a sharp stone under their backs; and these commonly hold their peace, thereby to save their goods unto their wives and children, which, if they were condemned, should be confiscated to the prince. Thieves saved by their books and clergy, for the first offence are burned in the left hand, upon the brawn of the thumb, with a hot iron; so that if apprehended again that mark bewrayeth them, whereby they are sure at that time to have no mercy. Pirates and robbers by sea are condemned in the court of the admiralty, and hanged on the shore at low water mark, where they are left till three tides have overwashed them. Such as having walls and banks near the sea, and do suffer the same to decay (after convenient admonition) whereby the water entereth and drowneth up the country, are by a certain ancient custom apprehended, condemned, and staked in the breach, where they remain for ever, as parcel of the foundation of the new wall that is to be made upon them, as I have heard reported. (*Harri.*)

PURFLE. A border, hem, or rather a trimming. When used as a verb, it sometimes means to embroider. (*Eliz. York*, 1502-3.)

PURRE (*Tringa Variabilis*), one of the sandpipers, called also the dunling and sea-lark; and sometimes (though erroneously) the stint. *Ray* calls it the sea-lark or *Charadrius*, *sive Hiaticula*, and says it wants the back claw. In autumn vast flocks visit our shores, where they may be distinguished by their alternately showing the upper and under surface, producing a singular effect. Sandy bays and oozy shores are their chief resort; they run with great celerity, often uttering a soft piping note while seeking food, and when in motion constantly moving the tail up and down. On the wing they utter a weak scream. *Leigh* states that purres and redshanks are common upon the seacoasts of Lancashire and Cheshire, and are relishing food. For entries in the Accounts, see Index.

Purse (French *bourse*, Danish *Börs*, Latin *Byrsa*, an ox-hide), a small bag, formerly of leather, in which money is contained. (*Webs.*) In the middle ages they were generally of leather, sometimes of richly embroidered silk, &c., and worn outside like a wallet [or suspended at the girdle]. There were various kinds. In Nichols's *Progresses* is named "a purse such as the factors do carry with them when they go to receive money." (*Fosb.*) In religious houses the *bursa* was the common purse or stock; the bursarius or bursar, the treasurer. When the purse was suspended from, or tied to the girdle, thieves possessed themselves of it by cutting either the purse-string or the girdle itself, and hence the term cut-purse, which preceded that of pickpocket. In the Accounts, in June 1612, three leather purses cost 13d. October 1620, a purse to my master 12d.

Purslain (*Portulaca*), a plant used often as a pot-herb and for salads, garnishing and pickling. (*Webs.*) It is said to derive its name from *Port*, for green-leek. It is generally entertained in all our sallets, mingled with the hotter herbs. 'Tis likewise familiarly eaten alone, with oil and vinegar, but with moderation, as having been sometimes found to corrupt in the stomach; which, being pickled, it is not so apt to do. Some eat it cold after it has been boiled, which Dr. Muffet would have in wine, for nourishment. It is accused for being hurtful to the teeth, if too much eaten. (*Evelyn's Acet.*) It was regularly sown in the kitchen garden at Gawthorpe; for amongst the garden seeds bought yearly (p. 213) is pursland 2d.

Quack. (Dutch *kwaaken*, Danish *qvakker*.) To boast, as pretenders to medical skill quack of their cures. (*Hudibras.*) A quack is a boastful pretender to medical skill which he does not possess; an empiric; an ignorant practitioner. (*Addison.*) Probably the original word was *quack-salver*, but the second part of the word has long been dropped. Massinger has the lines:

> ——— no oils, nor balsams bought
> Of cheating quacksalvers or mountebanks.

It is uncertain at what period this vagrant dealer in physic made his appearance in England; it is clear that he practised with much success during the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries; he always had with him a bourdour or merryandrew; for as an old ballad has it:

> A mountebank without his fool
> Is in a sorrowful case.

Mountebanks usually prefaced the vending of their medicines with pompous

orations, in which little regard was paid to truth or propriety. (*Strutt.*) Shakspere classes them with other rogues:—

> As nimble jugglers that deceive the eye,
> Disguised cheaters, prating mountebanks,
> And many such like libertines of sin.

There is a very angry and to us amusing denunciation of quacks and quackery, in a quaint tract, reprinted by the Percy Society, entitled, "An Historiall Expostulation against the beastly advisers, both of chyrurgery and physic, in our time; with a goodly doctrine and instruction, necessary to be marked and followed of all chirurgeons. Gathered and diligently set forth by John Halle, chyrurgyen." (London 1565.) He gives numerous instances of quacks, who were not only knaves in professional practice, but swindlers and thieves. He mentions a woman calling herself Joan, who came to Maidstone in 1555, and took her inn at the sign of the Bell, "where she caused within short space to be published that she could heal all manner both inward and outward diseases. One powder she carried in a bladder, made of the herb Daphnoïdes [the laurel] and aniseed together, which she (as an only sufficient remedy for all griefs) administered unto all her foolish patients, in like quantity to all people, neither regarding time, strength, nor age." She stayed three weeks and had numerous patients, amongst others a poor man's child, with "a suppurat tumor in his navell," to whom she administered the said powder so abundantly that the child, by long vomiting, broke the tumor and eventually died; while the quack and her so-called husband absconded, with a quantity of bed linen from the inn, where they had enticed one of the maid servants to supply them with muscadell when they called for beer! In 1558 another quack came to Maidstone, named Thomas Luffkin, a fuller and burler of cloth, having served at the fulling mills near that town, but after long absence, "he had by roving abroad become a physician, a chirurgeon, an astronomer, a palmister, a soothsayer, a fortune diviner, and I cannot tell what. This deceiver was the beastliest beguiler by his sorceries that ever I heard of. . . . . . [He put forth this bill:] "If any man, woman, or child be sick, or would be let blood, or be diseased with any manner of inward or outward griefs, as all manner of agues or fevers, plurisies, cholic, stone, strangulion, imposthumes, fistulas, canker, gouts, pocks, bone ache, and pain of the joints, which cometh for lack of blood-letting, let them resort to the sign of the Saracen's Head, in the East Lane, and bring their waters with them to be seen, and they shall have remedy, by me, Thomas Luffkin." The end was, that "he suddenly

was gone, with many a poor man's money, which he had taken beforehand, promising them help, which only he recompensed with the wing of his heels." Another "false knave," with a false name, had married three wives all living, and could neither write nor read, yet was "sought unto and esteemed more than God." For his rogueries he was imprisoned and whipped. Another pretended physician in 1562, when examined, could not read, and was driven from Maidstone. Another confessed he was a shoemaker, but professed to cure sore eyes. One Robert Nicols in 1564 purged the life out of a poor woman, and when called on to say what remedy he had administered to her, said "catapussis," and this and what he called "catapistela" (cassia fistula) were the only remedies he could name. He was imprisoned. Other quacks named in the tract are Carter, alias Carvell, alias May, "a sorcerer;" "Grigge the poulterer," a water-caster, who was pilloried; "a joiner in London, a fisherman born, that is of late become a physician," &c. *Stow's Chronicle* records the ludicrously appropriate punishment of a water-caster, for exercising his quackery. He was set on horseback, his face to the horse's tail, which he held in his hand, with a collar of urinals about his neck, led by the hangman through the city, whipped, branded, and then banished. (*Halle*, 1665.) So far the surgeon. But what in the middle of the sixteenth century says the learned Doctor of Medicine? Fly the unlearned [in medicine] as a pestilence in a commonwealth, as simple-women [herb-women], carpenters, pewterers, braziers, soap-ball sellers, poulterers, hostellers, painters, apothecaries (otherwise than for their drugs), avaunters themselves to come from Poland, Constantinople, Hungary, Almaine [Germany], Spain, France, Greece and Turkey, Judea, Egypt or Jewry,—from the service of emperors, kings and queens, promising help of all diseases, yea uncurable, with one or two drinks, by waters six months in continual distilling, by aurum potabile, or quintessence, by drinks of great and high prices, as though they were made of the sun, moon, or stars, by blessings and blowings, hypocritical prayings, and foolish smokings of shirts, smocks, and kerchiefs; meaning nothing else but to abuse your light belief, and scorn you behind your backs, with their medicines (so filthy that I am ashamed to name them) for your single wit and simple belief in trusting them the most which you know not at all and understand least, as though there could not be so cunning an Englishman as a foolish, running stranger (of others I speak not), or so perfect health by honest learning as by deceitful ignorance. (*John Caius, M.D.*, 1552.) In those days (and we would not say

the class is wholly extinct in our own time) there were quacks in the army. Gale, Sergeant Surgeon to Queen Elizabeth, in describing the quacks in the army temp. Henry VIII., who were jeeringly called dog-leachers, says, "Some were sow-gelders, and some horse-gelders, with tinkers and coblers . . . . . . We demanded of them what chirurgery stuff they had to cure men withal, and they would show us a pot or a box, which they had in a budget, wherein was such trumpery as they did use to grease horses' heels withal, and laid upon scabbed horses' backs, with *nerval* [see note thereon] and such like. And other that were coblers and tinkers, they used shoemaker's wax, with the rust of old wax, and made therewith a noble salve, as they did term it." In the Accounts, quackery is chiefly shown by the entries of 5s. weekly for some time to "a beggar," who undertook to cure some sore or ailment of "my mistress' leg." See Index.

Quails. (French, *caille.*) A vague popular name for many varieties of gallinaceous birds, closely allied to the partridges. (*Webs.*) The European quail (*coturnix dactylisonans*) is a summer visitant, though not in great numbers, to our island. The flesh is very delicate. "As quarrelsome as quails in a cage" was an ancient saying. The bird is about $7\frac{1}{2}$ inches in length. In the sixteenth century quails were imported alive from France in great numbers. (*Douce.*) In an old MS. the author describing the use of the spaniel in hawking says — "His craft is for the partridge and the quail, and when taught to couch, he is very serviceable to the fowlers who take these birds with nets." The hawking terms were, a covey of partridges and a bevy of quails. Quails are not mentioned in the cookery MSS. of the fourteenth century, and they must have been scarce in England till their importation from France in the sixteenth century. In May 1502, a servant of the abbess of Syon was rewarded with 2s. for bringing rabbits and quails as a present to the queen of Henry VII. at Richmond. (*Eliz. York.*) In June 1537, the Princess [afterwards Queen] Mary paid 12s. for quails, which she sent as a gift to the queen [Jane Seymour, who was married to Henry VIII. in May 1536, and died in October 1537]. For other notices of quails, see Appendix II.

Quarter Sessions. The holding these sessions by the justices of the peace probably was first ordained by the 25th Edward III. stat. 1 cap. 8 (1351), and the particular times are appointed by the 36th of that reign, cap. 12 (1362). By the 2nd Henry V. cap. 4 (1414), they are appointed to be in the first week after Michaelmas Day, ditto after Epiphany, ditto after the close of Easter, and in the week after the translation of St. Thomas

à Becket, or the 7th July. (*Jacob.*) In the Accounts, in July 1612, James Shuttleworth spent, in going from Gawthorpe to attend the quarter sessions at Preston, 11d.

QUEY OR WHEY. A heifer or young cow, till it has had a calf. (*B. Gloss.*)

QUICKSETS. Living plants set to grow, particularly for a hedge or fence; applied especially to the hawthorn. (*Evelyn.*) The first hedges were made of dead wood; but quick or living wood was soon found to be more durable, and when the thorn came in general use for the purpose, on account of its valuable properties, the term *quick-wood* was appropriated to it exclusively. (*Finchale.*) A penalty for destroying, burning or defacing quicksets, was imposed by 13th Edward I. (1284) stat. 1, cap. 46. (*Jacob.*) In January 1588, 10s. was paid for getting 2,300 "whesettes" (young hawthorns), and for setting the same. January 1591, 200 "quice setes" to be set at Hoole, 12d.

QUINCE. (French *coign*, the cornered or wedge apple, the fruit of the *Cydonia vulgaris*), so named from Cydonia, a town of Crete, famous for abounding with this fruit. It is much used in making pies, tarts, marmalade, &c. (*Webs.*) The quince tree groweth in gardens and orchards, and is planted oftentimes in hedges and fences belonging to gardens and vineyards: it delighteth to grow on plains and even grounds, and somewhat moist withal. These apples be ripe in the fall of the leaf, and chiefly in October. Simeon Sethi writeth that the woman which eateth many quinces during the time of her breeding, shall bring forth wise children and of good understanding. The marmalade or cotiniate (from *Malus cotonea*) made of quinces and sugar, is good and profitable for the strengthening of the stomach, &c. For marmalade, take whole quinces, boil them till they be as soft as a scalded codling or apple, then pill off the skin, cut off the flesh and stamp it in a stone mortar; strain it as you did the cotiniate; afterward put it into a pan to dry, but not to seethe at all; to every lb. of the flesh of quinces put ¾ lb. of sugar; and in the cooling you may put in rosewater and a little musk. Many other excellent, dainty and wholesome confections are to be made of quinces, as jelly of quinces, and such odd conceits; which for brevity sake I do now let pass. (*Ger.*) Quinces should not be laid with other fruit, for the scent is offensive both to other fruit and to those that keep the fruit or come amongst them. Therefore lay them by themselves upon sweet straw, where they may have air enough; they must be packed like medlars [i.e. in a basket or barrel wrapped about with

woollen cloths, and some weight laid upon them] and gathered with medlars [about Michaelmas]. *Mark.* gives recipes to preserve quinces for baking during the whole year, also to preserve them in sugar, to make red and also white marmalade of quinces, and quince cakes, to preserve quinces for kitchen service, and to make conserve of quinces. *Price* has recipes to preserve quinces white or red, quince jelly, &c. *C. C. Dic.* gives a number of recipes for transparent and for white quince cakes, composts (compôtes) of quinces, quince cream, jelly, red and white and Spanish marmalade, to preserve quinces, raw, red, white liquid, &c., quince pudding, pie, tart quiddany (a sort of thick syrup), and syrup of quinces. *Halli.* gives a recipe for quince cream from "the True Gentlewoman's Delight" (1676). See also Appendix II., &c.

QUINDISMES. The Anglo-Norman name for fifteenths, which see. The French form occurs as late in the Accounts as August 1600, when 15d. was paid at Padiham as the quota of two "quindines," granted to her majesty by the last parliament.

QUIVER. A case for arrows, being the magasine or reserve; the arrows for immediate use being worn in the girdle. (*Grose.*) In November 1612, the painter was paid 2s. for two marks (or ? targets); shooting-gloves cost 10d.; a quiver 2s.; arrows 2s. 6d., and a bow-staff 3d. These were in preparation for archery practice.

QUODLING. See CODLING.

QUORUM NOMINA. In the reign of Henry VI. the king's collectors and other accountants were much perplexed in passing their accounts, by new extorted fees, and forced to procure a then late invented writ of *quorum nomina*, for allowing and suing out their quietus [or quittance] at their own charge, without allowance of the king. (*Cron. Angl.*) In July 1587, a "quorame nomyne" cost 2s. 6d.; in September 1589, the same sum; another in 1590 was also 2s. 6d.

RABBITS. For numerous entries see the Index; also the note on CONEYS.

RADCLYFFE, LADY. Probably Ann, only daughter and heiress of Thomas Asshawe of Hall o'th' Hill Esq. and widow of Sir John Radclyffe of Ordsall, who succeeded his father Sir William, and brother Alexander, in 1568. Sir John was M.P. for Lancaster 1571 – 1585; in 1581 he was appointed a feoffee of Manchester Grammar School, and died in February 1589. His widow survived him many years, dying at Hall o'th' Hill in 1627, æt. 82. (*Notes on Stanley Papers*, part ii.) In 1592 was received of Robert

Aspden 33s. 4d., being the moiety of ten years' arrearages of my Lady Radclyffe's, called Brukehouse, which was compounded for after a noble (6s. 8d.) a year, if she do not pay the tithe wool and lamb in kind; due Barnaby Day (June 11th) 1591.

Raddling. Or raddles, small wood or sticks split like laths, to bind a wall, for the plastering it over with loam or mortar. (*Kennet.*) The houses of the Britons were slightly set up with a few posts and many *radels.* (*Harri.*) In Sussex the term is applied to long pieces of supple underwood, twisted between upright stakes to form a fence, or to slight strips of wood employed in thatching barns or outhouses, also called *raddling.* (*Harri.*) In July 1587, 400 of "raddlynge" for to mend a barn at Hoole, cost 14d.

Radishes. (Anglo-Saxon *rædic*, Dutch *radis.*) This root is big and hath virtue as rape, and the one may be taken for the other. It is good for medicine, for it cleanseth the matrix of the bladder, &c. (*Grete Herball*, 1516.) There be sundry sorts of radish, some be long and white, others long and black, some round and white, others round, or of the form of a pear, and black in colour; some wild or of the field, others tame or of the garden. They are eaten raw with bread instead of other food, but they yield very little nourishment, and that faulty and ill. But for the most part they are used as a sauce with meats to procure appetite, and in that sort they are less faulty, but of harder digestion than meats, and taken before meat they cause belchings and overthrow the stomach. The rind, if given with oxymel (a syrup made with vinegar and honey), doth cause vomiting. (*Ger.*, who also describes and figures the wild, the water, and the horse-radish.) In October 1531, Jasper the gardener at Beaulieu (whose wages were £12 a year) had in reward for bringing to the king's grace radish roots, lettuce, and artichokes, 7s. 6d. Of the few garden productions mentioned in the MS. accounts of the steward of Sir Edward Coke (October 1596 — December 1597) onions, leeks, carrots and radishes seem to have been chiefly used to make pottage for the poor; and as they were purchased, *Eden* infers that Sir Edward Coke's table was scantily supplied with vegetables. *Bullin*, who wrote in 1562, says in his Booke of Simples (fol. 53); "Of radish roots there be no small store growing about the famous city of London; they be more plentiful than profitable, and more noisome than nourishing to man's nature." The bigger roots (so much desired) should be such as, being transparent, eat short and quick, without stringiness, and not too much biting. These are eaten alone

with salt only, as carrying their pepper in them. Hippocrates condemns them, as fitter for rustics than gentlemen's tables. (*Evel. Acet.*) In the Accounts, in August 1608, at London, a cucumber, radish and parsley cost 2d.; carrots, radish and herbs, 3d.; and in May 1609, radices and lettuce 1d. Amongst other seeds bought regularly for the garden was radish seed 2d.

Raisins. See Currants, Grapes, and Index. A wine made of raisins was formerly drunk, and the art of making it was introduced from abroad in 1635. *Raisins solis*, or raisins of the sun, are frequently mentioned in the Accounts, and *Ger.* says that the cluster of grapes that hath been withered and dried in the sun is named in Latin *Vina papa*, in shops *Papula*, and in English "raisins of the sun." Of raisins, most are sweet, some have an austere or harsh taste. In the second course at Archbishop Nevill's feast is "Rassens pottage," equivalent to the plum porridge of later days. (*Cury.*) In 1530 raisins were 2d. per lb. (*Durham Bursar's Mem.*)

Rapiers. The rapier or tuck was introduced from France by Rowland York, about 1587, and was worn in dances. The term "proking spit" meant a long Spanish rapier. The rapier and the dagger were usually worn side by side, and the fight with both together was deemed a gallant thing; the result was, that "do what they could, a skilful man was sure to have the advantage." They were usually suspended from the girdle; but a fashion came in of carrying them in their hands. About 1580 the Queen issued a proclamation, limiting the length of swords to three feet, and that of rapiers [daggers] to twelve inches, exclusive of the hilt; and officers were stationed at the gates of London to measure every one's sword passing in or out. If too long, they broke the point end to the requisite length. In October 1610, a rapier to Turner cost 3s. 4d.; and in February 1617, a rapier and scabbard to Thomas Hargreaves, 16d.

Raspberry. (From rasp, so named from the roughness of the fruit.) The fruit of a rubus or bramble; there are black, red and white raspberries. (*Webs.*) The rasp or framboise bush, or hindberry, is planted in gardens; it groweth not wild that I know of, except in a field by a village in Lancashire, called Harwood, not far from Blackburn. I have found it among the bushes of a causeway near a village called Westerton, where I went to school, two miles from the Nant-wych in Cheshire. The fruit is good for those that have weak and queasy stomachs. (*Ger.*) The Virginian raspberry was certainly brought to England from North America before 1696; the flowering raspberry from the same continent about 1700. (*Haydn.*)

Raspberries enter largely into the confectionary of the seventeenth centuries. In *C. C. Dic.* are recipes for raspbery cakes, compôte, conserve, jelly, marmalade, paste quiddany, tart, syrup, water, wine, and brandy. *Price* shows how to preserve the fruit liquid, and adds a recipe for raspberry cream.

Ratafie. The first of this kind of wine or liqueur mentioned in French history is the Rossoli, communicated by the Italians who accompanied Catharine de Medicis into France, about 1533. (*Fosb.*) Recipes for ratafia, white ditto, muscadel, &c., and how to tincture ratafia with mulberries, raspberries, strawberries, &c., prepared separately with brandy, sugar, and cinnamon, are given in *C. C. Dic.* It appears to have consisted of brandy, orange flower water, French wine, apricot stones, and sugar candy, and *Price* gives a recipe for it with these ingredients; also one for ratafia biscuits. It occurs in the Accounts only under the name of Rosa Solis, which see.

Rats. It must not be supposed that the rats which overran England in Elizabeth's days were the common brown rat of the present time, usually but erroneously called the Norway rat; for it was not known in England before 1730, and the rats of Shakspere's days were the smaller variety (*Mus rattus*) or black rat, now almost extirpated by its larger and more fierce rival, the brown rat. That they were troublesome visitants may be inferred, even from the story of Whittington and his Cat, though this has been gravely proved by one of the iconoclasts of traditions to be no animal, but a sort of sailing vessel called a *catta*, in which Dick the London prentice sailed to foreign parts and made his fortune. To destroy field rats and mice, put into their holes in the dog days, a few hemlock seeds, of which, when the beasts taste, it is present death to them. Others use to sprinkle upon the land hellebore or neesing [sneezing] powder mixed with barley meal, of which the mice and rats will greedily feed, and it is a deadly bane and present death unto them. But the best medicine is green glass beaten to powder, and as much copperas or vitriol also beaten to powder, and mix them with coarse honey to a paste, and lay it in the holes, and it will neither leave rats nor mice about all your fields, but suddenly destroy them. (*Mark.*) The entries in the Accounts are numerous of rats, and baits to kill them, and ratsbane and the ratcatcher; for all which see Index.

Rays. The family of Raiidæ includes the rays, the skate, the thornback (the female of which is called the Maid), &c. In the Accounts in 1583, a ray with the liver cost 9d; in February 1588, a quarter of a ray cost 12d.;

in February 1597, a piece of ray cost 8d., and about the same time a quarter of a skate was bought, so that the two fish were distinguished.

Read. This township (1490 acres) which is separated from that of Whalley by the deep gully of Sabden, is a manor held of the honour of Clitheroe, not by military service, but in thanage. Its first orthography was Revecht, then Reved, even as late as 1467. It was long held by the Nowells, but the hall and estate now belong to Richard Fort Esq. It is four miles west north-west of Burnley. Stone was got in the waste of Read for the building of Whalley Abbey. In this township were born Dean Nowell, who composed the Church Catechism (1506-1602), and his brother Lawrence the antiquary, born 1516. Read Wood is about two and a half miles from Gawthorpe. In the Accounts, in May 1606, a wright was paid 3s., or 6d. a day for working six days at the planks for the stable at Padiham, and also for felling timber in Read Wood, which, with Mytton Wood, seems to have supplied most of the timber required in the erection of Gawthorpe Hall.

Reaping. The cutting of corn, usually with a reaping-hook or sickle. In the north it is called shearing (from *share*, to cut, to divide; plough-share, shears, for cutting, &c.). Hence shearing sheep is cutting the fleece off with shears; and a shearing-knife is a thatcher's tool, used in shearing the thatch for the roof. In the latter end of July, or beginning of August, is time to shear rye, the which would be shorn clean and fast bounden. Wheat would be shorn clean and hard bounden in like manner; but take good heed that the shearers of all manner of white corn cast not up their hands hastily, for then all the loose corn and straws that he holdeth not fast in his hand flieth over his head and are lost, and also it will pull off the ears, and specially of the corns that be very ripe. In some places they will shear their corns high, to the intent to mow their stubble, either to thatch or to burn. If they so do, they have good cause to take heed of the shearers, for if the ears of corn crook down to the earth, and the shearer take not good heed and put up the ear, ere he cut the straw, as many ears as be under his hook or sickle fall to the earth and be lost. In Somersetshire they shear their wheat very low, and all the wheat straw they purpose to make thatch of, they do not thresh it, but cut off the ears and bind it in sheaves, and call it "rede," and therewith they thack their houses. Barley and oats be most commonly mown. Pease and beans be most commonly last-reaped or mown of divers manners, some with sickles, some with hooks, and some with staff-hooks, and in some places they lay them

on reaps [bundles], and when they be dry they lay them together on heaps, like hay-cocks, and never bind them. (*Fitz.*) *Tusser* in his August husbandry recommends the engaging of reapers rather by the great than the day, and to give more wages by a penny or two, and even gloves to the reapers as largess, to encourage them; and he adds —

> Reap well, scatter not, gather clean that is shorn,
> Bind fast, shock apace, have an eye to thy corn.

He divides the produce of corn harvest into ten equal parts:

1. One part cast forth, for rent due out of hand.
2. One other part, for seed to sow thy land.
3. Another part, leave parson for his tithe.
4. Another part, for harvest-sickle and scythe.
5. One part, for plough-wright, cart-wright, knacker and smith.
6. One part, to uphold thy teams that draw therewith.
7. One part, for servant and workman's wages lay.
8. One part, likewise, for fill-belly, day by day.
9. One part, thy wife for needful things doth crave.
10. Thyself and child the last one part would have.

In the *Durham Bursar's Mem.* about 1530, the payments for reaping were as follow; — a *yayne* meaning one ridge of corn, with the reapers upon it. Four yayne and two bandsmen one day, 4s. 8d.; six yayne and three binders for reaping oats one day, 7s. The terms reaping-hook and sickle are used indifferently, as if applying to the same instrument. The sickle always has teeth; some reaping-hooks are without. In the Accounts, in August 1583, 2s. 4d. was paid for making hooks and sickles and for steel for them. September 1602, two hooks to shear with cost 16d.

Rearing-day. In the Accounts, in June 1602, 6d. was given to a piper to entertain the workmen "upon the rearing-day," that is, when the new hall of Gawthorpe had been raised or reared up to the roof. In various parts of the kingdom a "rearing-feast" is given to the workmen when the roof is reared or put on the house. (*Halli.*)

Redshank. (*Turdus calidris.*) This bird, sometimes called the Pool Snipe, is one of the sandpipers. Redshanks are common upon the sea coasts of Lancashire and Cheshire, and are relishing food. (*Leigh.*) The price in the *Northumberland Household Book* was 1½d. It is quite a different bird from the Redstart. (*Sylvia Phœnicurus.*) In August 1590, three redshanks cost 3d.; December 1591, fourteen snipes and a rede-shink 15d.; December 1594, a redshank, a snipe-knave, two thrushes, a fieldfare, and one and a half dozen sparrows cost 7d.; April 1595, one redshank and eight other

birds 15d.; January 1596, two redshanks and seven other birds 22d. Its price was therefore about 1d.

RELIEFS. A certain sum of money which the tenant, being at full age at the death of his ancestor, paid unto his landlord at his entrance. When an estate was granted to a vassal for life, it became a fallen fee by the death of the tenant; but the tenant's heir, by paying a certain sum, did relieve or re-lift the fallen fee out of the lord's hands, and the money was called a relief. In the laws of William I. and Henry I. the relief of an earl was eight war horses, with bridles and saddles; four loricas, helmets, shields, pikes and swords; four hunting horses and a palfrey, with the bridles and saddles. The relief of a baron or thane was four horses, two with furniture, two without; two swords, four lances, four shields, and a helmet with lorica, and fifty marks in gold. The relief of a vavasour was his father's horse, his helmet, shield, lance and sword, which he had at his death. The relief of a villein or countryman was his best beast. (*Jacob.*) In the Accounts, in September 1584, 2s. 4d. was paid for two blank "relyves."

REMINGTON, THOMAS. He was steward of the estates of Barbon in Westmorland. See Note thereon and Index.

RENTS. [*Redditus*, from *redeundo.*] Money or other exaction issuing yearly out of lands and tenements. There are three sorts of rent; rent-service, rent-charge, and rent-sec. Rent-service is where a man holds his lands of his lord by fealty (or fealty-service) and a certain rent; or that which a man, making a lease with another for a term of years, reserveth yearly to be paid to him for them. Rent-charge is where a man makes over his estate to another, by deed indented, either in fee, or fee-tail, or for term of life; yet reserves to himself by the same indenture, a sum of money yearly to be paid to him, with clause of distress for non-payment. Rent-sec or dry rent is that which a man, making over his estate by deed indented, reserveth yearly to be paid him, with clause of distress mentioned in the indenture. The principal statute governing rents at the time of these Accounts was that of the 32nd Henry VIII. cap. 37 (1540-41). The entries in the Accounts of payments of rents are very numerous, and may be divided into two classes; first, those paid by the Shuttleworths, and second, those paid to them. In the former category may be included the crown rents, called Queen's rent during Elizabeth's reign, and King's rent in that of James I; the Bishop's rents, those of the Vicars-choral of Lichfield, and that of the [dissolved] Priory of St. John's of Jerusalem (payable to the crown); while some payments of rent to the Earl of Derby, Sir Richard Molyneux, and Mr.

Molyneux, were doubtless crown rents, the Molyneux being receivers-general for the crown in this county. Some of the chief rents were also payable from the Shuttleworths to the chief lords of the fees. In the second division must be included the rents paid to the Shuttleworths as lords of the fee in Barbon, Forcet, Ightonhill, Padiham, Hebblethwaite, &c., including peculiar rent-service, greenhew, free rents, &c.; also all the rents of farms, land, mills, houses, shops, barns, &c., paid to them as ordinary landlords or landowners, by tenants for life, or term of years, lessees, and tenants-at-will. In the Index all these classes of rent will be found indicated under the word Rent.

Revenue, National. Elizabeth was a great economist, though the accounts of the period are so imperfect that it is impossible to state precisely either her revenue or expenditure. The former was certainly much less than £500,000 a quarter. She received during the forty-five years of her reign, from parliament, only twenty subsidies and thirty-nine fifteenths, averaging about £66,666 a year. The remainder of the royal income must have been made up from the crown lands, wards, the duchy of Lancaster, and other branches of the hereditary revenue. One great source of expenditure was Ireland. During ten years, according to Sir Robert Cecil, Ireland cost £3,400,000, whilst its revenue amounted only to £120,000. In four years of the war with Spain, she expended £1,300,000. Her privy purse and household cost £42,000 a year. She had only thirteen ships of war. (*Wade.*) See Notes on Subsidies, Fifteenths, and Loans.

Reynolds, Dr. This was a physician practising in Chester, and doubtless, because of his high reputation, fetched thence specially to Smithills to attend and prescribe for Mr. Thomas Shuttleworth in his last illness. That illness was not a long one; for the patient was able to sign his name (as steward) to a settlement of Accounts with his brother, Sir Richard, on the 5th October 1593, and he was buried on the 14th December of that year. In November 1583, one of the farm bailiffs, Robert Aspden, charges 13s. 4d. for expenses in going from Hawarden to Smithills and back to Hawarden, and "in bringing Mr. Dr. Renaldes from Chester to Smithills," and in returning to Wrexham again. From this we infer that Sir Richard Shuttleworth was then on his Welsh circuit as judge of Chester. A second time Dr. Reynolds was brought from Chester to Smithills, as shown by a copy of the bill of charges in this journey of the same Robert Aspden, pp. 85, 86. Aspden went on horseback, and the doctor and his man (both mounted) returned with him viâ Warrington, where they stayed to dine, and the whole bill is only 4s. 11d.

Ribbons. Mention is made of silk ribbon as early as the twelfth century. (*Strutt.*) But the ribbon-loom is a much later invention, having its rise probably in the Netherlands or Germany at the end of the sixteenth or beginning of the seventeenth century. Lancellotti, in a work published in Venice in 1636 (but written in 1629), says that Anthony Moller of Dantzic relates that he saw in that city about fifty years before (i.e. about 1579) a very ingenious machine, on which from four to six pieces could be woven at the same time; but, as the council were afraid that by this invention a great many workmen might be reduced to beggary, they suppressed it, and caused the inventor to be privately strangled or drowned. This was clearly a ribbon-loom. There is reason to conclude from the statements of Boxhorn, that the ribbon-loom was known in Holland about 1621. In 1676 the ribbon-loom was prohibited at Cologne, and that year disturbances took place in consequence of its introduction into England. (*Beckman.*) It is clear from the above that the ribbons produced, purchased and worn in England during the period of these Accounts, were woven on the common loom. The making of ribbons and small articles in silk long preceded in England that of broad silk. The trade was principally in the hands of women, and, like a sickly plant of foreign growth, it appears to have constantly demanded props and support. Coventry became, and still remains, the principal seat of the English ribbon manufacture. Paris, Tours, Lyons and Avignon were originally the chief seats of the trade. Figured ribbons were made chiefly at Paris. Before the revocation of the edict of Nantes, the ribbon-looms of Tours numbered 3,000; but the exiled Protestants took their trade with them; and Tours and Lyons long languished, but the trade of Lyons afterwards revived. Many of the refugees settled in London (Spitalfields), Norwich, Coventry, &c., and greatly increased our various manufactures of silk. Ribbons are made according to a fixed standard of widths, designated by different numbers of pence, which once, no doubt, denoted the price of the article, but now have reference only to its breadth. The French distinguish their widths by simple numbers; and their fancy ribbons are generally sold in *garnitures*, that is, a broad and a narrow piece taken together of the same pattern. By grogram (French, *gros-grains*) is meant a variation in the texture, caused by the warp-threads passing over two of the shoots at once, taking up one only: this often finishes the edge of a ribbon. Galloons and Doubles are strong thick ribbons, principally black, used for bindings, shoestrings, &c.; the narrow widths are called galloons, the broader doubles. Ferrets are coarse

narrow ribbons shot with cotton, used for similar purposes. In gold and silver ribbons a silk thread of similar colour is wound round by a flattened wire of the metal, and afterwards woven; these were chiefly of Lyons manufacture. (*C. Knight.*) In the Accounts, April 1587, 2¼ yards of ribbon, silk, cost 20d.; June 1609 (and during the interval from 1592 to 1608–9 there was no lady at the head of the family, and consequently little ribbon needed), four yards of watchet, or pale blue ribbon, and a skein of silk cost 9d.; August 1610, half a quarter of black taffaty and two yards of 3d. broad ribbon [here the breadth is denoted by pence] for my master, 2s.; October 1412, six yards of ribboning, 2s.; November, three yards of black ribbon for my master, 7d.; January 1613, four yards of galloon lace, 8d.; eight yards of ribbon to my mistress, 16d.; November 1618, four yards of 4d. broad russet, ferret, silk ribbon, 12d.; April 1619, twenty-two yards of galloon lace (at 22d. the dozen), 3s. 8d.; twenty-four yards of 3d. ribbon, 5s. 8d.; July 1619, a dozen of ribbon, 3s. 6d.; July 1621, an ell of red ribbon, 4d.

Rice. That now sold in Paris is brought from Spain and Piedmont. It is a seed of so great use and profit that it is called "the manna of the poor," and throughout several entire countries they have scarce anything else to subsist on. That of Piedmont is the best; that of Spain is commonly reddish and of a saltish taste. The chief use of rice in Paris is for Lent; boiled first in water, then in milk, or reduced to powder or flour, it is used instead of wheat-flour to thicken their milk with. (*Pomet.*) It nourishes well and stops fluxes; therefore is good in armies, camps, and sieges, being of light carriage, excellent sustenance, and easily prepared. It is made into furmenty by boiling in milk, or even in water; or into cakes with water or milk, and so baked, and is excellent good in broth with any kind of flesh. (*Lemery.*) Sodden in almond milk with good quantity of sugar, it feedeth well and bindeth. Some grind it and make meal thereof, and seethe it as wheat and make pottage: in that manner it is good for them that have pain in the stomach and bowels. Others seethe it with the milk or the oil of almonds. If the face be rubbed with rice, or the water in which it is sodden, it taketh the pimples away and cleanseth the skin of spots. (*Grete Herball*, 1516.) It bringeth forth not an ear as corn, but a certain mane or plume, as mill, millet, or rather like pannicke (panic grass). The leaves of rice that did grow in my garden were soft and grassy like barley. The flower did not show itself with me by reason of the injury of our unseasonable year 1596. It is reaped at the setting of the seven stars [Pleiades]

and purged as spelt oatmeal, or hulled as French barley. It is brought from Spain unto us, purged and prepared as we see, after the manner of French barley. In England we use to make with milk and rice a certain food or pottage, which doth but meanly bind the belly, and also nourish. Many other good kinds of food is made with this grain, as those that are skilful in cookery can tell. (*Ger.*) Both the grain and the ground rice were used in English cookery in the fourteenth century, under the varying orthography of ryse, rys, ryys, &c. (*Cury*, 1381 and 1390.) In 1530 rice was 2¼d. per lb. (*Durham Bursar's Mem.*) In the Accounts, in December 1608, was bought with the spices 3 lb. of "milion ric" [? Milan rice or meal of rice] 1s.; March 1610, 2 lb. of rice 12d.; July, 3 lb. 2s. 6d.; November 1617, 6 lb. "rice mill" [meal] 18d.; July 1621, 6 lb. (at 4d.) 2s.

Richmond. In April 1599, a rent of 30s. was paid to the queen for Barbon, called "Richmond fee," probably from being held of the queen as of her fee of Richmond, Yorkshire. The honour of Richmond was very extensive. In the Accounts are also named Richmond caps and Richmond hose; and the town of Richmond, Yorkshire, the capital of the honour and fee, was long famous for its manufacture of these articles of wool.

Riddle. (Anglo-Saxon *hriddel*) an oblong sort of sieve to separate the seed from the corn. (*B. Dic.*) A coarse sieve with large interstices, much used about farm houses. In Northumberland young people "turn the riddle" to "raise their lovers;" it being done between two open doors, at midnight, in the dark. (*B. Gloss.*) For the riddles named in the Accounts, see Index.

Riding Charges. An allowance made to the judges on circuit temp. Elizabeth, for travelling expenses. In 1597 Sir Richard Shuttleworth, as Judge of Chester, had "for riding charges, allowed by my Lord President, by the last payment of my old bills, £33."

Rigging. The North form of ridging. The most elevated piece of timber in the angle or roof of a house, is called the rigging-tree. Riggen is another form of the same word; and it also came to mean the substance with which the house ridge was covered — thatch. In like manner rigging stones were the slates or stone slabs covering the ridge or roof. (*Halli.*) In September 1582, "rigging houses at Smithills" (? thatching) cost 6s.; October 1590, "ryging" the barn at Hoole 8d.; June 1593, "rigginge" the barn at Eccleston 16d.

Ringers. See note on Bells, p. 445. In April 1592, on the death of Lady Shuttleworth, the ringers at Deane church had 2s. 6d., those of

Leigh church 2s., those of Bolton 3s. 6d.; and eight ringers at Winwick (where the interment took place), 5s. These were fees for tolling the passing-bell, or for ringing what is called a dumb or muffled peal, one or both sides of the bell-clappers being muffled with leather. So on occasion of the funeral at the parish church of Bolton, of Mr. Thomas Shuttleworth, in December 1593, the ringers of that church had 2s. 6d.

RIPPLING. To ripple flax is to clean it, to wipe off the seed vessels. See FLAX.

RIVETS. In the Accounts, in July 1621, when many things for repairing and fitting up armour were bought of or made by an armourer, 500 brass rivets cost 18d. In the reign of Philip and Mary, the black-bill men or halberdiers wore each a pair of Almaine rivets — armour made of small bands of plate, laid over each other, with moveable rivets on each side. The rivets in the text may have been for such armour.

RIVINGTON. Anciently Ryven and Rovin-ton. A chapelry in the parish of, and six miles north-west from Bolton. It was the seat of one branch of the old family of Pilkington, and James Pilkington, Bishop of Durham (born there 1520, and died 1575), temp. Elizabeth, founded and endowed there a grammar school. He was one of the six divines who corrected the Book of Common Prayer. Rivington Pike, 1545 feet above the level of the sea, was used as the site of a beacon temp. Elizabeth, and on many subsequent occasions. This was formed of a small circular inclosure of rude stone, narrowing into a cylinder, on the summit of which was placed a hearth of flat stones, on the top of which was heaped the fuel, pitch, &c. In these Accounts are payments of galds for the maintenance of the beacons. For several entries relating to Rivington, see Index.

ROADS. Among our ancestors we find roads made of mortar and stone, of wood and stone, and roads for carriages, distinguished from bridleways. Narrow roads were called passes. Openness in roads was thought essential to prevent robbery, and for this purpose all thorns and wood were cut down. The Anglo-Saxons called the old Roman roads "military ways," and the British track-ways "country roads." They distinguished the highways as "one waggon's way" (*anes wœnes gang*), four feet broad, and "two waggons' way" (*twegna wœna gangweg*), probably eight feet or more. This distinction shows the origin of our narrow village roads. Among the Welsh, roads, narrow and full of rocks and stones, so obstructed the advance or retreat of cavalry, that they seem to have been originally left so on purpose. (*Fosb.*) The first general repair of the highways of this country was

directed in 1288. Acts passed for the same purpose in 1524 and 1555, and were followed by others in Elizabeth's and the succeeding reigns. (*Haydn.*) Modern cities have been paved from the ninth century downwards, but none in all the streets till lately. Even in London it was not till 1614 that Moorfields was levelled and Smithfield paved; and in 1615 footpaths of broad freestone were first introduced into the metropolis. (*Wade.*) There are various entries in the Accounts of paving causeways and mending roads. In April 1600, a man working three days and finding his own food, was paid 18d. for mending the way in Hapton Park. See Index.

ROBBERIES. There is no greater mischief done in England than by robberies; the first by young shifting gentlemen, who oftentimes do bear more port than they are able to maintain. Secondly by serving men, whose wages cannot suffice so much as to find them breeches, wherefore they are now and then constrained either to keep highways and break into the wealthy men's houses with the first sort, or else to walk up and down in gentlemen's and rich farmers' pastures, there to see and know which horses feed best, whereby they many times get something, although with hard adventure. It hath been known by their confession at the gallows, that some one such chapman hath had forty, fifty, or sixty stolen horses at pasture here and there abroad in the country at a time, which they have sold at fairs and markets far off, they themselves in the mean season being taken about home for honest yeomen, and very wealthy drovers, till their dealings have been bewrayed. It is not long since one of this company was apprehended, who was before time reputed for a very honest and wealthy townsman; he uttered also more horses than any of his trade, because he sold a reasonable pennyworth, and was a fair spoken man. It was his custom to say, if any man hucked hard with him about the price of a gelding, "So God help me, gentleman (or sir), either he did cost me so much, or else, by Jesus, I stole him." Which talk was plain enough, and yet such was his estimation, that each believed the first part of his tale, and made no account of the latter, which was true indeed. (*Harri.*) See also ROGUES, and PUNISHMENTS.

ROGUES. These do very great mischief in all places; sparing neither rich nor poor; but whether it be great gain or small, all is fish that cometh to net with them: yet they are trussed up apace, for there is not one year commonly where three hundred or four hundred of them are not devoured and eaten up by the gallows in one place and other. Cardan states that

Henry VIII. executing his laws very severely against such persons — I mean great and petty thieves and rogues — did hang up three score and twelve thousand of them [72,000] in his time. He seemed for a while greatly to have terrified the rest; but since his death the number of them is so increased, although we have had no wars (which is a great occasion of their breed), that except some better order be taken with them, or the laws already made be better executed, such as dwell in uplandish towns and little villages shall live but in small safety and rest. (*Harri.*) The expense of keeping rogues in prison was defrayed by local rates or galds. In January 1583, a gald of a fifteenth was paid to the church master of Halliwell "to the papest and rogges at Manchester;" and in April, at Tingreave, 1½ fifteenth, "which goeth towards the maintenance of the prisoners and rogges at Manchester, 11d."

Rolls. (*Rotula.*) Schedules of parchment which may be turned up with the hand in the form of a pipe, on which all the pleadings, memorials, and acts of courts are entered and filed with the proper officer, and then they become records of the court. Rolls of court are the court rolls of a manor, wherein the names, rents, and services of the tenants were copied and enrolled, so that the term, "per rotulum curiæ tenere" (literally "to hold by roll of court") was englished by the single word — copyhold. (*Jacob.*) It was one of these manorial court rolls that was searched in April 1589, when the fee paid for "searching the rolls for High Whitaker" was 3s. 4d. or half a noble.

Ropes. These were either of hemp or hair; the latter certainly made about the farm, of materials furnished by the owner. One use of hair ropes seems to have been for drying linen, &c., in the gardens; for in February 1598, half a stone of [horse] hair was bought (at 4s. the stone) "to be roppes for the Piele garden." A hair rope was used to bind oxen while being shod; a rope for this purpose in June 1603 cost 2s. 6d. It was probably identical with what is elsewhere called a cow-tig [cow-tie]. Again in August 1604, "making a great heren roppe, to showe the oxen with," cost 4d. For the other entries in the Accounts as to ropes generally, or hempen, scythe, team, cart, or wain ropes, see the Index.

Rosa Solis or Rossolis. This name belongs both to a plant and to a liqueur or distilled water. Of the plant two kinds are described, the ros solis major and minor; in English the great and little sun-dew, also youth-wort, and in the north of England red-rot, because it rotteth sheep, and in Yorkshire, moor-grass. It is sometimes named *salsi rosa*, of the dew

which hangeth upon it when the sun is at the hottest. The distilled water hereof that is drawn forth with a glass still, is of a glittering yellow colour like gold, and coloureth silver put therein like gold. It is a searing and caustic herb, and very much biting. It strengtheneth and nourisheth the body, especially if it be distilled with wine, and that liquor made thereof which the common people do call rosa solis. If any be desirous to have the said drink effectual for the purpose aforesaid, let them lay the leaves of rosa solis in the spirit of wine, adding thereto cinnamon, cloves, maces, ginger, nutmegs, sugar, and a few grains of musk; suffering it so to stand in a glass close stopped from the air, and set in the sun by the space of ten days more: then strain the same and keep it for use. (*Ger.*) ***Leigh*** states that ros solis is very common in our Lancashire mosses, and carries a pellucid mucilage, in which, he presumes, consists its virtues in atrophies. ***Mark.*** gives a recipe "To make a cordial rosa solis." Rossolis was a liqueur so called from the plant ros solis, or rosée du soleil (sun-dew). It was so great a favourite with Louis XIV. that a particular sort was called Rossolis du Roi. (*Planché.*) In *C. C. Dic.* the ingredients were 8 handfuls of the herb, in a gallon of brandy, 3 lb. sifted fine sugar, 3 pints of milk-water, 1 oz. powdered cinnamon, 1 oz. white sugar-candy, 4 grains musk; all strained through a cloth. In *Dolby's Cooks' Dic.* rossolis seems to have merely retained the name and not the substance or essence. It consists of pickled orange flowers, musk, roses, cinnamon, and cloves, with fine sugar, and distilled spirit of jessamine; then coloured crimson with cochineal. In the Accounts, in August 1612, aqua vitæ [it is doubtful whether this was brandy, or a cordial fermented water, made of beer strongly hopped] and rosa solis cost 17d.; November, to my mistress for rosa solis and aqua vitæ at several times, 10s.; also a bottle of rosa solis, 6s. 2d.; December, three quarts of aqua vitæ for my mistress, 5s.; rosa solis 3s.; January 1613, rosa solis for my mistress, 16d.; and delivered to my mistress to buy rosa solis and aqua vitæ, 10s.; and in May 1617, a quart of rosa solis to my mistress, 3s.

Roses. The rose doth deserve the chiefest and most principal place among all flowers whatsoever, being not only esteemed for his beauty, virtues, and his fragrant and odoriferous smell; but also because it is the honour and ornament of our English sceptre, as by the conjunction appeareth in the uniting of those two most royal houses of Lancaster and York. [The old herbalist then describes and figures the white, the red, the Provence or damask, the lesser damask, rose; the rose without prickles,

and the great Holland, Batavian, or great Provence rose. Musk roses he divides into the single, the double, the blush, the velvet, the yellow, the double and the single cinnamon or canell rose. The wild roses into the eglantine or sweetbriar rose, the briar or hep rose, and the pimpernel rose.] All these sorts we have in our London gardens except the rose without prickles, which as yet is a stranger in England. The double white rose doth grow wild in many hedges of Lancashire in great abundance, even as briars do with us in these southerly parts — especially in a place called Leyland and in a place called Roughford [Rufford] not far from Latham. Moreover in the said Leyland do grow our garden rose wild in the ploughed fields among the corn, in such abundance that there may be gathered daily during the time many bushels of roses equal to the best garden rose in each respect. The thing that giveth great cause of wonder is, that in a field in the place aforesaid, called Glover's field, every year that the field is ploughed for corn, that year the field will be spread over with roses, and when it lieth as they call it ley, and not ploughed, then shall there be but few roses to be gathered, by the relation of a curious gentleman there dwelling, so oft remembered in our history [Mr. Thomas Hesketh]. The rose without prickles is called in England the rose without thorns, or the rose of Austria, because it was first brought from Vienna and given to that famous herbarist Carolus Clusius. The distilled water of roses is good for the strengthening of the heart and refreshing of the spirits, &c. Being put in junketting dishes, cakes, sauces, and many other pleasant things, it giveth a fine and delectable taste. Then follow recipes for making the syrup of the infusion of roses; conserve of roses; crude or raw conserve; "sugar roset, and divers other pretty things made of roses and sugar." The yellow rose (as divers report) was by art so coloured and altered from his first estate by graffing a wild rose upon a broom-stalk; but having found the contrary by mine own experience, I cannot be induced to believe the report. We have in our London gardens both the sweetbriar and another sweetbriar having greater leaves and much sweeter; the flowers are greater and somewhat doubled, and exceeding sweet of smell. Of the briar bush, hep tree, or dog rose, it were to small purpose to use many words in description; for even children with great delight eat the berries, when ripe, and make chains and other pretty gewgaws of the fruit; and cooks and gentlewomen make tarts and such like dishes for pleasure thereof. The pimpernel rose is also called the burnet rose: it hath black fruit, round as an apple. It groweth plentifully in a field on the brink of the Thames, as you go from

a village in Essex called "Graies" into Horndon-on-the-hill; likewise in a pasture as you go from a village hard by London called Knightsbridge, unto Fulham, a village thereby; and in many other places. We have them all in our London gardens except the briar-bush, which we think unworthy the place. (*Ger.*) Of green roses is made honey of roses, sugar of roses, syrup of roses, and water of roses. The honey may be kept five years, and is good for "flewmatike and melancolyke persons." To make oil of roses, some seethe the roses in oil olive and strain them and keep them; some fill a vessel of glass with roses and oil, and set the vessel in a pan full of boiling water, and so cause the roses to boil; and that manner is good. Oil of green roses is made by putting them in a vessel of glass and setting them in the sun forty-one days; and this oil is good. Some gather roses with the dew on them and put them in a "fyole of glass" without any other water, and set the phial in the sun, and that rose-water is good. (*Grete Herball*, 1516.) The roses called "Provins" roses are flowers of a deep velvet red, brought in great quantities from Provins, a little town about eighteen leagues from Paris. There are two sorts, the larger and the smaller, the inhabitants are well skilled in drying them in such places that no one can enter in, and so close pressed that they may retain their beauty a year or eighteen months; but about that time care must be taken to bring them out, lest they lose their colour or worms breed in them. (*Harri.*) The damask rose is said to have been brought to England in 1522 from Italy, by Dr. Linacre, physician to Henry VIII. (*Pulleyn.*) Roses were first planted in England in 1522. (*Salmon.*) The damask rose was brought from the south of France before 1573; the Provence rose from Italy before 1596; the moss rose before 1724; the rose without thorns before 1726. (*Haydn.*) *C. C. Dic.* has recipes for drying and keeping damask roses, conserve of red roses, sugar of roses, syrup of roses, and rose water of damask roses, distilled in a pewter still, and the leaves at the bottom of the still, being dried in the sun, or kept as a perfume. The "Closet of Sir Kenelm Digby" (1677) gives Dr. Glisson's recipe for conserve of red roses, and Dr. Bacon told Sir Kenelm that Mr. Minito, the Roman apothecary, made him some, for which he gives the recipe; and also how Dr. Bacon converted it into a pleasant julep, by passing it through a hippocras bag into a beautiful and pleasant liquor. *Price* gives a recipe for "rose-cake, to burn for perfume," rose leaves and water being mixed with benzoin, musk and civet, and laid upon a coal not too hot. *Price* gives recipes for perfuming roses — one in which benzoin, civet, musk, and cloves are ingre-

dients; the other rose leaves sprinkled with a sweet water of marjoram, lavender, &c., and powder of cloves; these are to be put up in bags and laid amongst clothes, linen, &c. Rose-water was one of the domestic manufactures at Smithills; for in July 1589, three glasses cost 8d. "to put rose-water in."

ROSEMARY. (*Rosmarinum Coronarium.*) *Ger.* describes and figures this, the golden rosemary, named coronal because women have been accustomed to make crowns and garlands thereof; the *Ros sylvestre* or wild, and the poet's rosemary or garderobe; so named because the people of Grenada, Montpellier, and Valencia use it in their presses and wardrobes. Rosemary groweth in France, Spain, and other hot countries; there is such plenty in Languedoc that the inhabitants burn scarcely any other fuel; they make hedges of it in the gardens of Italy and England. Wild rosemary groweth in Lancashire in divers places, especially in a field called Little Reede, amongst the hurtleberries, near unto a small village called Maudsley [in the parish of Croston, eight miles south-west from Chorley] there found by a learned gentleman, often remembered in our history, and that worthily, Master Thomas Hesketh. Rosemary is spice in the German kitchens and other cold countries. The flowers made up into plates with sugar, after the manner of sugar-roset, and eaten, comforteth the heart, &c. The people of Marchia use to put it into their drink, the sooner to make their clients drunk; and also into chests and presses among clothes, to preserve them from moths or other vermin.. (*Ger.*) It is not properly called rosemary, but *ros marinus*, as it were dew of the sea, for commonly it growith in places by the sea side. The floure of rosemary is called *anthos*, and of it an electuary is named *dianthos.* The herb is called *libramondos*, or *dendrolibanos;* some call it *liantis*, others *ycterycon*, and others *lerim.* When rosemary is found in recipes, it is the floure, and if ye find libramondos or dendrolibanos, it is the leaves. (*Grete Herball*, 1516, which gives recipes of rosemary for the heart, weakness of brain, throat as a gargarism, stomach, &c.) The oil, essence, or quintessence of rosemary is not much used in medicine, but very much by perfumers, to aromatise their liquors, wash-balls, &c. Some esteem it very greatly for the cure of wounds, as a specific balsam, which has given occasion to some strollers and mountebanks to make it a mighty commodity, when what they sell for it is nothing but oil of turpentine and pitch melted together and coloured with orcanet [alkanet]. The next merchandise we sell that comes from rosemary is "the Queen of Hungary's water," which has made such noise in the world

for many years together, and is pretended to be a secret delivered by a hermit to a certain queen of Hungary. The great virtues of this water must be owing to the spirit of wine and rosemary flowers, from which two things only it is made; but there are a thousand cheats imposed upon the world by those who pretend to have the true recipe; and these people generally spoil this medicine by making it of the worst materials and in coarse vessels. You have it described at large, and the best methods of preparing it, by Mr. Verni, master apothecary of Montpellier, in his "Pharmacopeia, or treatise of Distilled Waters," p. 829; and by Mr. Charas, in his "Chymical Pharmacopeia," p. 632. [Recipes for Hungary or rosemary water abound in the old books. *Mark.* gives one and says that a bath of this decoction is called the Bath of Life; it maketh a woman look young, and hath all the virtues of balm, cleansing away the spots of the face and comforting the heart. Rosemary enters largely into some of his recipes for "aqua composita." *Price* makes Hungary water of rosemary flowers and spirit of sack. *C. C. Dic.* uses 4 lb. of the former, and 3 quarts of well rectified wine, for "the Queen of Hungary's water."] We likewise sell the dried flowers, seed, and salt of rosemary; we have likewise a liquid conserve of the flowers; besides which they bring us from Languedoc and Provence, oil of spike, which is made of the flowers of rosemary and the small leaves of a plant — the spike, male lavender, or bastard nard. This oil of spike or rosemary is proper for painters, farriers, and others, besides its use in physic. *(Pomet.)* The plant was considered a symbol of remembrance, and was so used at weddings and funerals. Shakspere uses it repeatedly. In *Hamlet* poor Ophelia says, "There's rosemary; that's for remembrance." In the *Winter's Tale*, rosemary and rue are beautifully put together, rue for grace, and rosemary for remembrance. Rosemary was stuck around the coffin of the dead, not only from its fragrance and funereal character, but perhaps also for some antiseptic qualities it was supposed to possess. So in *Rom. and Jul.*: —

> Dry up your tears, and stick your rosemary
> On this fair corse.

At weddings, it was usual to dip the rosemary in the cup and drink to the health of the new married couple. Sometimes it garnished meats, as in a play of *Beaumont* and *Fletcher*, "a good piece of beef stuck with rosemary." The custom of carrying it at funerals is noticed as late as the time of Gay in his "Pastoral Dirge." In an old play, direction is given that the mourners have

> A sprig of rosemary, dipp'd in common water,
> To smell at as they walk along the street.

Instances of the popular favour of this "herb of remembrance," might be greatly multiplied. (See *Nares*, *Brand*, &c.) In the Accounts, in December 1608 at Islington, some rosemary was bought for 1½d. In November 1617, amongst spices and confectionary bought of Mr. Thomas Lever, confectioner, London, was one lb. rosemary comfits, 18d.

RUE. Of this herb *Ger.* figures and describes five varieties. Garden, stinking wild, smallest wild, mountain, aud wild rue with white flowers. The English names for the garden kind (*Ruta hortensis*) are rue and herb grace. The wild rues are found on mountains in hot countries and on the hills of Yorkshire. The herb, the juice, the root, the leaves, and the oil, are all warranted to be full of medicinal virtues and to cure sundry diseases; and as to the water: "Salvia cum ruta faciunt tibi pocula tuta;" that is,

> Sage, and with it herb grace or rue,
> Make drinks both safe and sound for you.

(*Ger.*) It is supposed to have been called herb of grace, because of being used in exorcisms against evil spirits. In *Richard II.*—

> Here did she drop a tear; here, in this place,
> I'll set a bank of rue, sour herb of grace.
> Rue, even for ruth, shortly shall be seen
> In the remembrance of a weeping queen.

(*Nares.*) It is still by the Italians frequently mingled among the sallets. (*Evelyn's Aceta.*) Rue was grown in most kitchen gardens, and there are various recipes in the old books for water of rue. It is too strong for mine housewife's pot, unless she will brew ale therewith against the plague. (*Mark.*)

RUFFORD. A parish and township five miles north-north-east from Ormskirk. A fair was held here on the 1st of May for horned cattle. This is the seat of the Hesketh, who had two halls here in an extensive park. Rufford old hall was the only one in the time of these Accounts. In January 1613, the steward makes entry that he delivered to his master in gold before he went to Rufford, £13 4s.; and again, delivered to my master, to pay Mr. Robert Hesketh, £333 6s. 8d. (just 500 marks). He was son of Sir Thomas Hesketh of Rufford, and was sheriff of Lancashire in 1600 and 1608. In December 1616 the Shuttleworths were on a visit at Rufford, for they gave (to the principal servants) 4s. 4d. at "Rufforth House."

Ruffs. These envelopes for the neck were a fashion peculiarly of the sixteenth century, commencing about the end of the reign of Henry VIII., and reaching their climax in that of Elizabeth. In France they were less voluminous than in England; indeed, the plaits uniformly appear smaller in the former country. (*Malliott.*) They were not always plaited with poking-sticks; but sometimes they were pinned up to the ears, and suffered to hang over the shoulders. Cambrics and lawns were first imported for making ruffs temp. Elizabeth. (*Fosb.*) In the 2nd Elizabeth (1560) begun the wearing of lawn and cambric ruffs, they having before that time been made of holland; and no one being able to starch or stiffen this new material, the Queen sent for some Dutchwomen, and the wife of her coachman became her Majesty's first starcher. At the commencement of Elizabeth's reign, the Queen wore a ruff, but much smaller than that enormous one, which is seen in her latest portraits. About the middle of the reign the great change took place that gave the female costume of the sixteenth century its remarkable character. The body was imprisoned in whalebone to the hips; the partelet, which covered the neck to the chin, was removed; and an enormous ruff, rising gradually from the front of the shoulders to nearly the height of the head behind, encircled the wearer like the nimbus or glory of a saint. (*Planché.*) In an interlude by *Fulwell*, printed in 1568, the "Vice" says,

> I learned to make gowns with long sleeves and wings;
> I learned to make ruffs like calves' chitterlings.

The satirical writers of the day, (especially *Stubbes*,) selected the ruff for special ridicule and abuse. The ruff was formerly used by both sexes, and the effeminacy of a man's ruff, nicely plaited, is ridiculed by *Beaumont* and *Fletcher* in an old play, —

> About his neck a ruff, like a pinch'd lanthorn
> Which schoolboys make in winter.

In the Accounts in December 1619, a ruff to my mistress cost 20s.; in July 1620, 15s.; and in July 1621, 11s. 6d.; so that the price fell with that of lawn, and of the starch used for stiffening them.

Rundlet (q. d. roundlet.) A cask for liquors from 3 to 20 gallons. (*B. Dic.* and *Crabb.*) A measure of 18½ gallons. (*Edward I.*, 1300.) A cask or measure of 18 gallons. (*Post.* and *Young Arith. Assist.*, 1775.) Probably it came to mean any small cask or keg, of whatever capacity. At a later period than the present Accounts, viz. in 1677, in the time of Sir Richard Shuttleworth, the second knight of that name, was an entry in the

steward's accounts of Gawthorpe, December 13, for rundlets, to carry money to Forcet. (*Whalley.*) This suggests the opulence of the family and the convenience of a paper currency. In April 1590, a rundlet cost 10d.; July 1564, six gallons of white wine having been bought at Manchester, a roundlet to convey it thence to Smithills cost 12d. In December 1617, nine gallons of claret wine were conveyed in a rundlet, which cost 18d.

Runt. A Scotch ox or cow. Belgian, *rund*, a bullock. (*Crav. Dial.* and *B. Gloss.*) It implies a small beast.

Rushes. *Ger.* figures and describes the sea rush grass, common rush, great water or bull rush, and the sharp or hard rush, which last he says are fitter to straw houses and chambers than any of the rest; for the others are so soft and pithy that they turn to dust and filth with much treading; where contrarywise this rush is so hard that it will last much longer. Rushes overrun moist, swampy lands, and in 1533 is an entry of paid for mowing "le ryeshys" 8d. (*Durham Bursar's Mem.*) Rooms were strewed with rushes as late as the reign of Elizabeth. (*Edward IV.*) Our countrymen never loved bare floors, and before the luxury of carpets was introduced, it was common to strew rushes on the floors, or in the way where processions were to pass. In *Cymbel.* Tarquin is represented as treading softly on rushes in the chamber of Lucretia; in the first part of *Henry IV.* Mortimer is invited to lie down on the rushes at the feet of the Welsh lady; and in the second part of *Henry IV.* at the coronation of Henry V. when the procession is coming, the grooms cry, "More rushes, more rushes." At a wedding (in *Brown*, *Brit. Past.*):—

> ———————— others in wicker baskets
> Bring from the marish, rushes, to o'erspread
> The ground whereon to church the lovers tread.

In a play of *Beaumont* and *Fletcher*, one calls for —

> Rushes as green as summer, for this stranger.

It was probably this custom of strewing rushes on the floor that gave rise to the phrase for anything of no value, "Not worth a rush. *Lyly* uses it:— "Strangers have green rushes, when daily guests are not worth a rush." (*Nares.*) In the Accounts, in February 1585, a man was paid 12d. for mowing "rysshes" six days. When every one made their own candles, those for ordinary use had a rush in the place of a wick of cotton, as have rush-lights to this day, and there are various entries in the Accounts of the purchase of candle-rushes; see Index.

Russet. This word represents a colour, a kind of cloth, and a variety of apple. The cloth was a coarse fabric, called also russeting, and probably so named from its colour, a dingy brown. Hence "one clothed in russet," denoted a clown or man of low degree. (*Halli.*) The holiday dress of a shepherd consisted of russets, that is, clothes of a russet colour, a sort of dingy brown. Hence the name of russet or russetine given to some apples. (*Nares.*) The apples were called russetings, French *roussetin.* (*B. Dic.*) The colour was a dull reddish brown; the cloth of that colour was used for the dress of monks; and Matthew of Paris mentions "six ells of russet" in 1251. (*Du Cange.*) The russet was a reddish brown, and sometimes even a gray. (*Eliz. York.*) In the 37th Edward III. servants of husbandry, and other persons not having goods or chattels worth forty shillings, were forbidden to wear any other apparel than what was made of blanket and russet cloths of the value of 12d. a yard. (*Rot. Parl.*)

Rye. (Anglo-Saxon *ryge*, Danish *rog*, *rug*, English rough.) An esculent grain of the genus *secale*, inferior to wheat, but easily cultivated. (*Webs.*) *B. Dic.* does not contain the word. *Tusser* in September's husbandry gives directions as to sowing rye, &c. In Lancashire oats seem to have been preferred to rye as a bread-stuff. In October 1583, the threshing of six thrave (twelve, or sometimes twenty-four sheaves) of wheat and rye at Blackrod barn, cost 6d. In 1585, a peck of wheat was sold for 3s. 2d., and a peck of rye at the same time for 2s. 4d. In 1591 was received for a peck of multure wheat and rie [? mixed for bread-making] 21d.; December 1595, two metts [or bushels] of rye cost 10s. 8d.

Ryecliffe. A field or piece of land in Tinkler's estate, or Old Moss, in Padiham, where there was a stone delf or quarry, whence stone was got in the building of Gawthorpe Hall. In September 1600, two men getting stone there on their own table, four days, had 6d. a day. In August eleven score three yards of freestone were got there, at 2¼d. a yard, 42s. In September, as much stone was got at Scholebank and Ryecliffe as cost £5 13s. 4d. (8½ marks.) In August 1604, getting and dighting (or dressing) twenty-six yards of wall stones, which had been left at the delf at Ryecliffe, at 6d. the yard, cost 13s.

Sabden Bank. Sabden is a valley between Pendle Hill and Padiham Heights. It forms a hamlet in the township of Pendleton, four miles north-north-west of Burnley, and two miles north from Padiham. Sabden Bank is the acclivity from the dene or valley. In September 1601 there was a gald for Sabden Bank, paid to the constable of Padiham, for nine oxgangs of

land, laid by the four men, at 18d. the oxgang, for the maintenance of a suit for Sabden Bank 13s. 6d. and for three tofts in the town [of Padiham] at 2d. the toft, 6d.

SACK. See WINE.

SACKS AND SACKING (*sac*, Anglo-Saxon, *saccus*, Latin), a bag of coarse [linen] cloth, to put anything in. (*B. Dic.*) In January 1590, sack-cloth to be eight sacks cost 18s. 2d.; February 1594, 25½ yards of twill sacking to be sacks (at 7½d. yard) cost 15s. 10d.; November 1605, 21¼ yards sack-cloth to be five sacks for corn (at 10d. yard), 17s. 8d. So that a corn-sack took 4½ yards of sack-cloth, and cost over 3s. 6d. December, 1¼ yard canvas to mend sacks with, 9d., making five sacks for the house use 6d., and thread 3d.; February 1611, 16 yards sack-cloth for four sacks (at 8d. yard) 3s. 4d.; December 1616, 36½ yards sack-cloth (at 10d.) and 4d. further bought at Clithero, 30s. 9d.; May 1621, 26 yards sack-cloth (at 9½d.) 22s. 2d.

SADDLES, SADDLERY, &c. Saddles were in use in the third century, and are mentioned as made of leather in A.D. 304. They were known in England about 600. The saddle-cloth first occurs temp. Henry I. (1100-1135). Side-saddles for ladies were in use in 1388. Anne, Queen of Richard II., introduced these to the English ladies. (*Stowe.*) In 1531, a load-saddle cost 16d. (*Durham Burs. Mem.*) A hackney saddle was a riding saddle, as distinguished from a load, pack, or sumpter-saddle. (*Finchale.*) In London the "gilda sellariorum," or gild of saddlers, was in all probability an Anglo-Saxon gild, and consequently the oldest on record of all the present livery companies. (*Herbert.*) The entries in the Accounts are very numerous, the Index distinguishing between payments made to saddlers and the purchase of saddlery and harness.

SAFFRON. (*Saffrwm*, British, *Safran*, Turkish, from the Arabic *Zapheran*, *Saffran*, French, *Saffrano*, Italian.) The flower of crocus. (*Purdon.*) Of strong aromatic odour, formerly used against infection, still used as a medicine, and much esteemed in cookery. It was first brought to England in the reign of Edward III. by a pilgrim, about 1339, probably from Arabia, as the word is from the Arabic *saphar*. (*Millar.*) It was cultivated in England in 1582, and the best grows in Essex, between Cambridge and Saffron Walden. (*Haydn.*) *Ger.* figures and describes saffron (*crocus*) without flower and in flower; the wild saffrons, the early flowering and the small; and the meadow saffrons, including the purple English, the white English, the Hungary, the small, small mountain, Greek, Assyrian,

yellow mountain, male and female meadow, Germany saffron, &c. The common or best known saffron groweth plentifully in Cambridgeshire, Saffron Walden [whence the place has its name] and other places thereabouts, as corn in the fields. It beginneth to flower in September, and the leaves remain green all the winter long. [He enumerates its many medicinal virtues]. The chives steeped in water serveth to illumine, or as we say limn, pictures and imagery; also to colour sundry meats and confections. The confections called Croco-magna, Oxycroceum and Diacurcuma, with divers others emplaisters and electuaries, cannot be well made without this saffron. That pleasant plant, the wild saffron with yellow flowers, was sent unto me from Robinus of Paris, that painful and most curious searcher of simples. The wild saffrons are unprofitable; they are called in English spring-time or vernal saffrons. The English meadow saffrons, the purple and the white, grow in England in great abundance, as about Wilford and Bath, as also in the meadows near Shepton Mallet, in the meadows about Bristol, in Kingstrop meadow near a water mill, as you go from Northampton to Holmely House on the right hand; and likewise in great plenty in Nobottle wood, two miles from Northampton, and many other places. The white meadow saffron growing in the west of England, especially about Shepton Mallet, is the *Hermodactyle* of the shops. It was called *Colchicum*, of an isle called Colchis, where it was first found. Those which have eaten of the common meadow saffron must drink the milk of a cow, or else death presently ensueth. (*Ger.*) An Elizabethan writer thus describes the English saffron: — As the saffron of England, which Platina reckoneth among spices, is the most excellent of all other . . . . . . for sweetness, tincture and continuance; so of that which is to be had amongst us, the same that grows about Saffron Walden, sometime called Waldenburg, on the edge of Essex, first of all planted there in the time of Edward III., and that of Gloucestershire and those westerly parts, which some think to be better than that of Walden, surmounteth all the rest, and therefore beareth worthily the higher price by 6d. or 12d. most commonly in the pound. . . . . . . The chives [young sprouts] being picked from the flowers, these are thrown into the dunghill, the other dried upon little kelles [kilns or furnaces] covered with strained canvasses upon a soft fire; whereby, and by the weight that is laid upon them, they are dried and pressed into cakes, and then bagged up for the benefit of their owner. In good years we gather four score or 100 lb. of wet saffron of an acre, which, being dried, doth yield 20 lb. of dry and more. Whereby, and sith the

price of saffron is commonly about 20s. in money, or not so little, it is easy to see what benefit is reaped by an acre of this commodity, towards the charges of the setter, which indeed are great, but yet no so much as that he shall be thereby a loser, if he be anything diligent. For admit that the triple tillage of an acre doth cost 13s. 4d. before the saffron be set, the clodding 1s. 4d., the taking of every load of stones from the same 4d., and raising of every quarter of heads 6d., and so much for cleansing of them, beside the rent of 10s. for every acre, thirty load of dung (which is worth 6d. the load) to be laid on the first year; for the setting 23s. 4d., for the paring 5s., 6d. for the picking of a pound wet, &c.; yea, though he hire it ready set and pay £10 for the same, yet shall he sustain no damage, if warm weather and open season do happen at the gathering . . . . Every acre asketh twenty quarters of heads, placed in ranks two inches one from another, in long beds, eight or ten foot in breadth. And after three years that ground will serve well, and without compost, for barley, by the space of eighteen or twenty years together. The heads of every acre at the raising will store an acre and a half of new ground, which is a great advantage, and it will flower eight or ten days together. But the best saffron is gathered at the first, at which time four lb. of wet saffron will go very near to make one of dry; but in the midst, five lb. of the one will make but one of the other, because the chive waxeth smaller, as six lb. at the last will do no more but yield one of the dried, by reason of the chive, which is now very lean and hungry. After twenty years also the same ground may be set with saffron again. . . . . Our saffron (beside the manifold use which it hath in the kitchen and pastery, also in our cakes, at bridals and thanksgiving of women) is very profitably mingled with those medicines which we take for the diseases of the breast, of the lungs, of the liver, of the bladder, &c. (*Harri.*) In two rolls of cookery temp. Richard II. (1381 and 1390) saffron enters into most of the dishes, either as an ingredient or flavour, or for colouring, flourishing or garnishing. (*Cury.*) It was used for colouring creams and confectionary. (*Finchale.*) Also for dyeing comfits and other confectionary yellow; and for making a cake called a saffron cake — made of fine flour, butter, carraway seeds, cloves, mace, and cinnamon, sugar, rose-water, a pennyworth of saffron, yeast, and milk. (*Price.*) From its being so apt to prevail above everything with which 'tis blended, we little encourage its admittance into our sallet. (*Evelyn's Acet.*) In the Accounts are numerous entries, see Index. In June 1603, "vargresse and saveron" were given to a sick ox. It was usually bought by the two-pennyworth;

but in December 1608, 1s. was paid for "English safferon," and again in November 1617, half an ounce of the English cost 12d.

SAGGE. Sag or seg was a bull made into an ox when full grown. (*B. Gloss.*, *Jamieson*, *Halli.*) September 1600, in Blackburn, for one "fat sagge," for the house use, 53s. 10d.

SAIE, OR SAY. A delicate serge or woollen cloth. (*Halli.*) Saye cloth is serge. (*Palsgrave.*) *Sagum* was cloth of say or shag. (*Finchale.*) A species of silk or rather satin, from *soye*, French. (*Nares.*) This is evidently an error, and the quotations cited in support of the notion militate against it. *Spenser* has "a kirtle of discoloured say;" and again, "His garment neither was of silk nor say." In the second part of *Henry IV.* Jack Cade puns upon the name of Lord Say: "Thou say, thou serge, nay thou buckram lord." *B. Dic.* derives it from the French *sayette*, a thin sort of stuff. In 1568 Queen Elizabeth gave a courteous reception to such of the French as were forced on the score of religion to fly their country. The same she did to the Netherlanders, who flocked to England in vast multitudes as a retreat from the storm of the Duke of Alva's cruelties practised against them. She gave them the liberty of settling themselves at Norwich, Colchester, Sandwich, Maidstone, and Southampton, which turned to the great advantage of England, for they were the first that brought into the nation the art of making those slight stuffs called bays and *says*, and other linen and woollen cloth of the same kind. (*Camden.*) But this would appear to be a mistake; for bays are mentioned among the woollen goods prohibited from export in 1564; and the act of 14 and 15 Henry VIII. c. 3 (1522) recites that since the 7th Edward IV. (1467) the making of worsteds, *saies*, and stammins had greatly increased in the city of Norwich and county of Norfolk, and that the same was now practised more busily and diligently than in times past at Yarmouth and at Lynn. (*Smith's Mem. of Wool.*) There are (says a deputy aulnager in 1613) bastard perpetuanas made of milled says. (*John May.*) In a work by E. Misselden of Hackney, merchant (London 1622), entitled "Free Trade, or the means to make trade flourish," he says that the draperies of England are termed old and new. By the old are understood broadcloths, bays, and kerseys; by the new, perpetuanoes, serges, *sayes, and other manufactures of wool.* It is therefore clear that says were a comparatively recent manufacture, and that they were not of silk but of wool. In the Accounts, December 1617, $3\frac{1}{2}$ yards of ell-broad green "sey" cost 8s. 9d.; in February 1619, say was bought with buckram and canvas, half a yard of "saie" costing 14d; July 1621, $3\frac{1}{2}$ yards of "saie" (at 2s.) 7s.

Salad or Sallet. (French, *salade.*) A dish of raw herbs. (*B Dic.*) Of sallets there be some simple, some compounded; some only to furnish out the table, and some both for use and adornation. Your simple sallets are chibols peeled, washed clean, and half of the green tops cut clean away, and so served on a fruit dish; or chives, scallions, radish roots, boiled carrots, skirrets and turneps, with such like, served up simply. Also all young lettuce, cabbage lettuce, purslane, and divers other herbs, which may be served simply without anything but a little vinegar, sallet oil and sugar. Onions boiled, stripped from their rind, and served up with vinegar, oil and pepper, is a good simple sallet. So is samphire, bean-cods, asparagus, and cucumbers, served in likewise with oil, vinegar and pepper; with a world of others, too tedious to nominate. Your compound sallets are first, the young buds and knots of all manner of wholesome herbs at their first springing; as red sage, mint, lettuce, violets, marigold, spinage, and many other, mixed together, and then served up to the table with vinegar, sallet oil and sugar. [Then follows a recipe, too long to copy] "to compound an excellent sallet, and which indeed is usual at great feasts and upon princes' tables." [It contains blanched almonds, raisins of the sun, figs, capers, olives, currants, oranges and lemons, pickled cucumbers, and various green herbs.] "An excellent compound boiled sallet" is chiefly of spinage and currants, vinegar and sugar. Preserved sallets are of two kinds, — either pickled, as are cucumbers, samphire, purslane, broom and such like; or preserved with vinegar, as violets, primroses, cowslips, gillyflowers of all kinds, broom-flowers, and for the most part any wholesome flower whatever. For the compounding of sallets of these pickled and preserved things *Mark.* gives copious directions. To make red flowers he would take preserved gillyflowers, with purslane leaves and stalks, and thin slices of cucumbers, shaped as the leaves; for yellow flowers, take the pots of primroses and cowslips; if blue, then the pots of violets or bugloss flowers; and these sallets are both for show and use, for they are more excellent for taste than for to look on. For sallets for show only, and the adorning of a table, they be those which are made of carrot roots of sundry colours well boiled, and cut into many shapes and proportions, into knots, 'scutcheons and arms; birds, wild beasts, &c., according to the art and cunning of the workman; and these are for the most part seasoned with oil, vinegar and a little pepper. A world of other sallets there are, which time and experience may bring to our housewife's eye. (*Mark.*) It is clear that formerly a sallet represented a vast variety of dishes of fresh, pickled and preserved,

raw and boiled, flowers, fruit and herbs, to an extent to which we have no modern parallel. Yet the English cultivated scarcely any vegetable before the thirteenth century; and at the commencement of the reign of Henry VIII. neither salad [? lettuce] carrots, cabbages, radishes, nor any other comestibles of like nature, were grown in any part of the kingdom: they came from Holland and Flanders. (*Anderson*, 1548.) Queen Katherine herself could not procure a salad for her dinner. The king was obliged to send over to Holland for a gardener to cultivate those pot-herbs, with which England is perhaps better furnished now than any other country in Europe. (*Pantrophéon.*) Once known here their culture spread, and nothing shows their number and variety more than a little volume by the celebrated John Evelyn, "Acetaria, a discourse of Sallets" (London 1699). It is dedicated to John, Lord Somers, Lord High Chancellor of England, and President of the Royal Society (of which Evelyn was secretary). After noticing the distinction between the *olera*, which were never eaten raw, and the *acetaria*, which were never boiled, he limits his inquiries to the latter; defining sallets to consist of certain esculent plants, to be eaten raw or green, blanched or candied, simple and per se, or intermingled with others according to the season. These crude and fresh herbs are usually eaten with some acetous juice, oil, salt, &c., to give them a grateful gust and vehicle. The materials consist of roots, stalks, leaves, buds, flowers, &c., of such herbaceous plants as are chiefly used in cold sallets. Fruits he altogether omits, as they would require a much ampler volume. This alphabetical list of materials, beginning with Alexanders and ending with Wood-sorrel, numbers seventy-three herbs, &c. To all which he says sundry more might be added, grown obsolete or neglected, as the tulip, the young fresh bulbs of which are sweet and high of taste [and high of price, too], the asphodel or daffodil, roast chestnuts; the large heliotrope and sun-flower, which being dressed as the artichoke is eaten for a dainty. He regrets the loss of the ancient *silphium*, which he slyly suggests may really have been what we now know as assafœtida. He lays down careful rules as to the proportions of the various ingredients, the quality of the olive oil, vinegar or verjuice, salt, which should be the brightest bay gray, moderately dried; sugar, the best refined white, hard, close, yet light and sweet as the Madeiras; mustard of the best Tewkesbury or the soundest and weightiest Yorkshire seed, tempered to a pap with vinegar in which shavings of horse-radish have been steeped; pepper, not bruised too small; and some prefer the powdered root of the minor pimpernella, or small burnet saxifrage; the

yolks of fresh and new-laid eggs, boiled moderately hard, part mashed with the mustard, oil and vinegar, part cut into quarters and eaten with the herbs. The knife with which the herbs are cut is to be of silver, and by no means of steel, which all acids are apt to corrode, and retain a metallic relish of. The *saladieres* or sallet-dishes must be of porcelain or the Holland Delft ware, neither too deep nor shallow; pewter or even silver not so well agreeing with oil and vinegar, which leave their several tinctures. There should be one dish to beat and mingle the liquids, a second to receive the crude herbs upon which they are to be poured; and then with a fork and spoon kept constantly stirred till all the furniture be equally moistened. It being one of the inquiries of the noble Mr. Boyle, what herbs are proper and fit to make sallets with, and how best to order them, we have here (by the assistance of Mr. London, his majesty's principal gardener) reduced them to a competent number not exceeding thirty-five; which may be varied and enlarged, &c. [Here follows a table giving the sallet herbs for every month of the year. Of the thirty-five herbs nine are to be blanched — endive, chicory, celery, sweet fennel, rampions, and four varieties of lettuce (Roman, Cos, Silesian and cabbage); and the other twenty-six green — lob-lettuce, corn-sallet, purslane, broad cresses, curled spinach, French and Greenland sorrel, radish, cresses, turnip, mustard and scurvy grass, chervil, burnet and Spanish rocket, parsley, tarragon, mints, sampier, balm, red sage, shalots, cives and onion, Indian nasturtium, Belgrade rampion, and Trip-Madame. The remainder of the text consists of a learned dissertation in favour of vegetable diet. An appendix gives various recipes for different ways of dressing vegetables. Various herbs were grown at Gawthorpe for sallets; see the yearly list of seeds bought for sowing, p. 213; also the Index.

Salesbury. A chapelry in the parish of Blackburn, four and a half miles north of that town. The remains of an ancient hall of the Talbots are here, of wood and stone, once a quadrangle. It is near the Ribble, and is reduced to a farm-house. There was a ferry here over the Ribble called Salesbury Boat. In the Accounts, in April 1613, there was spent by Leigh at Salesbury Boat 7d.; August 1617, to the boat's man, Salesbury, 3d.; October, at Saleberie boat for passage there 14d.; and in September 1618, the keeper of Salesbury Park [then the Talbots'] his fee for a buck, 6s. 8d.

Salford. This town and borough was a royal manor in the Domesday survey, and gave its name to the hundred: a court for the queen's manor, as lady of the hundred is still held here. Leland describes it as a large

suburb to Manchester in temp. Henry VIII. Its fairs were (and are) on Whit Monday for horses and horned cattle, pigs and toys; and November 17, for the same, this being usually called Dirt Fair. Salford was created a free borough by a charter granted by Ranulph de Blundeville, Earl of Chester, in the reign of Henry III. [circâ 1231-2]. By this charter every burgess was to have an acre of land attached to his burgage, paying 12d. yearly for all rents belonging to that burgage. Before the existence of the oldest bridge connecting Manchester and Salford, the name of the latter place indicates that from time immemorial there was a ford here, the Sale or *Sallow* (*Salix*) ford; the a pronounced broad like *aw* (as is also the case with Salley Abbey, pronounced Sawley) the place was often called *Saw-forth*, as in these Accounts In May 1583, two oxen were bought in "Sauforthe" for £4 17s. 4d.; in May 1589, at "Sauforthe" [Whitsuntide] fair, ten heifers and two oxen were bought; June 1593, spent by three men when they brought Westhoughton beasts to Sauforthe fold; June 1599, paid to a gald in Lostock for the repair of bridges within the hundred of Salford 12d.; June 1606, one gray mare, bought in Sawforth fair at Whitsunday [Whitsuntide] last, 53s. 4d.

SALMON. (*Salmo Salar.*) The family of Salmonidæ include the salmon, char, trout, grayling, &c. *Gesner*, a naturalist of the early part of the sixteenth century, states that there was then no better salmon than in England. *Izaak Walton* observes that though some of our northern counties have as large and as fat as the river Thames, yet none have so excellent a taste. Owing to the progress of population and the extension of manufactures, the salmon rivers in England are far less productive than formerly. A Thames salmon is now rarely seen. Salmon-fry are called smolts; fish under the weight of 2 lb. are called salmon-peal; all above that weight, grilse. The parr, or samlet, has been and still is in some places regarded as the young of the salmon. A local naturalist towards the close of the seventeenth century thus speaks of the salmon of Lancashire: — The rivers abound with great quantities of salmon, but chiefly those into which the sea flows daily, as Ribble, Lune, Wyre and Mersey. In these there are considerable numbers taken, but the most in the Ribble and the Lune. The young is first styled a salmon-smelt, the second year a sprod, the third a mort, the fourth a fork-tail, the fifth a runner and the sixth a salmon. When they first quit the sea their flesh is firm and well tasted, and at that time they have often abundance of little insects upon them, which the fishermen call the salmon-louse, and it is then that the salmon is best in season. (*C.*

Leigh.) For by cause that the salmon is the most stately fish that any man may angle to in fresh water, therefore I purpose to begin at him. The salmon is a gentle fish, but he is cumbrous for to take, for commonly he is but in deep places of great rivers; and for the more part he holdeth the midst of it, that a man may not come at him. He is in season from March until Michaelmas, in which season ye shall angle to him with these baits, when ye may get them: — First with a red worm in the beginning and ending of the season. Also with a bob that breedeth in a dunghill, and specially with a sovereign bait that breedeth on a water-dock. He biteth not at the ground, but at the float. Also ye may take him (but it is seldom seen) with a dub, at such time as when he leapeth, in like form and manner as ye do take a trout or a grayling. And these baits be well proved baits for the salmon. (*Fishing with an angle.*) The baits which he most delighteth in are those which serve for the trouts, as paste or flies in the summer, and red worms, bod worms, or cankers on the water-docks, after Michaelmas. (*Mark.*) Two centuries ago there was such a great quantity of salmon taken in the rivers of Scotland, that instead of being considered a delicate dish, it served commonly as food for servants, who it is said (by Sir W. Scott) stipulated sometimes that they should not be obliged to eat that common, tasteless aliment more than five times a week. (*Pantro-phéon.*) In the English cookery of the fourteenth century, we have "Viand Cypre of Salmon," made of "calwar salmon," &c. In a note, *Dr. Pegge* says that elsewhere calwar is spelled salwar; that in Lancashire salmon newly taken and immediately dressed is called "calver salmon;" and that in Littleton *salar* is a young salmon. (*Cury*, 1390.) For the gild-feast of the Holy Trinity, at Luton, co. Bedford, 1527-8, a fresh salmon cost 2s. 8d. The prior of Finchale derived great profit from his salmon fishery in the Wear. In 1531 he sold 51½ dozen salt salmon to the bursar of Durham at 5s. per dozen. Fresh salmon were sold at a higher rate. In forty-four days of March and April 1582, 173 salmon were cooked in the kitchen at Durham Priory. Many of them were purchased at Ovingham on the Tyne. In January a seam or load of fresh salmon cost 9s. The price of a single fish varied during the season from 14d. to 6d. The freight of eleven barrels of [Tweed] salmon from Berwick to Newcastle cost, in 1531, 4s. 7d. (*Durham Bursar's Mem.*) At the marriage feast of Roger Rockley and Elizabeth Neville in 1526, for the fish days of the wedding week, Friday and Saturday, amongst other fish were "great goils [jowls] of salmon;" and in the Lent Assize diet in Yorkshire, provided by Sir John

Nevile, of Chete, in 1528, two barrels of salmon cost £3 1s., and twenty-eight great fresh salmon £3 16s. 8d. (nearly 2s. 9d. each). At the August assizes in the same year, the salt salmon cost 20s., and the fresh and great salmon £3 6s. 8d. Presents of salmon were made to superiors, even to Henry VIII. and other royal personages. In the Accounts the entries of salmon are numerous, both fresh and salt, which are distinguished in the Index. The salt salmon were bought at Preston, and occasionally at Stourbridge fair; see note thereon.

SALT. Rock salt was discovered about A.D. 950. Saltpetre was first made in England about 1625. The fine salt mines of Staffordshire were discovered about 1670. (*Haydn.*) The Phœnicians imported salt into Britain. The Romans made salt-pits and mines here. Those at Droitwich are mentioned in 816. (*Fosb.*) That salt was much in use among the Anglo-Saxons is clear from the terms *sealtere* (salter), *sealt-mersce* (salt-marsh), *sealt-fæt* (a salt fat), and *sealt-hus* (a salt-house). Saltworks (*salinæ*) are of frequent occurrence in Domesday Book, and were spread over all the counties in the kingdom, abounding most, however, in Worcestershire, Norfolk, Essex, Kent, Sussex and Cheshire. The utility and the great revenue they yielded the crown, when salt fish, as an article of religious food, was in constant request, may be easily imagined. They were then of two sorts, those on the sea-coast consisting of ponds and pans, for procuring marine salt by evaporation, and those inland for refining brine or salt springs. The workmen were termed *salinarii*, wallers or boilers of salt; the salt being boiled in *plumbi* or leaden vats, and the tax was on the quantity manufactured, measured by *ambra* (four bushels) *mita* (10 lbs.) *summa* (horse loads) and *sextarii* (an uncertain measure). (*Herbert.*) It is certain from the Domesday Survey that salt was one of the principal articles of trade in Cheshire from a very early period, and that it produced a considerable revenue to the crown before the Norman Conquest, the king having two-thirds and the Earl of Chester one-third of the tolls, till the time of Hugh Lupus. The *Wiches*, as they are called in Domesday, were very productive in the reign of Edward the Confessor. Henry VI. invited John de Scheidam, a gentleman of Zealand, to come over to this country, with sixty others, to instruct the English in the improved method of making salt. At Nantwich — (the ancient name of which was Wych-Malbank from the family name of the baron; *Nant* is British, brook, so that Nantwich means the salt-pit by the brook) — in the reign of Henry VIII. there were, according to Leland, 300 salt works; in the early part of Elizabeth's

reign they were reduced to 216. Some belonged to the crown, some to the Earl of Derby, some to the Wilbrahams, Egertons, Mastersons, and other principal families of the town and county. In 1624 they appear to have been further reduced in number, nearly one-half, in consequence of pits of a stronger quality having been discovered in other parts of the county, where there was also superior water-carriage. On the 25th August 1617, James I., after leaving Lancashire, visited the brine pits of Nantwich, and saw the process of making salt. The inhabitants had a custom, every Ascension Day, of singing a hymn of thanksgiving for the blessing of the brine. The ancient salt pit called "the old Biat" was then bedecked and adorned with green boughs, flowers and ribbons, and the young people had music and danced round it, which custom continued till the middle of the eighteenth century. (*Partridge; Lysons.*) *King*, in his "Vale Royal," describes "the maner of making salt at Nantwich." *Ray* also, at the end of his little "Collection of English words" (p. 142) describes very clearly "the making of salt at Nampt-wych in Cheshire." It will repay perusal. He states that a barrow containing six pecks is sold there for 1s. 4d.; and out of two pans of forty-eight gallons they expect seven pecks of salt, Winchester measure. The house in which the salt is boiled is called the Wych-house, and those towns where there are salt-springs, and salt made, are called by the name of wych, viz., Namptwych, Northwych, Middlewych, Droitwych. A cake which sticks to the bottom of the pan they take out every twenty-four hours at Droitwich, and call it "clod salt." He also describes (p. 177) "the manner of making salt of sea-sand in Lancashire." The salt required for use in Lancashire was probably most usually obtained at Northwich, as the nearest brine-pits to Manchester, distant therefrom about twenty-one miles. The discovery of rock salt in 1670 greatly increased the trade of Northwich: there were 165 salt works connected with the brine-pits temp. Charles I. (*Harl. MS.* 2,010.) In his "Account of Lancashire" (1610) *Speed* says that along the seaside, in many places, may be seen heaps of sand, upon which the people pour water, until it recover a saltish humour, which they afterwards boil with turves, till it become white salt. Along the coast of Lancashire, Salthouse is a common personal name. In his "Description of England" *Harri.* merely quotes Leland's account of the salt manufacture at what he calls "the Wich," but which is now known as Droitwich, Worcestershire. He also refers to Leland for the method of making bay salt, and only incidentally names Nantwich in Cheshire, one of the three celebrated *wiches* of that county. (*Harri.*) The

fraternity of salters is of considerable antiquity. They had a grant of a livery by Richard II. in 1394. They were not incorporated, however, till 1st Elizabeth 1558. But the trade of a salter [i.e. of fish for food] is mentioned temp. Edward I., and the wages of the salter's man for salting fish all Lent to make into bread, and sending it every other day to the court. Amongst various sorts named are *salmon salis*, 8d. each, *durus piscus* or stockfish, salt sturgeon, salt eels (sometimes salted alive), &c. Salt was then from 2s. 6d. to 2s. 8d. and 3s. 2d. per quarter. As a chartered company, and one of the twelve, the salters are not named before their letters patent 37th Edward III. 1363. (*Herbert.*) The entries in the Accounts are very numerous, and give much information as to the mode of obtaining salt from the wych, its carriage in horse and cart loads thence to Lancashire, the price and the toll thereon, the different kinds, *cote* or *coate* salt being named, that is salt made by evaporation over a *coate* or furnace. For all these see the Index.

Sanderling (*Charadrius calidris* of Linnæus; *Maubeche* of Buffon), called also the Towillet or Curwillet. This bird weighs almost two ounces, is about eight inches long, and fifteen in breadth from tip to tip; it is of slender form, and its plumage has a hoary appearance among the stints, with which it associates on the sea-shore in various parts of Great Britain. It wants the hinder toe, and has in other respects the look of the plover and dottrel, to which family it belongs. (*Bewick.*) *Latham* says that this bird, like the purre and some others, varies considerably, either from age or the season; for those he received in August had the upper parts dark ash-coloured, and the feathers deeply edged with a ferruginous colour; but others, sent him in January, were of a plain dove-colour gray: they differed also in some other trifling particulars. Can this bird be the one repeatedly named in the Accounts as a *tullett?* Its name of *Towillet* makes it most probable. Its other name of Curwillet is not unlike curlew-hilp, which also occurs in the Accounts. See Index.

Sanders or Red Sanders. This is sandal wood, the wood of the *Ptero Carpus Santalinus*, a native of the East Indies. It appears to have been used in colouring jellies and other articles of confectionary a deep red. One receipt for colouring comfits recommends an infusion of red sanders to produce a red colour. It was also used for colouring creams, &c., and in 1530 cost 1s. 6d. per lb. (*Finchale.*) In a recipe for a dish of cherries in 1390, it is to be coloured with sanders. In another of 1381 blanc-manger is to be coloured with either saffron (yellow) or sanders (red). (*Cury.*) In

the Accounts, in November 1617, half a pound of red sanders cost 2s. 6d., and was bought with turnsole and saffron (also for colouring) in the usual yearly stock of spices.

Sarcenet (? *saracen* silk) a species of fine, thin, woven silk. (*Dryden.*) In March 1617, half an ell of green taffety sarcenet cost 4s. 3d.

Satin (French *satin*) a sort of silk. (*B. Dic.*) By the statute 3 and 4 Edward IV. (1463-4) the use of damask and satin was confined to esquires and yeomen of the king's household; to sergeants, esquires and gentlemen having possessions of the yearly value of 40s., and to persons of higher rank. (*Rot. Parl.*)

Saunders or Sannders, Mr. The entry in the Accounts is—June 1599, to Mr. Sannders, the late vicar of Bolton, being last of his half year's stipend, due at the feast of Martin the bishop in winter last [November 7, 1598] 25s. By a list of the vicars of Bolton (*Baines*, vol. ii. p. 66) it appears that Jaspur Saundres succeeded to the vicarage April 7, 1587, and was succeeded, on his resignation September 29, 1598, by Zacharius Saunderson, who held it till his death, December 16, 1625.

Sausage. In a recipe of 1390, one dish is made with *sawge* (*sage*) and a *sawcister* cut in gobbets. This last (French *saucisse*) was probably a sausage. (*Cury.*)

Saville, Sir John. ? of Soothill Hall, parish of Dewsbury, co. York. In June 1602, was bought of his man one ton and one pound of iron, containing five score and thirteen bars of all sorts, for windows (at 12s. 6d. the cwt.) £12 10s. It was afterwards drawn into small bars and bent at a cost of 10s.

Sawder, Solder (*solidus*, Latin); a metallic cement. In October 1602, during the re-building of Gawthorpe Hall, the plumbers were paid for three score pounds of sawder (at 6d.) 40s. [? 30s.] This was for cementing the joints in the lead gutters. December, 40 lb. of "sawder" for the [lead] spouts, 10s.; July 1612, 107 lb. "sawder" (at 9d.) cost £4. As about the same time 200 stone nails were bought "for the leads," this great weight of solder was doubtless for the joints of the sheet lead covering the roofs of the tower and other parts of Gawthorpe Hall.

Saxon English. It is remarkable how many words of pure Saxon remain in the Lancashire speech of Elizabeth's time. *Hull* was the form of hill, as Ightenhull; low and high were *lagh* and *heigh; laghmest* was lowest and *heighmest* highest. *Fey* to clean or dress; *rodynge* or *rudyng* was ridding or clearing; a dairy was a *de* or *dey*-house; a dairy-maid was

a *dey;* dung was *muck* or *worthing;* a horse's girth or belly-band was a *wantoe* (i.e. *wame-towe* or tie, q.d. belly-band). Many of the plurals retain the Saxon form, of which only a few such as oxen remain to us still. We have in the Accounts *ratten*, *peasen*, *heren* (hairs), *hosen*, &c. Earth was occasionally called *yeard.* Examples might be greatly multiplied; but as every page in the text presents some instances of the persistence of Saxon in our English tongue, it is needless to do more here than notice the fact.

SCAPPLING. Rough-dressing stones by the hammer, by breaking off the protuberances without using the chisel. It is sometimes called hammer-scappling, as "a hammer-scapled wall." (*Craven.*) In the north *scablins* mean the chippings of stone. (*Halli.*) In June 1600, a man was paid 16d. for four days "scaplinge" of stones; and in July 1601, a mason, 4½ days "scapelinge" stone at the delfs (8d. a day) 3s.

SCARECROW. See CROWBOY.

SCARGRASSE, SCARYGRASSE. It is a striking instance of the loose orthography of the time, that some sort of bird has its name spelled not only as above, but with the following variations, scargrayffe, [or perhaps, for the f and long e are not always distinguishable] scargraysse, skergrie, cargrasse, &c. It has been suggested that the word should be "scar-a-grice" (i.e. frighten a pig) which is still the name given in Cumberland to the corn-crake (*Crex pratensis*) called also the land-rail and the daker-hen. Corn-crake is literally corn-crow (*Kraka*, Swedish, *Krage* Danish, crow), the name being probably taken from its cry. This bird seldom appears in the north of England before the beginning of May. In some localities it greatly abounds; in others it is little known. In the rich meadow lands of Cheshire, the monotonous cry of this bird, like "crake-crake-crake," may be heard during May and June resounding on every side. This note (the call of the male to his mate, which ceases when incubation begins) may be imitated by drawing the finger or a stick across the teeth of a comb. The bird is about 9½ inches long, and its flesh is in high esteem as a delicacy. (See also the note on CARGRASSE.) In the Accounts, in December 1594, two snipes and five "cargrasses" cost 15d. [This could hardly be the corn-crake, which quits our shores in October.] Also nine snipes, two snipe-knaves and a "scargrayffe" (or scargraysse) 21d.; August 1595, four "scargrasses," two green plovers and two teals, 8d.; December 1596, twenty-three snipes and two "skergries," 2s.; December 1597, four skergries, 4d.; and December 1598, four cost 4d.

SCARLET. The scarlet or kermes dye was known in the east in the

earliest ages; cochineal dye in 1518. A Fleming named Kepler, established the first dyehouse for Scarlet in England at Bow in 1643. (*Beckmann.*) The dye made by cochineal and a solution of tin, was discovered in 1634 by an accident to an extract of cochineal made for filling a thermometer. In 1599, Mr. Thomas Edwards, one of the bailiffs of Shrewsbury, refused, from Puritanism, to wear scarlet robes. About the same time scarlet was supposed to have medicinal properties, especially in the cure of the small-pox, by wrapping a patient in it. (*Fosb.*) Ben Jonson, speaking of a lady's prescription, adds, "These, applied with a tight scarlet cloth." Dr. John Gaddesden cured a patient of small-pox by wrapping him in a scarlet cloth; and left a sort of prescription, "Let scarlet be taken, and let the patient be entirely wrapped therein, as I have done, and it is a good cure." At this day, in many parts of Lancashire, scarlet or red flannel is esteemed a cure for rheumatism, while others (says *Nares*) deem blue flannel, nine times dyed, a specific for that disorder.

SCARVES. Originally a silken sash or broad piece, tied loosely on or hung on any part of the dress of a knight, as a token of a lady's favour. It was doubtless at the same time a loosely worn portion of a lady's dress taken off to present to the favoured suitor. Shakspere has used the word scarf as a verb, meaning to wear loosely; in *Hamlet* "My sea gown scarfed me about in the dark," and in *Macbeth* —

> ———————— Come seeling night,
> Scarf up the tender eye of pitiful day.

A satirical writer, abusing ladies' attire, writes — Then they must have their silk scarves cast about their faces, and fluttering in the wind, with great tassels at every end, either of gold, silver, or silk. They will say they wear these scarves to keep them from sun-burning. (*Stubbes.*)

SCHOLAR. Before the dissolution of the religious houses by Henry VIII. it was customary for the wealthier monasteries at least to maintain one or more "poor scholar" at the university. The scholars so maintained would be in poor plight indeed when their supplies were thus cut off; and in many cases they must have had to depend for the means of subsistence upon the benevolence of the wealthy, lovers and promoters of learning. Whether those named in the Accounts were such scholars does not appear; but they probably went from place to place soliciting pecuniary aid. In 1583, was given by my mistress to a poor scholar of Oxforthe 2s.; December 1595, given to a poor scholar, 6d.; January 1617, given to a poor scholar, by my master's appointment, 4d. See EXHIBITIONS.

SCHOLE OR SCOLE BANK. This is a farm, still in the possession of the Shuttleworths, situate on the banks of the stream which falls from Rosegrove down to Padiham. For entries see Index.

SCHOOL AND SCHOOLHOUSE. The custom in the middle ages of schools being held in the *parvis* or room over the church porch, is alluded to by Shakspere. To prevent the growth of Wickliffism it had been made penal to put children to private teachers; and the consequent excessive influx to only a few schools rendered (in 1447) grammar learning so low that several clergymen of London petitioned parliament for leave to set up schools in their respective churches, in order to check seminaries conducted by illiterate men. Thus commenced grammar schools properly so called. (*Fosb.*) From the fifteenth century the men of the Reformation derived the habit of founding colleges and schools to a great extent. A great number of grammar schools were also endowed in the sixteenth century, among which were St. Paul's, by Dean Colet, in 1509; Christ's Hospital, by Edward VI. in 1553; and Merchant Tailors' School, in London; Cardinal Wolsey's at Ipswich (afterwards suppressed) and Westminster, founded by Elizabeth in 1560. The High School of Edinburgh was established in 1577. Classical learning, and especially the study of Greek (first publicly taught in this country by William Lilly, master of St. Paul's school, in 1512,) was much promoted by these new schools and colleges. But the schools, &c., existing before the Reformation were but ill replaced by the comparatively scanty supply of grammar schools afterwards founded, and great ignorance prevailed amongst the people, especially in the rural districts. The children of the higher ranks were educated for the most part at home, and seem to have been carefully instructed in English, French, Italian, Latin, Greek, writing, arithmetic, history and music, besides manly exercises. The first critical writer of English was Roger Ascham, tutor to Queen Elizabeth, who published his "Toxophilus" (1545) as a model of a pure English prose style. His general direction to the gentlemen and yeomen of England was "To speak as the common people do; to think as wise men do." Thomas Wilson, in his "Art of Rhetorick" (1553) complains of the number of foreign terms and phrases with which some were in the habit of "powdering their talk;" whilst others were wont "so to Latin their tongues," that simple persons must think they spake by a revelation from heaven. Puttenham (whose "Art of Poesie" appeared in 1582) after similar lamentations, lays down as the correct rule for speech or writing, "the usual speech of the court, and that of London, and the shires

lying above London within sixty miles, and not much above." The pedantic affectation in speech and writing termed Euphuism, derived its name from the Euphues of John Lyly (about 1578) and for a time was the fashion of the court; the celebrated "Arcadia" of Sir Philip Sydney (1593) retains many of the peculiarities of this style. In the reign of James I. education amongst the better classes was confined a good deal to Latin and Greek, and the discipline of teachers, both public and private, was still extremely harsh and severe, it being the highest recommendation to be "a learned and a lashing master." (*Eccleston.*) Eton was founded by Henry VI. in 1441; Harrow, by John Lyons (who died 1592). Charity schools were instituted in London, to prevent the seduction of the infant poor into Roman Catholic seminaries 3rd James II. 1687. (*Rapin.*) The Manchester Free Grammar School was founded by Hugh Oldham, Bishop of Exeter, in 1519; the Blue Coat School by Humphrey Chetham's will, and by royal charter of incorporation in 1665. In the Accounts, in July 1591, not only is Scholbanke named (i.e. the School bank) but also "the schoulhousse hagge," or inclosure, showing that at that early period a school existed in the neighbourhood. In December 1596, incidental evidence is given of the school at Burnley being a classical or grammar school, by the entry "to James Yate, for a Latin Grammar, and for glazing three windows in the skole" 15d. In November 1596, a shoemaker of Burnley is paid 3s. 10d. for three pair of shoes for the children there, and paper and a scrip to carry the children's books in to the skole, cost 10d. In March 1597, a Terence was bought for 10d. for Richard, one of the boys (afterwards Colonel Richard Shuttleworth). In May 1598, were bought "Two St. ——— Epistles which now they use 5d. and Ovid's Metamorphoses 9d.;" and December 1598, John Wodroffe was paid £8 12s. 6d. for the last year's board of the children.

SCRITTES. In June 1612, is an entry of nine lapwings, twelve scrittes, one gray plover and a snipe, costing 2s. The scritte or shrite (*Turdus viscivorus major* of *Ray*) is the missel thrush, the largest of our British thrushes, and these significant names were doubtless applied to this pugnacious bird because of the harsh scream it emits in combat. It greedily devours cherries, raspberries and other garden fruit; in winter it feeds much on the berries of the mistletoe, whence its name of missel thrush.

SCRIVENERS. Chaucer intimates that these were mere amanuenses. Almost all the business of the country, in making leases, writings and assignments, and procuring money on securities, was transacted by them, whence

the term money-scrivener. The furniture of the shop was a sort of pew for the master, desks for the apprentices, and a bench for the clients to sit upon till their turn came round to be dispatched. (*Hawkins.*) In the Accounts, in March 1585, was given to Jordan the scriffener 12d. For other entries of payments for writing, copying bonds, agreements, &c., see Index under the word Scrivener.

SCURVYGRASS or SPOONWORT. The round-leaved (*cochlearia rotundifolia*) hath been found of late growing many hundred miles from the sea side, upon a great hill in Lancashire, called Ingleborough hill; which may seem strange unto those that do not know that it will be content with any soil, place or clime whatsoever. The juice, given to drink in ale or beer, is a singular medicine against corrupt and rotten ulcers and stench of the mouth: it perfectly cureth the disease called in the English the scurvy. The herb stamped and laid upon spots and blemishes of the face will take them away within six hours, but the place must be washed after with water, wherein bran hath been sodden. (*Ger.*) A few of the tender leaves may be admitted into our sallet. (*Evel. Acet.*)

SCUTTLE. A shallow basket, or wicker bowl, much in use in the barn and in husbandry. *Cotgrave* defines it to be a *dosser* [dorser] or basket to carry on the back. *Tusser* has "a skuttle or skreen, to rid soil from the corn;" which *Mavor* says is only a larger kind of *skep*. A dust-basket. (*B. Dic.*) For the entries see Index.

SCYTHES. (Anglo-Saxon *Sithe.*) In his enumeration of harvest tools *Tusser* has the following lines:—

> A brush-scythe and grass-scythe, with rifle to stand;
> A cradle for barley, with rubstone and sand;
> Sharp sickle and weeding hook, hay-fork and rake;
> A meak for the pease, and to swinge up the brake.

A brush-scythe seems to have been an old scythe with a peculiar kind of sned to cut up weeds. A rifle or rufle is a bent stick, standing on the butt of a scythe-sned or handle, by which the corn is struck into rows. A cradle is a three-forked instrument of wood, on which the corn is caught as it falls from the scythe, and thus is laid in regular order. It is heavy to work with, but extremely useful in cutting barley or oats, which are intended to be put into sheaves. A meak or meath is a hook at the end of a handle about five feet long, to hackle up pease. (*Mavor.*) See Index.

SEAFOWL. These would doubtless include the shore birds, the curlew, sea-pie or oyster-catcher, sandpipers, sanderlings, stints, purres or sea-larks,

the divers, coot, soland geese, cormorants, shag, some of the gulls or sea-mews, gannets, sea-crow or pewit, teal, shoveller, &c. For entries see Index.

Seals. The Anglo-Saxon kings had seals, and charters of Offa and Ethelwulf are preserved, sealed with their seals, representing their portraits. One of Edgar's is a bust in profile. After the conquest seals became common. After William I. all the kings are on one side, on horseback, the face to the right; except that of Charles I., which is to the left. Every freeholder was obliged to have a seal, and gentlemen sent fac-similes in lead to the clerks of court. There were many kinds of privy or counter seals, called *contrasigillum*, *sigillum minus*, and more commonly *secretum*. The great seal was worn by the Chancellor on his left side. Punning rebuses on the owners' names, merchants' marks and arbitrary devices were common on seals in the middle ages. Before watches were worn, seals were attached to the arms and wrists, like bracelets. (*Fosb.*) In December 1617, cutting two seals — that is engraving either arms, device or initials thereon — cost 4s. 6d. Seal-money was a perquisite of the judges of assize, and in 1597, Sir Richard Shuttleworth, Judge of Chester, received for the fine-money and seal-money of Montgomery, Denbigh and Flint (all counties within his circuit) the aggregate amount of £83 10s.

Sealing Wax. The kings of Great Britain generally used white wax down to Charles I. William Rufus used red; the Black Prince green, which, however, was chiefly confined to compositions and charters. The sealing-wax from gum-lac was in common use in Germany in 1554. The oldest seal with red wafers is dated 1624. Generally speaking the oldest private grants, charters and deeds are sealed with white wax; those later with dark green wax; and later still with a dingy brick red wax, which continues to comparatively modern times. In the Accounts, in January 1585, wax and paper cost 2d.; February 1585, half a ream of paper and half a pound of wax 2s.

Seam (*Seam* Anglo-Saxon, *Summa* Latin), a sum of 100 lb. weight; also a horse-load of wood; a measure of eight bushels of corn; 120 lb. of glass. (*B. Dic.*, &c.)

Seeds. Our English housewife may at all times of the month and moon of *January*, generally, sow asparagus, coleworts, spinage, lettuce, parseneps, radish and chives. In *February*, in the new of the moon, she may sow spike, garlic, borage, bugloss, chervile, coriander, gourds, cresses, marjoram, Palma Christi, flower-gentle, white poppy, purslane, radish, rocket, rose-

mary, sorrel, double marigolds and thyme. The moon full, she may sow aniseed, musked violets, beets, skerrits, white succory, fennel and parsley. The moon old, sow holy thistle, cole cabbage, white cole, green cole, cucumbers, hartshorn, dyers' grain, cabbage, lettuce, melons, onions, parsneps, lark's-heel, burnet and leeks. In *March*, the moon new, sow garlic, borage, bugloss, chervile, coriander, gourds, marjoram, white poppy, purslane, radish, borel, double marigolds, thyme, violets. At the full moon, aniseed, beets, skirrets, succory, fennel, apples of love, marvellous apples. At the wane, artichokes, basil, blessed thistle, cole cabbage, white and green cole, citrons, cucumbers, hartshorn, samphire, spinage, gillyflowers, hyssop, cabbage, lettuce, melons, mugrets, onions, flower-gentil, burnet, leeks and savoury. In *April*, the moon being new, sow marjoram, flower-gentle, thyme, violets. In the full moon, apples of love and marvellous apples; and in the wane, artichokes, holy thistle, cabbage, cole, citrons, hartshorn, samphire, gillyflowers and parsneps. In *May*, the moon old, sow blessed thistle. In *June*, the moon new, sow gourds and radishes. The moon old, sow cucumbers, melons, parsneps. In *July*, the moon full, sow white succory; the moon old, sow cabbage, lettuce. Lastly, in *August*, the moon full, sow white succory. (*Mark.*) There are various entries of the purchase of seeds in the Accounts, for which see Index; but the most complete list or "note of garden seeds yearly bought" will be found pp. 213, 214. Most of the less known are explained in notes on their names. What is called in the list cadmus benedictus, should be carduus benedictus, the blessed or holy thistle.

Seler, Seloure or Celure. The head or canopy of a bed. (*Eliz. York.*)

Sempstress or Seamstress (Anglo-Saxon *Seamstre*, seamster, masculine), a man or woman that sows or makes up linen garments; derived from *seam* Anglo-Saxon a row of stitches with a needle. (*B. Dic.*) In the Accounts, in June 1600, a woman was paid for making two shirts to the lad 2d.; June 1601, making Tom (the) cow-boy two shirts 2d.; October 1604, making my master two shirts 4d.; July 1605, ditto and thread 6d.; May 1610, making two shirts 5d.

Serjeant-at-Law (*Serviens ad legum*), formerly called serjeant-counter or of the coif, is the highest degree in the common law, as doctor is in the civil law. To these serjeants, as men best learned and experienced in the law and practice of the courts, one court is severed to plead in by themselves — the court of common pleas. Yet they are not restrained from pleading in any other court, where the judges (who cannot be such till they

have taken the degree of serjeant) call them "brothers," and hear them with great respect. One or more are styled the king's serjeants, being commonly chosen out of the rest in respect of their great learning, to plead for the king in all his causes, especially in indictments for treason, &c. Serjeants-at-law are made by the king's writ, directed unto such as are called, commanding them to take upon them that degree by a certain day. The serjeants chosen hold a sumptuous feast, like that at a coronation, which formerly continued several days; they also make presents of gold rings to a considerable value, &c. (*Jacob.*) Upon a creation of serjeants, 2nd and 3rd Philip and Mary (October 16, 1555), Mr. Albany, a draper in Watling-street, was appointed to furnish them with cloth, viz.: Every serjeant, for his robe of scarlet, 5½ yards at 33s. 4d. a yard; of violet in grain, for a like robe, 5½ yards at 16s.; of brown blue, for a like robe, 5½ yards at 14s.; and of mustard and murrey (i.e. yellow and mulberry colour), for a like robe, 5½ yards at 10s. (*Dug. Orig. Jur.*) The coif was originally an iron scull-cap worn by knights under their helmets. *Blackstone* says it was introduced before 1253, to hide the tonsure of such renegade clerks as chose to remain as advocates in the secular courts, notwithstanding their prohibition by canon. *Stowe* records that on the 19th November 1577 (20th Elizabeth), the new serjeants-at-law, seven in number, held their feast in the temple. October 22, 1580, were made eight serjeants-at-law, to wit, William Fleetwood [of Lancashire] Recorder of London, Edward Flowerdew, Thomas Snagge, William Periam, Robert Hatton, John Clench, John Puckering [afterwards Sir John Puckering, Lord Keeper], Thomas Walmsley [of Lancashire, afterwards a Judge], and held their feast in the new temple. On the 21st October 1589, another serjeants' feast was held in the temple [names not given], and Richard Martin, Lord Mayor, with his brethren the aldermen, being invited guests, rode to the temple gate, where the Lord Mayor was, by certain young gentlemen, denied to enter with his sword before him; whereupon he with his brethren returned home. May 2, 1594, the new serjeants of the law, in number ten, held their dinner in the temple. (*Stowe.*) The postscript of a letter addressed by the Lord Keeper Sir Thomas Egerton to Mr. Lake, on the accession of James I., is not very complimentary to the serjeants then existing: "I think it not amiss to put you in remembrance that the late queen, considering that most of the judges are aged, and the serjeants-at-law now serving at the bar not so sufficient to supply judicial places as were to be wished (*ne quid dicam durius*) made choice of certain persons of

great learning and sufficiently fit to be called to that degree, and awardeth writs unto them for that purpose, returnable the second return of next term, which writs are now by her decease abated, and the gentlemen already been at very great charge to prepare themselves as they were commanded." (*Egerton Papers.*) Sir Richard Shuttleworth was made serjeant-at-law 4th July 1584. See Appendix I. p. 282; also note on Sir Richard Shuttleworth for a curious letter from Sir Thomas Walmesley, intimating that Sir Richard was a favourite of the Earl of Leicester, and had been made serjeant as preparatory to being created an Irish judge, but, through his great influence, he had evaded expense and the acceptance of that office.

Servants. *Jacob* divides them into servants of trade or profession, husbandry, &c., and family, house, or domestic servants, — sometimes termed menials. By the statute 5th Elizabeth cap. 4 (1562-3) every one under thirty years, not having lands worth 40s. yearly, and not worth £10 in goods, and brought up to any handicraft, and not retained by any one in husbandry, handicraft, or hired as servant with any nobleman or gentleman, or having any holding whereon he may employ his labour, shall, upon request by any one using the trade wherein he hath been exercised, be obliged to serve him as a servant on pain of imprisonment. By the same statute persons were compelled to servitude in husbandry by the year, the justices having power to assess their wages. (See Appendix II.) The justices might appoint any poor unmarried woman, between the ages of twelve and forty, to go to service by the year, for such wages and in such manner as they should think fit. If she refuse to go to service, they might commit her till she is bound to service. A master giving or a servant taking more than the statute wages, was punishable, or if the latter refused to work for such wages. Neither master nor servant could be free before the end of the term, unless by sanction of one justice, nor after the term without a quarter's warning before witnesses; a master discharging a servant otherwise was liable to a penalty of 40s. Servants in trade or husbandry quitting service and going to another part of the country, must have testimonials by the constable and two housoholders; a servant not producing such a testimonial to the constable where he goes to dwell, to be imprisoned till he gets one, or in default whipped; and a master retaining a servant without such testimonial shall forfeit £5. As to the higher servants and officers of the household of peers and great men, even the sons of noblemen were placed in such offices. (See the "Life of Wolsey.") The "Stanley Papers," part ii. (vol. xxxi. of the Chetham Society) gives lists and inter-

esting details as to the household servants and retainers (about 140) of the Earl of Derby between the years 1561 and 1590. His chamberlains were men of birth. In most houses of gentry there were four servants of a superior class, to whom guests on leaving presented vails. These were the house-steward or the chamberlain, butler and cook; in some cases the marshal or head-groom and the footman or domestic attending at table. A curious tract, entitled "A health to the gentlemanly profession of Serving-men, or the Serving-man's Comfort" (4to London, 1598) shows that sometimes a neighbour of some wealthy person would place his son there as a serving man, to keep him from being sent abroad as a soldier. In the Accounts, in 1582, a meal for eleven serving-men cost 3s. 8d.; and this was called their "tabling." In 1605, at Gawthorpe, there appear to have been ten male servants, including the steward, a bailiff, farming men, labourers, and a carter, whose aggregate wages for a quarter were £3 18s. 4d., or £15 13s. 4d. per annum. There were four female servants, including a housekeeper (in a bachelor's household) the aggregate of whose quarter's wages was only 17s. 6d. In all fourteen servants, receiving £4 15s. 10d. per quarter, or £19 3s. 4d. yearly. In January 1617, the male servants were distinguished into "work servants" and "serving men." The steward and the butler appear to be classed with the latter. See Index.

Shag. (Anglo-Saxon *Sceaga.*) A sort of hairy stuff. (*B. Dic.*) In October 1621, 6½ yards of Parr: (? Paris) murrey shag at 5s. cost 32s. 6d.

Shakspere. Though our great poet and dramatist is nowhere named in these Accounts, it is not claiming too much for them to say that, commencing when our bard was eighteen years of age, and extending five years after his death, their orthography, words, phrases, and idioms (many of them since become obsolete); their names for all kinds of creatures and things, animate and inanimate; the light they throw upon the habits, manners and customs of the time; its husbandry and gardening; its domestic economy, food, dress, exercises and amusements; its weapons and implements, furniture and household utensils; its internal trade aud foreign traffic; its domestic and other manufactures and handicrafts; — all these, put together, make up a picture of the domestic and social life of England in the time of Shakspere, such as is not elsewhere to be found to the same extent, and with the same minuteness of details. Shakspere was born in April 1564: he died in April 1616. See note on Players.

Sharples. A township in the parish of Bolton, three miles north of that town. For numerous entries in the Accounts relative to Sharples, see the Index.

Shearing and Shearers. (Anglo-Saxon *scearan*, *scyran*, *sciran*, to shear, to divide, whence share and shire). To cut or clip asunder; hence the plough-share, and shears. It has two distinct uses in husbandry, — to shear corn is to reap it; to shear sheep is to cut or clip off the fleece. A shearman is one who shears cloth, or cuts the long pile from the surface by knife or shears. A shearling is a sheep that has been once sheared. The Accounts have examples of both shearing corn and shearing sheep. As to corn, *Fitz.* gives instructions how to shear wheat, to mow or shear barley and oats, &c. In the Accounts, in September 1586, making two shearing-hooks cost 10d.; in September 1594, ditto 10d.; and the same month eleven shearers or reapers a day (3d. each) were paid 2s. 9d. October 1600, several women were paid 3d. each for a day's shearing. As to shearing corn, the entries extend throughout the volume. In 1582, one man "must also shear one close of corn at his own proper charges;" in September 1621, two sickles cost 14d., and a woman is paid 6d. for two days' shearing. For the other entries of shearing corn see notes on Harvest, Reaping, and Index. As to the removing the fleece from sheep, it is as often called clipping as shearing. See Index. Shears are bought. In May 1609, a pair cost 4d. In 1597, eight shearlings, killed before October, cost 9s. 4d.

Sheep. (Anglo-Saxon *sceap.*) *Fitz.* enters largely into sheep-farming, "sheep in mine opinion being the most profitablest cattle a man can have," and gives directions how to set out the sheep-fold in May; to make a ewe love her lamb; to draw and sever sheep, to belt sheep [shear their buttocks and tails], to grease sheep, medle [mix] tar, make broom salve, treat them for all kinds of diseases, to wash and shear them, &c. In June is time to shear sheep, and ere they be shorn they must be very well washen, the which shall be to the owner great profit in the sale of his wool, and also to the cloth-maker. Beware that thou put not too many sheep in a pen at one time, neither at the washing nor shearing, for fear of murdering or over-pressing of their fellows; and that none go away till he be clean washen; and see that they that hold the sheep by the head in the water, hold his head high enough, for drowning. Take heed of the shearers, for touching the sheep with the shears, and specially for pricking with the point of the shears, and that the shepherd be alway ready with his tar-box to salve them. See that they be well marked, both ear-mark, pitch-mark, and raddle-mark; and let the wool be well folden or wounden with a wool-winder, that can good skill thereof, the which shall do much good in the

sale of the same. (*Fitz.*) If you desire to have a sheep of a curious fine staple of wool, from whence you may draw a thread as fine as silk, you shall see such in Herefordshire, about Lempster side, and other special parts of that county; in that part of Worcestershire joining upon Shropshire, and many such like places: yet those sheep are very little of bone, black-faced, and bear a very little burden. The sheep upon Cotshall [Cotswold] hills are of better bone, shape and burden, but their staple is coarser and deeper. The sheep in that part of Worcestershire which joineth on Warwickshire, many parts of Warwickshire, all Leicestershire, Bucks, and part of Northamptonshire, and that part of Notts which is exempt from the forest of Sherwood, beareth a large-boned sheep of the best shape and deepest staple, chiefly if they be pasture sheep; yet is their wool coarser than that of Cotsal. Lincolnshire, especially in the salt marshes, have the largest sheep, but not the best wool; for their legs and bellies are long and naked, and their staple is longer and coarser than any other. The sheep in Yorkshire and so northward are of a reasonable big bone, but of a staple rough and hairy; and the Welsh sheep are of all the worst, for they are both little and of worse staple, and indeed are praised only for the dish, for they are the sweetest mutton. In the choice of sheep, choose the biggest-boned, with the best wool; the staple being soft, greasy, well curled, and close together: these besides the bearing of the best burthen, are always the best butchers' ware, and go soonest away in the market. Ever wash three days before you shear: the best time of shearing is from June to August. Feed sheep as much as you can upon high grounds, which are dry and fretful, the grass sweet, yet so short that it must be got with much labour. The grass most wholesome for sheep is that which hath growing in it good store of mellilot, clover, self-heal, cinque-foil, broom, pimpernel, and white henbane. Grass unwholesome for sheep is that which hath growing amongst it spare-wort, penny-wort or penny-grass, and any weedings springing from inundation or overflows of water. Knot-grass is not good, or mildewed grass. Little white snails, which a sheep will lick up, will soon rot him. It is not good to shear sheep before Midsummer, for the more he sweateth in his wool, the better and more kindly it is. To know the age of your sheep, look in his mouth; and when he is one shear, he will have two broad teeth afore; when two-shear, he will have four broad teeth afore; when three, he will have six; when four-shears, he will have eight; and after those years his mouth will begin to break. (*Mark.*, who gives remedies for the diseases of sheep.) An Elizabethan writer says — Our sheep are very excellent, sith

for sweetness of flesh they pass all other. And so much are our wools to be preferred before those of Milesia and other places, that if Jason had known the value of them that are bred, and to be had, in Britain, he would never have gone to Colchis to look for any there. . . . . . In time past the use of this commodity consisted for the most part in cloth and woolsteds [worsteds]; but now, by means of strangers succoured here for domestical persecution, the same hath been employed unto sundry other uses, as mockadoes, baies [baize], vellures, grograines, &c., whereby the makers have reaped no small commodity. . . . . . . Certes this kind of cattle is more cherished in England than standeth well with the commodity of the commons [because of their enclosure for sheep pastures], or prosperity of divers towns, whereof some are wholly converted to their feeding; yet such a profitable sweetness is their fleece, such nicety is their flesh, and so great a benefit in the manuring of barren soil with their dung, that their superfluous numbers are the better borne withal. And there is never an husbandman (for I speak not now of our great sheepmasters, of whom some one man hath 20,000) but hath more or less of this cattle feeding on his fallows and short grounds, which yield the finer fleece. (*Harri.*) For the numerous entries in these Accounts relating to sheep, their washing, clipping or shearing, marking, salving, &c., see Index.

SHEPHERDS. (Anglo-Saxon *Hyrd*, a keeper) one of the compound forms in which the word herd is still retained in our language. Sheep becomes *shep*, for the sake of euphony. We have or had, neat-herd, cow-herd, shep-herd, goat-herd, swine-herd, and even goose-herd. It is necessary that a shepherd have a board, set fast to the side of his little fold, to lay his sheep upon when he handleth them, and a hole bored in the board with an auger, and therein a grained [forked] staff of two feet long to be set fast, to hang his tar-box upon, and then it shall not fall. A shepherd should not go without his dog, his sheep-hook, a pair of shears, and his tar-box, either with him or ready at his sheep fold; and he must teach his dog to bark, to run, and to leave running, when he would have him; or else he is not a cunning shepherd. The dog must learn it when he is a whelp, or else it will not be; for it is hard to make an old dog to stoup [to bend or obey as a hawk does]. If any sheep be scabbed, the shepherd may perceive it by the biting, rubbing or scratching with his horn, and most commonly the wool will rise, and be thin or bare on that place. Shed the wool with thy finger there as the scurf is, and with thy finger lay a little tar thereupon, and stroke it a length [along] in the bottom of the wool, that it be not seen

above. And so shed the wool by-and-by and lay a little tar thereupon till thou pass the sore, and then it will go no farther. As "a medicine to salve poor men's sheep, that think tar too costly," take a sheet-full of broom-crops, leaves, blossoms and all, chop them very small, and seethe them in a pan of twenty gallons with running water, till it begin to wax thick like a jelly; then take 2 lb. of sheep suet, molten, and a pottle of old urine, and as much brine made with salt, and put it all into the pan, and stir it about. Then strain it through an old cloth, and put it in a vessel. If your sheep be new clipped, make it lukewarm, and wash your sheep therewith, with a sponge or a piece of an old mantle, or a folding, or such a soft cloth or wool, for spending too much of your salve. It shall heal the scab and kill the sheep lice, and not hurt the wool in the sale thereof. Those that be washen will not take scab after, if they have sufficient meat; for that is the best grease that is to a sheep, to grease him in the mouth with good meat. (*Fitz.*) *Mark.* has also "A few precepts for the shepherd," the substance of which has been already given. In the Accounts are various entries as to shepherds and their wages, for which see Index. In 1583, a sheep-crook cost 12d. It is called a hook in the earlier writers, and was a hook at the end of a staff, by which shepherds laid hold of any sheep by the leg when wanted.

Sherburne. The Accounts have entries relating to various persons of this name, including Sir Richard Sherburne, Mr. Sherburne of Stonyhurst, Mr. Thomas Sherburne of Little Mytton, Mrs. Sherburne, and Edward Sherburne, who was steward to the Shuttleworths. Sir Richard Sherburne Knt. was the son of Thomas Sherburne and his wife Jane, daughter of Sir John Townley. This Thomas died September 22, 28th Henry VIII. (1536), leaving three sons. Sir Richard was the eldest, and was of full age 35th Henry VIII. (1543). He married, 30th of that reign (1538) Matilda, daughter of Sir Richard Bold of Bold. Sir Richard Sherburne died 26th July 1594; leaving his sons Thomas (died a minor) and Richard his heir, captain of the Isle of Man, and founder or finisher of the present house of Stonyhurst. Sir Richard's brother Robert was a student at Gray's Inn and afterwards a lawyer of Little Mytton: he died 14th Elizabeth (1572); the inventory of his effects amounting to £963. He married Dorothy, fourth daughter of Thomas Catteral; her father granting to them the manor of Little Mytton. By this marriage Robert had Thomas Sherburne, who married Margaret, daughter of Francis Tunstal Esq. of Aucliffe, and had five sons and two daughters. (*Whalley.*) Mr. Thomas Sherburne of Little

Mytton was therefore nephew of Sir Richard of Stonyhurst. Both are named in the Accounts; see Index. In June 1606, 12s. 6d. was given to Mr. Sherburne of the Stonyhurst for a load of salt borrowed of him in winter. In September 1593, "Mr. Sherburne's man" brought a fat stag to Smithills, and had 6s. 8d. for his fee. Edward Shirburn, the steward of Mr. Lawrence Shuttleworth, received in December 1601, 33s. 4d. as his half year's wages; and in June 1603, 16s. 8d. for a quarter's wages; so that he had just five marks a year, or £3 6s. 8d.

Sheriff (Anglo-Saxon *scire-gerefa*, shire-reeve, *vice-comes*), the chief officer under the king [or earl or lord-lieutenant] in every shire or city; being so called from the first division of the kingdom into counties. (*Camden.*) Anciently the sheriff held a court in various parts of his county, called a tourn or turn; his office was called a shrievalty; the area of his jurisdiction a sheriffwick or sheriffdom; he paid a rent called sheriff-gald, and a common tax levied for his diet was called sheriff-tooth. (*Jacob.*) In the Accounts are various entries as to the Sheriff of Lancashire, who is usually styled "Mr. Sheriff," without his name. They chiefly relate to the issuing of writs, "mandations," &c.; but in August 1598, is a payment of 2s. 4d. for the diet of the sheriff when he executed a writ of liberate. For other entries see Index.

Shirts. The most ancient name was *Camisia* (whence the French *chemise*), which Isidore defines as a tunic of linen, worn over the skin and in bed at night, &c. In the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries the doublets were nearly disjointed at the elbows, to display the shirt. *Planché* says that shirts bordered with lace, and curiously adorned with needlework, were long worn by the nobility. In the sixteenth century they were embroidered with silk and gold and silver thread, cut-work borders or gold edgings, and were plaited. In the seventeenth century, the doublets were greatly shortened, that a large portion of the shirt might appear between them and the ligatures of the breeches. The ruffle, temp. Henry VIII., was an appendage to the sleeves of the doublet, and called handruff: in the seventeenth century it was added to the shirt. Night-shirts occur temp. Henry VIII. Among the presents to Queen Elizabeth was "a smock of fine Holland, and the bodies and sleeves wrought all over with black silk." (*Fosb.*) A satirist thus writes of the fashions of the period in these articles of attire: — Their shirts, which all in a manner do wear, are either of cambric, holland, lawn, or else of the finest cloth that may be got. And of these kinds of shirts every one doth now wear alike; so, as it may be

thought, our forefathers have made their bands and ruffs (if they had any at all) of grosser cloth and baser stuff than the worst of our shirts are made of now-a-days. And these shirts are wrought throughout with needlework of silk, and such like, and curiously stitched with open seam, and many other knacks besides, more than I can describe; insomuch that I have had of shirts that have cost, some 10s., some 20s., some 40s., some £5, some twenty nobles [£6 13s. 4d.] and (which is horrible to hear) some £10 a piece. Yea, the meanest shirt that commonly is worn of any, doth cost a crown or a noble [6s. 8d.] at the least; and yet this is scarcely thought fine enough for the simplest person that is. (*Stubbes.*) The shirt of Charles I. (in the Art Treasures Exhibition at Manchester in 1857) is of what would now be deemed very coarse linen. In the Accounts, in July 1611, 7½ yards canvas cloth (at 9½d.) for shirts to John Leigh cost 5s. 11d. September, 5½ yards cloth (at 11d.) for two shirts to Abel; August 1612, two shirts to the boy of the kitchen 3s. 6d.; April 1613, five yards of cloth (at 11d.) for two shirts to Hargreaves 4s. 8d.

SHOES AND SHOEMAKER. Under Mary's reign the extravagance of the square-toed shoes led to their being prohibited by solemn proclamation. In that of Elizabeth the shoes were richly ornamented in different colours. Pantoufles, or slippers, were also worn, which went "flap, flap, up and down in the dirt, casting up mire to the knees of the wearer." Ladies' slippers and shoes were fancifully worked in various colours. The costume of the latter part of Elizabeth's reign continued for some time after the accession of James I. (*Eccleston.*) As hosen was the plural form of hose, so shoon was that of shoe, and Shakspere speaks of "clouted shoon" (*Henry VI.*, part 2) and "sandal shoon" (*Hamlet*). "Rights and lefts" were then worn, for Shakspere describes his smith as—

> Standing on slippers, which his nimble haste
> Had falsely thrust upon contrary feet.

Sir Walter Raleigh wore buff shoes, which on great court days were so gorgeously covered with precious stones as to have exceeded the value of £6,000. In January 1503, twelve pair of single soled shoes with laten buckles cost 12d. the pair; thirty-seven pair of shoes, for as many poor women, cost 5d. the pair; twenty pair for the queen's footmen cost 6d. the pair; six pair of double soled shoes with laten buckles for the queen's own use, cost 12d. the pair. (*Eliz. of York.*) A puritanical writer of the Elizabethan period is minute in his description of the shoes and slippers then worn. He observes that to these their nether-stocks [stockings] they

have corked shoes, pinsnets [? pinsons, thin-soled shoes], and fine pantoffles [slippers or pattens] which bear them up a finger or two from the ground; whereof some be of white leather, some of black, and some of red; some of black velvet, some of white, some of red, some of green, razed, carved, cut and stitched all over with silk, and laid on with gold, silver and such like. . . . . To go abroad in them [pantoffles and slippers] as they are now used altogether, is rather a let or hindrance to a man than otherwise; for shall he not be fain to knock or spurn at every wall, stone, or post, to keep them on his feet? . , ... How should they be easy, when a man cannot go steadfastly in them, without slipping and sliding at every pace, ready to fall down? Again how should they be easy, whereas the heel hangeth an inch or two over the slipper from the ground? insomuch as I have known divers men's legs swell with the same. And handsome how should they be, when, as with their slipping and flapping up and down in the dirt, they exaggerate a mountain of mire, and gather a heap of clay and baggage together, loading the wearer with insupportable burthen? (*Stubbes.*) For the prices of shoes at various periods see Appendix II., and for the numerous entries in the Accounts as to the purchase of shoes for ladies, gentlemen, boys and girls, &c., their mending, pegging, putting wooden heels to them, and dealings with the shoemaker, see the Index.

Shoeing of Horses, Oxen, &c. Of horse-shoes the *Dic. Rus.* describes nine different sorts — the planch shoe, or pancelet, shoes with calkins, with rings, with swelling welts or borders, vice-shoes, joint-shoes, patten-shoes, shoes for flat feet, pantons or pantables, and half pantons. It was common to shoe oxen for plough or draught; some the fore feet only; others "all round," and ox-shoe nails were made for this purpose. In March 1583, 400 such nails and three plough-clouts cost 5s. In March 1587, shoeing four oxen and mending the plough-irons at Lostock cost 2s. 6d.; May 1591, shoeing the oxen at Smithills 8d.; January 1594, the smith and his man three days' work in shoeing the oxen and work horses 16d.; October 1597, a man working three and a half days when he shoed the oxen 21d.; April 1599, a man two days shoeing oxen at Smithills 12d. A horse shoe varies in price from 1½d. to 3d. See Index.

Shuttleworths, The. Appendix I. is mainly devoted to genealogical and biographical notices of the family from the earliest period of their history. Little need be added here beyond referring the reader to the names in the Index. An error in the pedigree of one branch of the family compiled by Bishop Shuttleworth, has been pointed out by that able gene-

alogist and antiquary, the historian of Cheshire. Page 274, the bishop's pedigree makes Humphrey Shuttleworth, the vicar of Preston, the youngest *son* of Nicholas Shuttleworth by Elizabeth Moore, and makes this Nicholas brother of the Richard, born 1644. The pedigree in Burke's "Commoners" (which seems to have come from the family, and to be more full than pedigrees generally in that work) makes Humphrey *great grandson* of Nicholas, and this Nicholas uncle to the Richard born in 1644. The latter is the correct descent, as shown by a pedigree of the Durham branch of the family, compiled by the Rev. James Raine jun., and with which he has favoured us, through the Rev. F. R. Raines. The Richard Shuttleworth who died January 1648 (see p. 274) left three children; Richard (whose descent is given correctly), Nicholas, and Fleetwood; a daughter, who married William Lambton gentleman, and died July 1694. Nicholas, the second son, of Durham, married in September 1671, Elizabeth, daughter and co-heiress of Thomas Moore of Berwick-on-Tweed, merchant. He died intestate in September 1684, his widow surviving till December 1694. They left five children — four sons and a daughter. 1. Richard, of Elvet, gentleman, baptised December 1672, and was buried in Durham Cathedral October 1704, o.s.p. 2. Nicholas, married, in August 1703, Lucy, daughter of the Rev. Francis Blakiston, rector of Whitburn. His elder brother Richard by will left him all his lands, fishings, &c., at Spittle, Tweedmouth, and all his lands, &c., in the counties of York, Durham, and Northumberland. He died September 1705. There were three children, — two sons (one predeceased his father and the other was posthumous) and a daughter Elizabeth, the only child at her father's death, who therefore left her his lands in Norhamshire and Islandshire, his part of the tithes of Bywell, &c., which she lost when her brother was born, — 1. Richard, born May 1704, and buried July 1705; 2. Nicholas, of New Elvet, gentleman, posthumous son, born May 1706, and married Elizabeth, one of the three daughters of Humphrey March, of Foxton, co. Durham, gentleman, and subsequently heiress of her brother John Elstob, Esq. She died December 1750, and her husband September 1770; they had five children, three sons and two daughters: — 1. Richard, born September 1731, mayor of Durham 1782, and died August 1797 s. p. 2. Nicholas, born in 1734, shot by accident on board an East Indiaman, on his passage to Bombay, in 1752. 3. Humphrey, born January 1735, M.A. Christ Church Oxon 1760. His father left him £800 and £100 a year, to be paid by his brother Richard. He was vicar of Kirkham and Preston, co. Lancaster, died in

1812, and was buried at Kirkham. (Vulgo dictus "Old Numps!") He married, in February 1774, Anne, daughter of Philip Hoghton Esq., by whom he had five children, of whom the second son, Philip Nicholas, became Bishop of Chichester. The two sisters of Richard, Nicholas, and Humphrey were Anne, who married John Smith of Burnhall, and had issue; and Elizabeth, to whom her father left £500 and an annuity of £100. She died unmarried February 1792. — In the compotus of Blackburnshire 4th Edward IV. (1464-5), which is quoted by Whitaker in his Addenda to "Whalley" (p. * 523) are the entries (among rents of divers persons for lands, &c., devised to the tenants before the compotus was taken) of

Nic. Shotilworth, pro Copthursthey	6s. 6½d.
Tenants of Padyham pro Shapeden (? Sabden) Bank	2s. 0d.

In another class —

Joh. Pilkinton pro parco de Ightenhull	£20	6	8
Barnard Shotilworth, pro Wheteley Carr	5	0	8
Et pro Vaccaria de Overbarrow forth, nuper ad Cs.	4	0	0
Pro Netherbarrow forth	4	11	8

Shuttleworth, Sir Richard. It would appear that Mr. Sergeant (afterwards Sir Richard) Shuttleworth was in favour with the Earl of Leicester; for Mr. Sergeant Walmesley (afterwards Sir Thomas Walmesley Knt., one of the Judges of the Common Pleas) being named for the Chief Justice of Ireland, wrote from Sergeants' Inn, on the 15th December 1585, to the Earl of Shrewsbury, praying his aid to avoid this so called preferment, which, he says, would be a punishment and a loss to him; for, being troubled with a bloody flux, he should only go to Ireland to die, and he should thereby also lose 1,000 marks [£666 13s. 4d.] a year, which he should get if he might continue his practice at the English bar; the two Chief Justices having by letter declared that his service is as requisite in England as the service of any other sergeant at the bar, for the subjects of the realm who have cases of great weight and difficulty at the common law; that he might not be so well spared as divers others, &c. Then he adroitly suggests a fit man for the Irish Chief Justice in the following passage: — "Mr. Sergeant Shuttleworth, having as much lands as I [not £40 a year] in his own right, and 500 marks a year [£333 6s. 8d.] in his wife's right, was called to be a Sergeant on purpose to serve in Ireland (wherein he saved the charges of 400 marks [£266 13s. 4d.] which we did bear when we proceeded [to the coif]); yet, by my Lord of Leicester's means,

he is to be discharged, aud by this means, I, who am the weakest, am driven to the wall." — (*Lodge's Illus. of British Hist.*)

SHUTTLEWORTH, THOMAS. In addition to what has been stated of this gentleman in Appendix I. pp. 271–2, 295–97, we may add a brief abstract of his will, found just before these notes were completed. It is dated 25th September 1593, and 35th Elizabeth. He is styled "Thomas Shuttleworth of Smithells, co. Lancaster, gentleman." First, in the manner of the time, he gives and bequeathes his soul "unto Almighty God, through whose goodness and mercy I trust to be one of them that shall be saved; and my body I bequeath to Christian burial." Then all his goods, debts, duties, moneys, and chattels (certain leases and terms of years in Ightenhill Park excepted) to be divided into three equal parts, whereof the first part he gives to Anne his wife, in the name of her reasonable part of his goods, according to the custom of this country. The second part to his sons Nicholas and Ughtred, and his daughters Anne, Elenor and Elizabeth, equally to be divided amongst them, for and in the name of their reasonable "chyldes' parts and portions of his goods, according to the custom aforesaid." The third and last part in various legacies and bequests. To Hugh Shuttleworth his father "my best cloke and velvet girdle." To Sir Richard Shuttleworth Knt., my brother, £4 in gold to make him a ring of gold. To Laurence Shuttleworth my brother, parson of Whichford, my gold ring or signet of gold. To my sister Jane Shuttleworth 40s. To my cousin Henry Shuttleworth, of Gray's Inn, 40s. yearly during the space of three years next after my decease, if he continue at "learninge" at Gray's Inn aforesaid; otherwise this legacy to be void. To Richard Leaver my father-in-law, Thomas Leaver his son, Thomasyn wife of the said Thomas, and Rauffe Leaver son of the said Richard, every of them 10s. in gold. To my cousins Thomas Grymshawe, Nycholas Grymshawe and Cuthbert Hesketh, every of them 10s. To John Woodroffe, William Kenion, and Robert Aspden, every of them 10s. To every servant that weareth my brother Sir Richard his cloth 5s., and to every other his hired work servant, as well men as women, 2s. Unto James Yate one quarter's wages and "a pair of hoose and dublett." I will that my executors shall make "pennie dowle" unto the poor, being at my funeralls. To the poor people inhabiting and dwelling in Padiham and Burnley (to be distributed and divided at the discretion of my executors,) viz. in Padiham 40s. and in Burnley 20s. The residue of this third part, if any remain, to be equally divided among my children Nicholas, Ughtred, Anne, Elenor,

and Elizabeth. But as he doubts whether the third part will suffice to pay the legacies specified, or the second part for the preferring of his said children (a reasonable jointure and dower having been already made and provided for his wife), his will is that his executors, after his decease, may bargain and sell, &c., all such interest and terms of years as he has in three messuages and tenements with the appurtenances in Ightenhill Park, now or late in the occupation of Robert Barcrofte and Laurence Spencer deceased, and in all land, &c., to the said messuages belonging. The money to be received of such sale, &c., his executors to employ towards the payment and discharge of legacies remaining undischarged with the third part of his goods, &c. The residue of his money to his five younger children, equally to be divided among them. And whereas Anne his wife is entitled to have for her dower the third part of his lands and tenements in the county of Westmorland, he gives the reversion as well of the said third part immediately after her decease, as also of the other two parts immediately after his own decease, to his executors, till they shall have received of the issues and profits thereof so much as shall suffice for the maintenance and education of Richard Shuttleworth, his son and heir apparent, as the executors shall think expedient, as also to make up the "chyldes' parts," &c., unto the said Nicholas, Ughtred, Anne, Elenor, and Elizabeth, the first and full sum of £100 apiece for and towards their preferment and advancement. [Then follows the usual clause, in case of death of any of the children, his or her legacy to be divided among the survivors.] Provided that if any of his five younger children as shall die, be ordered, ruled or governed by his brother Sir Richard, then his or their part or portion shall be employed by the executors to such of them the survivors as his brother Sir Richard shall limit or appoint. He appoints the said Sir Richard Shuttleworth Knt., John Woodroffe, Thomas Grymshawe, and Nycholas Grymshawe, servants of Sir Richard, executors of this will, as his special trust is in them; humbly praying the said Sir Richard to "stand good unckle to my said children, and for Godes cause to respect their education." The will is signed "Thomas Shuttleworthe," and sealed, signed, and proved (as an endorsement states) in the presence of William Kenion, Edward Sherburne, Robert Aspden, Christopher Smithe, and James Yeate [Yate]. All these were officers or superior servants, as stewards and bailiffs, of Sir Richard Shuttleworth.

Shuttleworth, the Manor and Hamlet. In addition to the notice of the place in connection with the name (Appendix I. p. 258) and to that of

Shuttleworth Old Hall (p. 311), we may state that in the great Lacy Inquisition of 1311, as to Tottington, near Bury, it is declared that Henry de Bury owes suit and service at the court of Bury for half the manor of Shuttleworth. This is probably the hamlet of Shuttleworth in the township of Walmersley and parish of Bury, six miles north of Bury. Near this village is Whittle Hill (originally White Hull, the white hill) the elevation of which is said to be 1614 feet above the level of the sea. In an inquisition post mortem of the 34th Henry VIII. (1542), Edmund Ashton de Chadderton is found to have held five messuages, forty acres of land, six of pasture, twenty-six of wood, twenty of meadow, and one hundred of moor and turbary in Shotilworth, of Richard Townley the elder, by a rent of 9s., and without . . . . . . brade arrow heads: worth yearly 26s. 2d.

Sickness, Bill of the. As in London there were weekly bills of mortality; so doubtless during the plague or pestilence (of which in London 68,596 persons died in two years) there would be a weekly bill of the state of the epidemic. In October 1608, the clerk of St. Martin's (London or Islington) was paid 18d. for a quarter's bill of the sickness. See note on Plague.

Silk and Silkman. As an imported article, silk was of rare use among the Anglo-Saxons, but more general after the Conquest. Changeable taffeta (or shot silk) gowns, and other kinds of it occur. By a statute of 33rd Henry VIII. (1541-2) a person whose wife wore a silk gown was bound to find a charger for government. (*Fosb.*) Silk was at first of the same value with gold, weight for weight, and was thought to grow on plants in the same manner as cotton. Silk worms were brought from India to Europe in the sixth century. Charlemagne sent Offa, king of Mercia, a present of two silken vests in 780. The manufacture spread into the south of France about 1510; and Henry IV. of France propagated mulberry trees and silk worms throughout that kingdom in 1589. In England silk mantles were worn by some noblemen's ladies at a ball at Kenilworth Castle in 1286. Silk was worn by the English clergy in 1534. It was manufactured in England in 1604, and broad silk woven from raw in 1620. This manufacture was brought to perfection by the French refugees in Spitalfields in 1688. (*Haydn.*) Great exertions were made about the beginning of the seventeenth century to fix the silk manufacture in England, and it is supposed that most of the old mulberry trees (including the famous one in Shakspere's garden) were planted in consequence of a proclamation to that effect, issued by James I. in 1608, along with which 10,000 plants

were sent to each county for sale at a very low rate, accompanied by instructions for the breeding and rearing of silk worms. This part of the plan was rendered unnecessary indeed by the importation of raw silk from India; but the manufacture itself went on. Workmen were invited from other countries, and were incorporated in 1629, and so early as 1660 the silk-throwsters alone employed above 40,000 men, women and children. A still greater impulse was given to this trade in 1685, when by the revocation of the edict of Nantes, Louis XIV. compelled many thousand French artisans to seek refuge in this country. Many of these settled in Spitalfields as silk weavers, and their superior taste and skill were soon displayed in the fine silks, satins, brocades and lutestrings which the looms of England produced. London was the chief seat of this manufacture, although a weaver might here and there be found in the country towns. (*Eccleston.*) There was a company of silk-women in England so early as 1455; but these were probably employed in needlework of silk and thread. Italy supplied England and other countries with the broad silks till 1489. (*Pulleyn.*) "Cotton's Remains" instances silk as one of "the luxurious articles, the immeasurable use whereof grew here about 1573." Its consumption subsequently was abundantly increased; for *Camden*, in his history of that process, published soon afterwards, says, "the people or richer sort wear silks glittering with gold and silver, either embroidered or laced." In the reign of James I. Sir Baptist Hicks (afterwards Viscount Camden) and others raised themselves to rank and affluence as retail silk mercers. In the reign of Henry VI. the mercers (originally chapmen of smallwares) had become extensive dealers in silks and velvets, and had resigned their trade in the smaller articles of dress to the haberdashers. The Mercers' Company of London became a mixed body of merchants and shopkeepers. Of this company was Dick Whittington, whose epitaph styles him "flos mercatorum," or the flower of merchants; and the illustrious Sir Thomas Gresham, the prince merchant of Elizabeth's time and founder of the Royal Exchange, of the lectures at Gresham College (now Crosby Hall), &c. In 1561 the wardens of the Mercers' Company were summoned before the queen's council "for uttering and selling velvets, satins, and damasks," at the great prices they did, "considering that her majesty had brought her base coin to as fine a coin as ever was in England; which baseness of coin had thentofore been theirs and others' excuse for the high prices of all manner of wares; and that the nobility perceived no amendment of the prices of the said sorts of silks, to the great offence of her grace." *Stowe* writes of them, after this time, as

consisting "much of such as sold rich silks brought from Italy, who lived chiefly in Cheapside, St. Laurence Jewry, and the old Jewry," adding elsewhere that "these mercers are generally merchants." *Campbell*, in "The London Tradesman" (1757), says the silk mercer "traffics most with the ladies, dealing in silks, velvets, brocades, and an innumerable train of expensive articles for the ornament of the fair sex. The business requires a great capital to make a figure." A century earlier, Taylor, the water-poet, enumerates various stuffs in which mercers then dealt—

> Alas! what would our silk-mercers be,
> What would they do, sweet Hempseed! but for thee?
> Rash, Trifeled, Puropæ and Novato,
> Shagge, Filzetta, Damask and Moschado.

Of the mercers' company Richard II. was a "free brother" and Queen Elizabeth "a free sister." Nay the grandfather of that queen's grandfather was a mercer, Sir Geoffrey Bullen, grandfather of Thomas Earl of Wiltshire, who was maternal grandfather of Queen Elizabeth. (*Herbert.*) In the Wardrobe Accounts of Edward IV. (1480) are velvets, satins, damasks, and other silks, bought of Pieres de Vraulx of Montpelier in Gascony, valued at £338 15s. 6d. Cloth of gold was sometimes on satin ground. Of damask of silk were 71¾ yards, satin of silk 409 yards. 1¼ oz. of silk (thread), 10 lb. 10 oz.; silk fringe, of silk and gold ditto 2 lb. 5 oz.; 3 gross of points of silk ribbon; 12 cushion-cloths, with imagery of silk; 21½ yards of changeable [shot] sarcenet; a doublet of black satin; 26 yards black satin, 14 laces of silk ribbon, 7 yards broad silk ribbon for girdles, a gown of green damask, lined with black satin; and for covering six of the king's books (the Holy Trinity, Titus Livius, the Governal of Kings and Princes, a Bible, a Bible Historical, and Froissart) 2½ yards of corse of silk [silk ribbon, woven or braided] and a nail of blue silk, weighing 1¾ oz.; 4½ yards and half a quarter of black silk, weighing 3 oz.; 16 laces and 16 tassels (weighing together 6¾ oz.); 16 buttons of blue silk and gold. The king gave to Prince Richard, Duke of York, 5 yards of black satin for a gown and 5 yards purple velvet for lining; 5 of green satin for another, with 2½ yards of black sarcenet for its lining; and to the College of Windsor 30¾ yards white damask with flowers of divers colours, 2 yards of tawny satin; 13 yards each of red of blue and of white velvet tissue, cloth of gold; and 7 pieces of baudekins of silk [a rich and precious silk stuff introduced into England in the thirteenth century, composed of silk interwoven richly with threads of gold]. To Sir William Parr the king

gave (inter alia) 3¾ yards crimson cloth of gold upon satin ground. (*Edward IV.*) In 1502 the bill of Henry Bryan of London, mercer, for silks, &c., for the use of the queen of Henry VII. was £107 10s., and the accounts show that her majesty also dealt with several other mercers. In June of that year were bought of him 8 yards black damask for a cloak for the queen (at 7s. 4d.) 58s. 8d.; 5 yards black sarcenet for lining it (at 4s.) and 1¼ yard black velvet for bordering the same (at 10s.) 17s. 6d.; so that the materials for the cloak cost £4 16s. 2d. In February 1503, Mistress Locke, silkwoman, had a bill against the queen of £60 6s. 5d. for "certain frontlets, bonnets, and other stuff of her occupation, by her delivered to the queen's use." (*Eliz. York.*) In 1530, William Locke, mercer, was paid for certain silks, &c., for Henry VIII. £232 10s. 3d. In March 1531, to Richard Gresham, for silks delivered to the Cardinal [Wolsey] £22 12s. 3d. (*Henry VIII.*, in which are other heavy bills for silks.) For other prices of silk articles see Appendix II. Various entries of silk in the Accounts will be found by the Index. In July 1620, the bill of the silkman was £3 12s.

SKATE (Anglo-Saxon *Sceadda*, Latin *Squatus*, Welsh *morgath*, i.e. sea-cat, whence perhaps the English skate) a popular name for numerous fish of the ray genus. (See note on RAY.) The *Raia batis* called the skate, gray skate, or blue skate, is the most common, weighing sometimes 200 lb., and is much used for the table. (*P. Cyc.*, *Jardine*, *Webs.*) *Ray* says that the skate is also called the monk-fish, and by the Italians *pesce angelo*, the angel fish. In the Accounts are numerous purchases of skate. See Index.

SKAYLING. In the Accounts are entries, December 1617, for hedge-making and *skayling* of mould hills [? mole-hills] at Heblethwaite 20s.; January 1619, *skayling* of mould hills 5s. To skayle or scale (Anglo-Saxon *scylan*) is to spread, to disperse abroad; so in the north they say "the church is scaling," "the school is scaling," i.e. dispersing. It is a usual stipulation in agreements between landlords and tenants in Northumberland, that the tenant "shall scale the mole hills." (*B. Gloss.*)

SKEEL OR SKILL. SKELLET OR SKILLET. A *skeel* is a cylindrical wooden tub or vessel for carrying milk or water, with an upright handle made of one of the staves, in place of a bow. Hence *skillet*, a diminutive skeel. (*B. Gloss.*) Skillet, a small pot, of iron, copper or brass, with a long handle. (*Halli.*) *Skile*, an iron slice used for skimming the grease off broth. (*Northern.*) In the Accounts, in October 1592, three skillets for the dey-house (dairy) cost 3s. 3d.; June 1600, one skille [? skeel or skile]

11d., a brazen ladle costing 8d.; September, two "skilles" 18d.; May 1603, two "skilles" 19d.; June 1605, two skilles for the house 2s.; October 1605, two skilles 22d.

SKINS (AND FURS) AND SKINNERS. The more valuable skins of animals, with long hair, are named furs; and the imports of skins and furs into England include those of the bear, beaver, cat, coney, deer, ermine, fitch, fox, goat, kid, lamb, lynx, marten, mink, musquash, nutria, otter, racoon, seal, sheep and squirrel. (*C. Knight.*) The charter of the Skinners' Company of London, 16th Henry VII. (1500-1) enumerates skin of ermine, dressed; skins of sables, martens, foyns, minever pure; scaged gray; foin gray; linsey gray; fur of bethes (i.e. livery furs); skins of beaver, boggs, leggs," &c. *Strype*, writing of this company, says — It flourished in former times, when sables, lucerns and other rich furs were worn for tippets in England, which were princely ornaments. Coney skins and other furs of the breed of this realm were then brought by pedlars and such like to the skinners, who bought them at reasonable rates, and chose and culled what were fit to wear within the realm, and caused them to be dressed, and set the poor on work; and so had by choice and plenty wherewith to serve the nobles, gentlemen and other subjects of England. The rest they vended to every man as followed his trade; and to the merchants such as were fit to be sent beyond the sea. But about the latter end of Queen Elizabeth's time, the skinners were much disabled by the wealthy merchants sending into the shires and counties of the realm, drawing unto them the pedlars, petty chapmen and other gatherers of skins, and so engrossing skins into their hands, which they sent beyond sea; thus exceedingly hindering the skinners in their trade. *Henry Lane*, in a letter to Hackluyt (1567) regrets the disuse of furs, which he says were "better with small cost to be preferred, than those new silks, shags and rags wherein a great part of the cloth of the land is hastily consumed." The above complaint as to rabbit skins as worn by nobles and gentlemen, shows that the richer furs of foreign growth were but in little use at this period; but they appear in all the portraits of persons of condition in the reign of Henry VIII. In the wills of various persons (in *Nicolas's* "Testamenta Vetusta") the following furs amongst others are named, in chronological order: — In 1508, William Water, clerk, a furred coat; 1515, Thomas Earl of Ormond, two best gowns of silk furred; 1515, Dean Colet, his best coat of camblet furred with "black boggys" (sheepskin); 1524, Thomas West, Lord la Warre and lord of the manor of Manchester, to the church of Broadwater, his crimson

velvet gown, furred with black; 1532, John Lord Berners, a gown of tawny damask furred with jennets, and a coat of black velvet furred with martens; 1539, Sir William Kingston, K.G., a gown of black satin, furred with sables; 1544, Sir John Cornwallis, Knt., a gown of black damask furred with martens; 1551, Sir John Wallop, Knt., a gown furred with sables; another with lucerns, and a sarsenet gown furred with black coney. The Skinners' Company of London were incorporated in 1327. In the reign of Elizabeth, according to *Strype*, notwithstanding the alleged decline in the wearing of the richer furs, the skinners were very numerous, living in a competent manner, contributing to the expenses of the state, and maintaining large families. They employed numbers of poor workmen called "tawyers" in dressing coney skins, and others of home growth, which were collected of the country people, by pedlars travelling for that purpose. To restrain the merchants from the competition noticed above, the skinners petitioned Elizabeth in 1592 to have the exclusive monopoly. They were opposed, however, by the Eastland merchants and by the lord mayor; and monopolies being at the time complained of in parliament, their patent (which was about to be signed by the queen) was refused, and the skinners, like others, had to endure competition. (*Herbert.*) But the Accounts have less to do with the costly furs than with the skins of domestic animals killed on the estate. These were sometimes called fells (Anglo-Saxon *felle*, Latin *pellis*) especially if of sheep; and a fellmonger was a dealer in sheepskins, part of whose business was to separate the wool from the pelts or skins. So a pelt-monger is one who deals in skins, and pelt-wool is that pulled off the skin of a dead sheep. (*B. Dic.*) The skins in the Accounts are set forth in the Index as skins of ox, cow, calf, dog, horse, "mort," kid, lamb, sheep, and Brasil skins. The larger skins seem to have been sold to tanners; those of the kid and lamb, &c., to glovers. In August 1596, half a dogskin was bought for a saddle; in May 1601, half a horseskin, to mend the horse-gear, cost 2s. 4d.; August 1620, one "brassell-skin" 10d. This was probably a skin dyed red. In the accounts of the grocers' company in 1453 are named "Saunders and Brazil" (woods). Brazil was a name in the north of England for a sulphate of iron. (*Halli.*) Amongst the articles used by dyers to produce a red colour is Brazil wood. (*C. Knight.*) "Mort skins" are twice named in the Accounts. In 1617, four score mort skins were sold at 12d. each or £4; mutton skins fetched 16d. each at the same time. July 1618, "seven mort sheepskins" were sold for 6s. 8d. It probably meant the skins of sheep dead of rot or other disease. In 1584, five

weather skins, a ewe skin and eleven lamb skins sold for 9s. 4d. In 1596, the skinner bought five mutton skins (at 2s. 6d.) 12s. 6d., seventeen "chance skins" 12s., two calf skins 12d., and a lamb skin 4d. The tanner bought ten "oxen slaughter hides" at 19s. each, and five "kine hides" at 11s. each. In January 1618, four calf skins were sold for 3s. 6d. On the other hand, in March 1604, two calf skins were bought in Clitheroe for 2s. 8d., "to be the boys either of them one pair of breeches." For various other entries see the Index.

Skull-cap. In the Accounts, in July 1589, a knit cap to put in a "skule" (skull-cap) for a light horseman cost 22d. The skull-cap being of steel or iron, the woollen cap was a necessary lining.

Slate. (French *esclat*, *esclater*, to split.) Slate of sundry colours is everywhere in manner to be had, as is the flint and chalk, the shalder and the pebble. Where plenty of wood is, they cover the houses with tiles [shingles], otherwise with straw, sedge or reed, except some quarry of slate be near hand, from whence they have for their money so much as may suffice. (*Harri.*) The true slate is found only in the ancient argillaceous strata, superposed on mica schist and gneiss, and covered by old red sandstone or mountain limestone; and from these strata slates of various value are dug in Scotland, Cumberland, Westmorland, Yorkshire, Charnwood Forest, North Wales (abundantly), South Wales, Devon, Cornwall, and the north and south of Ireland. The thin flagstone of the coal formation in many parts of England and Wales, and the laminated sandy limestone of various places, were, and still are, often called slates, and were and are still extensively used in roofing. (*C. Knight.*) In all probability what is termed slate or "sclat" in the Accounts was not true slate, but the laminated flagstone of the district. In 1582, slates cost 2s. 7d., and slating [roofing with these thin flat stones] 19s. 8d. August 1583, 200 of slate 3s. 10d., and 400 slates 4s. 8d. June 1586, Giles Horrabin for working six days at Smithills at the slate delf 15d. [Of course there is no delf of real slate at or near Smithills.] January 1595, Oliver Stones for scappling [rough dressing with hammer only] of slate at Shenton slate-pit, six days (at 4d.), and his son four days (at 1d.) 22d. [We know of no Shenton in Lancashire, and perhaps this was in Derbyshire.] October 1597, a man and his son for getting "sclat" in Heaton eleven days (at 5d.) 4s. 7d. November 1604, for getting thirty score nine yards (609 yards) of "sclate" for the great barn at Gawthorpe (at 4d. yard) £10 3s.

Slater. One who worked, chiefly in covering roofs, with slates or with

flat slate-stones. For their wages at different periods see Appendix II. In the Accounts are numerous entries of the employment and wages of slaters. Amongst agreements and contracts with slaters, is one in December 1590, by which William Yate was to maintain and keep all the houses at Smithills and Lostock with slating, as often as occasion should need, for one whole year for 8s. May 1613, John Rishton, slater, was paid his half year's allowance for amending the slate and mossing 10s. In July 1612, under the head of "Slater's wages," is an entry — three years for repairing of the houses at Gawthorpe (within 20d. of the whole wage) 58s. 8d. [i.e. 20s. a year]. Mem.: that from henceforth he is to receive no more wages, but, in lieu of his fine for his common, to repair the houses at Gawthorpe and Barton. Roofing with flat stones seems to have required moss for the interstices.

Sleeves. Sleeves for coats and gowns were so contrived that they might be affixed to or separated from them, as occasion required; they were commonly made of different materials, and were often superbly ornamented. Amongst the apparel left in the wardrobes of Henry VIII. at his decease, were a pair of trunk sleeves of red cloth of gold, with cut works, having twelve pair of aiglettes of gold, and welted with black velvet. A pair of French sleeves of green velvet, richly embroidered with flowers of damask gold, pearl of Morisco work, with knops of Venice gold, cordian raised, either sleeve having six small buttons of gold, and in every button a pearl, and the branches of the flowers set with pearls. The sleeves in some cases had cuffs, in others ruffs or ruffles, at the hands. (*Strutt.*) The sleeve of a gown or other garment is translated by Palsgrave by the word "Manche," which is an ancient heraldic bearing. By statute of 17th Edward IV. (1477-8) it was made lawful for the wives and unmarried daughters of persons worth £20 a year or upwards to use and wear in their collars, vents and sleeves of their gowns and hukes, "sarcenet or tarteron." (*Rot. Parl.*)

Smelt (Anglo-Saxon), a small fish of the genus *Osmerus*, belonging to the salmon family, and very delicate food. It emits a peculiar odour, like the smell of cucumbers or green rushes. (*Jardine.*) Some have compared the smell to that of violets, and *Ray* names the smelt *Violacea.* It is also called the sparling and sperling (*Osmerus esperlanus*). The true smelt as a British fish seems confined to the east and west coasts; its place along the southern coast being occupied by the Atherine or sand-smelt (*Atherina Presbyter* of Cuv.) which is very plentiful, of excellent quality, and with a

slight odour of cucumbers. (*Mus. An. Nat.*) In the Mersey are taken vast quantities of sparlings or smelts, a fish remarkable for its smell as well as taste. (*C. Leigh.*) In the Accounts, in March 1585, a half hundred of smelts and two tenches cost 18d.; May 1596, flooks and smelts cost 20d.; July 1620, 3 lb. of smeltes for the house use 12d. [This may be smalts.] April 1609, smelts 6d. Other entries of presents of smelts will be found by the Index. See also SPARLINGS.

SMELTING (Danish *smelter*, Swedish *smälta*, i.e. to melt, with s prefixed), the melting of ore, in order to separate the metal from extraneous substances. (*Webs.*) See the note on IRON. After the lead had been used for the roof of Gawthorpe Hall, in March 1603, Henry Orrell, a bellfounder at Wigan, was called in, and paid 20s. for smelting the lead ashes; and two men that came from Barnard Castle by my master's appointment, for trying the reversion of the plumbers' ashes, were paid 5s.

SMITHS AND SMITHY (Anglo-Saxon *smith*, Danish and Swedish *smed*, from smiting), literally the striker, the beater; hence one who forges with the hammer or works in metals, as iron or black smith, gold smith, silver smith, copper smith, &c. Hence the common name of Smith, from the number of workmen employed in working metals in the early ages. (*Webs.*) In early deeds and charters the name *Smith* is Latinised as *Faber* (French *Le Fevre*). In the Accounts the entries of smiths and their wages are very numerous, for which see Index, also Appendix II., and the notes on the several metals. There was a smithy at the Smithills; for in July 1598 the smith of Lostock was paid for making a pair of bellows for the smithy at the Smithills, and for iron to be a pair of pipes to the said bellows 4s. 6d.

SMITHILLS. To the notice of Smithills Hall in Appendix I. pp. 331-333, we add the following: — In 1343, a lease for lives was granted from Sir John de la Warre to Henry de Smythelee and Margery his wife and Henry their son, of six acres of pasture. Is this the old form of the word Smithills? Smithills Dean, described by Mr. D. Rasbotham as an extensive common, is a hamlet in the township of Halliwell and parish of Dean, five miles north-west of Bolton. The entries in the Accounts relating to Smithills Hall, — which was the residence of Sir Richard Shuttleworth about seventeen years, till his death in 1599, — are very numerous. See Index.

SNIPE. The snipe (*Scolopax gallinago* of Linnæus) is provincially called the *snite*. [*Snita* Anglo-Saxon, so that *snite* was the original name. *Drayton* in his "Owl," has the line "The witless woodcock and his neighbour *snite*;" and *Heywood* enumerates "green plover, *snite*, patridge,

larke, cocke and phessant."] Its weight is about four ounces; length near twelve inches; the bill three inches long. It is plentiful in most parts of England, and is found in all situations, in high as well as low lands, depending much on the weather. In very wet times it resorts to the hills; at other times frequents marshes, where it can push its bill into the earth after worms, its principal food. (*Montague.*) It is the "single snipe" of Sweden. It weighs about four ounces, and its flesh is tender, sweet, and of an excellent relish. (*Ray's Will.*) There are three birds of this family (four if we include the woodcock), which have received local or common names from their size in proportion to each other. Thus the solitary or great snipe (*Scolopax major*) is the *grande ou double Bécassine* of the French; the *Beccacino maggiore* of the Italians; the *mittelschnepfe* of the Germans; and the double snipe of the English. It is a rare visitor to our shores. Its weight is from seven to nine ounces; length twelve inches. The snipe (*S. gallinago*) is the *Bécasseau bécassine* and *chévre voland* of the French, the *beccacino* of the Italians, the *wald-schneppe* of the Germans, and the common snipe or snite of England. It weighs about four ounces. The woodcock (*S. rusticola*) is the *Bécasse* of the French, *Beccaccia* of the Italians, the *wald-schneppe* of the Germans, and the woodcock of the English. The Jack snipe (*S. gallinula*) is *la petite Bécassine* and *Bécassine sourde* of the French; the *moorschneppe* of the Germans, and the snipe-knave or judcock of provincial English. It is about half the size of the common snipe, seldom exceeding 2¼ ounces in weight. The common snipe breeds in Britain, wherever favourable localities afford it shelter; as in the Orkneys, Scotland, Wales, Dorset, the New Forest, Cambridgeshire, Norfolk, and in Ireland. In winter our home-bred birds are joined by vast accessions from the North of Europe, the greatest number arriving in the beginning of November. (*Mus. An. Nat.*) The fat of the snipe (says *Vieillot*) is of a most delicate savour, which it acquires only after the first appearance of the frosty season. It is cooked like the woodcock, without being drawn. (*Pantrophéon.*) In the Accounts, snipes are frequently named, but they were generally bought with other birds, as larks, plovers, purres or stints, teal, lapwings, redshanks, &c. In August 1590, two dozen snipes cost 16d.; October, seventeen snipe-knaves and four snipes cost 9d.; November, ten snipes and a teal, 8d.; December, five snipes, 6d.; November 1591, a plover, a snipe, and a snipe-knave, 3d.; four snipes and four snipe-knaves, 6d.; December, fourteen snipes and a redshank, 15d.; September 1592, two "twytes" [peewits] and a snipe, 3d.; December, twenty

snipes and six snipe-knaves, 23d.; December 1594, nine snipes, two snipe-knaves and a "scargrayffe," 21d.; April 1595, a snipe, a snipe-knave and two purres, 2d.; December 1596, twenty-three snipes and two "skergies," 2s.; thirty-three snipes, 3s. 6d.; January 1597, fifteen snipes (at 2½d.), 22½d.; December 20, snipes, 20d.; nine snipes and three snipe-knaves, 16d.; September 1598, three dozen larks and two snipes, 7d.; January 1599, three snipes, 6d. and a penny for a snipe-knave; December 1609, six snipes and a snipe-knave, 13d.; November 1612, twenty-nine snipes, 2s. 5d.; October 1617, twelve snipes, 12d.; June 1618, ten snipes and a lark, 12d. For other entries see Index. The above show that snipes averaged rather less than a penny each, except when scarce, when in one case they cost 2½d. each.

SNIPE-KNAVE. The Jack Snipe, Gid, or Judcock (*Scolopax gallinula* of Linnæus). It is a migratory bird. The first flights arrive in Northumberland, says *Selby*, as early as the second week in September, and these birds are in the poulterers' shops in London as late as the first week in April every year; and the instances of its remaining through the summer in this country are very rare. In places where its food is plentiful it is so sluggish, that French naturalists have called it the *Bécassine sourde*, or deaf snipe. It measures 8 to 8½ inches, and has a beak 1½ inch long. The females are larger than the males. (*Yarrell.*) The judcock, jack-snipe, gid, or jedcock, in figure and plumage, nearly resembles the snipe, but is only about half its weight, seldom exceeding two ounces, or measuring more in length than 8½ inches. It is nearly of the same character as the snipe, feeds upon the same kinds of food, lives and breeds in the same swamps and marshes, and conceals itself from the sportsman with as great circumspection. It is as much esteemed as the snipe, and is cooked in the same manner. The legs are not larger than those of a lark; in other respects they are very like those of the snipe. (*Bewick.*) The weight being only half that of the snipe, the French call these "*deux pour un*," and we the Jack-snipe, snipe-knave or half-snipe. The knave was an older name than the jack; both marking its smaller value than the snipe; as the lowest court card is called "knave" by some and "Jack" by others. In Sweden they call it the half single snipe and the mute snipe. In the Accounts there are various entries, for which see Index. Several we have quoted in the preceding note on the SNIPE, as the two kinds of birds were usually killed and sold together.

SOAP. (Anglo-Saxon *Sape*, Latin *Sapo.*) The manufacture of soap began in London in 1524, before which time it was supplied by Bristol at

1d. per lb. (*Beckman; Haydn.*) The principal kinds of soap made in this country are white, yellow, mottled, brown, soft soap, &c. (*C. Knight.*) These, however, are chiefly of later date than our Accounts; though there were sweet (i.e. scented or perfumed) soaps in the Elizabethan period. In England soaps have been chiefly made at the ports of London, Liverpool, Bristol, Hull, and Plymouth, and at Runcorn in this county; but the Accounts show that soap was then bought at Halifax, for use at Gawthorpe, near Burnley. — Oil olive is made the basis or groundwork of several sorts of soap which we sell, — those of the best sorts, the most valuable of which is the Alicant, next the Carthagena, the third is the true Marseilles, the fourth that of Gayette, the fifth the Toulon, which we falsely call Genoa. Soap is a composition of oil olive, starch, lime water, and a lixivium or lye of pot-ashes, mixed altogether by boiling into a paste, and made into balls or cakes. The Toulon soap should be dry, of a white tending a little to a blueish colour, cut even, glossy and of a good smell, and the least fat or oily that can be. As to the marbled sort, that which is of a red vein on the side and of a fine green and vermilion within, is most esteemed; because it is best marked, of most use, and best sale. A liquid or soft soap which we call black soap, is made at Abbeville and Amiens of the remains of burned oil; is sold in little barrels, and is much in use among the cap-makers and several other workmen or artificers. It is brown in colour; but that from Holland is green, because instead of burned oil they use hemp oil, which is green. The soft soap from Holland is used to rub on the soles of the feet of persons in fevers. (*Pomet.*) To make very good washing balls take storax of both kinds, benjamin, calamus aromaticus, labdanum, of each alike; bray them to a powder with cloves and orris; then beat them all with a sufficient quantity of soap till it be stiff; then with your hand work it like paste, and make round balls thereof. To make musk-balls, take nutmegs, mace, cloves, saffron and cinnamon, of each the weight of twopence, and beat them to fine powder; of mastick the weight of 2½d.; of storax the weight of 6d.; of labdanum the weight of 10d.; of ambergris the weight of 6d.; and of musk four grains; dissolve and work all these in hard sweet soap till it come to a stiff paste, and then make balls thereof. (*Mark.*) See also note on POMANDERS. In the Accounts, in February 1583, 1 lb. soap cost 4d.; September 1600, soap for the house use at Gawthorpe from June 27 to September 6, 13d.; October, 1 lb. for the house use 4d.; June 1601, soap to wash with, 6d.; April 1602, soap, 13 balls, 12d.; January 1605, two dozen [? lb.] of soap for the house use (16

balls to the dozen), 2s.; May 1609, 4 lb., 13d.; October 1617, four dozen soap bought at Halifax, 4s.; a firkin of [? soft] soap, 14s.; October 1618, a firkin of the best soap, 17s. (bought at York); December 1618, four dozen soap at Halifax, 4s.; July 1620, six dozen at Halifax, 6s.; July 1621, four dozen at Halifax, 4s. Of other kinds of soap, the following entries occur: — March 1587, for tar and *black* [soft] soap, for a plaster for the horse's leg, 3d.; January 1612, 2 lb. *sweet* soap, 9d.; June 1612, 6 lb. sweet soap, 2s. 2d.; *clode* [clouded or mottled] soap bought at Halifax, 4s.; December 1612, 3½ dozen *clode* soap, 3s. 6d.; January 1613, sweet soap bought at Padiham, 2s.; April, a pound of sweet soap, 4d. For other entries, see Index.

Soldiers. There are many entries in the Accounts of galds, yalds or fifteenths [see notes thereon] for raising, accoutring and providing rations for soldiers, raised and clothed in Lancashire, and sent into Ireland during its wars or rebellions in Elizabeth's reign. In 1583 such a gald was levied for three fifteenths in Sharples 6d., for making soldiers into Ireland. We need not copy these entries, which are all pretty much alike; but instead may refer to a fac-simile wood-cut in the reprint of John Derrick's "Image of Ireland" (in *Somer's Tracts*, vol i.), in which the English soldiers in Ireland are represented as armed in corselets and morions, or open helmets, and wearing trunk hose. Some have guns or calivers, some pikes: they march with drum and colours. As to the bravery, skill, discipline and intelligence of Lancashire soldiers, we cite the following passage from "A Relation of Abuses committed against the Commonwealth," by A. L. (December 1629) — "I know some parts, and namely the county of Lancaster (where I was divers years an attendant to the honourable Sir Raphe Asheton) where they have their trained and untrained bands, which jointly (as I have heard) amount to 3,600; and this I will affirm (and all that know the martial discipline there used will concur with me therein) that there be not in this kingdom any men better furnished with arms, or qualified with practice, than in that county; all, or most of the trained soldiers being as fit to command others as to be commanded themselves."

Somer Trisle. In November 1605, a waller was paid 12d. for four days' work in filling the holes about the ends of the "somer trisle" in the cow-house. Somers are rails; *Palsgrave* names "the somers or rathes of a wain or cart." Trisle is a corrupt form of tressel or trestle, a support; and somer-trisle is probably the rack. Somer was also a corruption of somner or sumpter, a pack-horse or horse of burthen; so somer-sadle was

a pack-saddle, and this may be a pack-tressel. We have nowhere else seen the compound word.

Sorrel. In colour, as applied to a horse, is a sort of chestnut. The Suffolk breed of cart-horse is uniformly sorrel, and forty years ago was invariably so described; now it is sometimes called chestnut. In "Aubrey's Lives" (circâ 1680) Butler, the author of "Hudibras," is described as having "a head of sorrel hair." The plant sorrel (*Oxalis, sive Acetosa*) garden sorrel, is called sour dock, and in shops commonly *acetosa*. The juice hereof in summer time is a profitable sauce in many meats, and pleasant to the taste. (*Ger.*)

Sowing. See Seed. The best property that belongeth to a good husband is to sow all manner of corn thick enough . . . . and sow upon an acre of good ground but one bushel as if he sowed four. Sow barley in every acre five London bushels, or four at the least. Of oats sow in March three London bushels to an acre. A young husband ought to take heed how thick he soweth all manner of corn, two or three years, and to see how it cometh up, and whether it be thick enough or not. If it be thin, sow thicker the next year; and if it be well, hold his hand three other years; and if it be too thin, let him remember himself, whether it be for the unseasonableness of the weather, or for thin sowing; and so his wisdom and discretion must discern it. (*Fitz.*) For entries in the Accounts of Sowing, see under the names of the different kinds of grain, pulse, &c.

Spanes. The prongs of a hay or dung fork. ? from *spinæ* from their sharpness, or from their shape, that of span. (*Halli.*) July 1602, spigots and fawcet and for woodspanes 3d. Perhaps these were wood-forks.

Spanged. In June 1621, a feeding ox was bought, viz. "an odd ox that was spanged" for 40s. This probably means pied or variegated, for which spanged or spenged is the term still used in the north.

Sparlings. See Smelts. But *B. Gloss.* says that the sparling, though the smelt of the Thames, is not so of the Tyne, in which river it is easily caught. Pennant derives the name from the French *eperlan*, but Jamieson does not consider this satisfactory. The southern name is said to have been adopted from the peculiar cucumber-like smell of the fish, q.d. smell it. The German name is stinckfisch. For the entries see Index.

Sparrow (Anglo-Saxon *speara*, Gothic *sparwa*, Danish *sperling*), the popular name of several small conic-billed birds, which feed on insects and seeds. The common house-sparrow of England (*Pyrgita domestica* of Cuvier, *Fringilla domestica* of Linnæus) is noted for its familiarity and

even impudence, its voracity and fecundity. (*P. Cyc.*, *Jardine*, *Webs.)* A Scandinavian name for the house-sparrow is *spink*, and the hedge-sparrow is still called a spink in the East Riding of Yorkshire. [The chaffinch is also called the spink in several parts of England.] It was considered a singing bird by our ancestors; and in the "Gentleman's Recreation" the hedge-sparrow is said "not to be so despicable a bird as some would have it; for if you will mind its song, you will find very delightful notes, and it sings early in the spring with great variety." *Wilsford*, in his "Nature's Secrets," says that sparrows in the morning early, chirping and making more noise than ordinary, foretell rain or wind. In the Accounts, sparrows are generally classed with other small birds, and bought by the dozen. In January 1592, two dozen of sparrows and "yowleringes" [yellow-hammers] cost 4d.; June 1592, three dozen sparrows, 3d.; December 1595, sixteen sparrows and youlwringes, two snipes and two snipe-knaves, 16d.; December 1609, three dozen sparrows and buttings [? buntings or woodlarks] 6d.; four dunnes [dunnocks, i.e. dun-necks, hedge-sparrows] and a lapwing, 10d.; June 1610, a dozen sparrows, 1d.

Spear-point. In the reign of Henry VIII. spontoons (wide-bladed spears) were amongst the weapons in use. In the reign of Mary, the term of "men-at-arms," hitherto given to heavy cavalry, was changed for "spears" or "spearmen," and "lances" or "lancers." In the Accounts, in January 1584, 6d. was paid for making a spear-point.

Spectacles. They are generally supposed to have been invented in the thirteenth century by Alexander de Spina, a monk of Florence (about 1285). According to Dr. Plott, they were invented by our illustrious countryman, Roger Bacon. The hint was certainly given by him about 1280. See also Du Cange v. *Ocularia.* (*Fosb.*) When Roger Bacon, in his "Opus Majus," says that "this instrument (a plano-convex glass or large segment of a sphere) is useful to old men, and to those who have weak eyes, for they may see the smallest letters sufficiently magnified," it is clear that this mode of assisting decayed sight was known to him. It is quite certain that spectacles were known and used at the time of his death (1292). In the Accounts, in May 1597, a spectacle-case cost 6d.; October 1618, for glasses [? spectacles] to my mistress, 20d.; July 1621, two pair of spectacles and case, 18d.

Spices. (French *epice*, Latin *species.*) Vegetable productions, fragrant or aromatic to the smell, and pungent to the taste; used in sauces and in cookery. (*Webs.*) In the middle ages spices were introduced into Europe

by the Genoese and Venetians, viâ Egypt. (*Anderson.*) In England the earliest name of grocers was pepperers; and Camden mentions the spicers. The pepperers are first mentioned as a fraternity temp. Henry II., but probably existed as a gild long before. In a tariff of charges at the Grocers' Company's weigh-house in 1453, nearly forty articles are enumerated of which they had the weighing and oversight, mostly what they themselves imported and dealt in, viz. pepper, saffron, cloves, mace, grains [of Paradise], cinnamon, ginger (by the case or bale), long pepper, flour of almonds, currants, ginger (by the bale or cwt.), galingale (ditto), drugs, woad (the balet), madder, alum foyle or rooch (the bale), horns (the ton), *cotton* (Cyprus or Brasselon the cwt.), rice, cummin and anise, soap, almonds, wax, dates, Saunders and Brazil (woods), saltpetre, &c. The grant of the garbellorship greatly extended the number and variety of articles under the company's control; specifying (besides some of the above) rhubarb, scammony, spikenard, turpentine, senna, dates, rosin, treacle, electuaries, syrups, waters, oils, ointments, plasters, powders, all conserves and confections, gum, succades, cardamoms, and all sorts of merchandises, spices and drugs, in any wise belonging to medicines. Lydgate speaks of the grocers having become retail spice-dealers in temp. Henry VI., and that they kept their standings in Cheapside: —

> One bade me come nere and bring some spyce,
> Pepper and sayforne [saintfoin] they gan me bed,
> But for want of money I might not spede.

In 1561, the company's books state that "bags and remnants of certain evil and naynte pepper" were ordered to be conveyed over sea to be sold, but the dust of the "evil pepper, surnamed ginger," was to be burned. Thus though the company had "a reverend care of the health of their fellow-citizens," they did not scruple on occasions to poison their continental neighbours. In 1562, the court made an order that "grocery wares should not be sold in the streets, figs only excepted." In 1671, Ralph King, a brother of the company, and others, makers of comfits, were charged before the wardens for their misdemeanours in mingling starch with the sugar, and such other things as be not tolerated nor suffered; and the said King having now in his place a good quantity of comfits made with coarse stuff, and mingled with starch and such like, it was ordered that the comfits should be put into a tub of water, and so consumed and poured out, and that every of the comfit makers shall be made to enter into bonds in £20 that they shall not hereafter make any biskets but with clear sugar only, nor make

any comfits that shall be wrought upon seeds or any other things, but with clear sugar only. (*Herbert.*) In his compotus of the keeper of spices of St. Mary's Abbey, York, for 1528-29, the Rev. C. Wellbeloved observes that spices appear to have formed a large and important portion of monastic stores, comprehending a great variety of articles, as ginger, pepper, mace, cloves, great raisins (i.e. raisins), small raisins (i.e. currants), prunes, almonds, liquorice, sugar, sugar-candy, barley-sugar, sandars, turnsole, comfits, cakes, &c. They were generally expensive articles; yet, as Dr. Whitaker has observed with respect to the monks of Bolton Priory, "they were used with no sparing hand." The bursar of the monastery of Durham accounts for the delivery to the cellarer in one year of more than 130 lb. of pepper, of 105 lb. of currants, 48 lb. prunes, 55 lb. sugar, in addition to a large supply of honey. The charge for spicery in that year was above £38, when a sheep was sold for 2s. and an ox from 14s. to 16s. In the *Durham Book* four tenants pay a portion of their arrears due to the monastery in saffron. In 1529, the following were the prices of spicery per lb. paid by the officer of St. Mary's, York: — Honey, 15d.; 1 lb. pepper, 2s.; 1 lb. powder of anise (aniseed powdered or ground), 4d.; cinnamon, 5d.; ginger, 4d.; mace and cloves, 4d.; sugar, 3d.; saffron, 5d.; raisins (and currants), 2d. The following are enumerated under the head of spices, with their prices in 1560: — Pepper 2 dozen lb., 47s. 7d.; 1 lb., 20d.; saffron (crocus), 16s. 8d. per lb.; maces, 10s. lb.; cloves, 9s. per lb.; sanders, 1s. 6d.; ginger, 1s. 8d.; cinnamon (in 1531), 4s. 8d.; dates, 6d.; turnsoles, 1s. 4d.; aniseed, 3½d. lb.; liquorice, 4d.; sugar, 7½d.; confetts, 7d.; prunes, 1¼d.; small raisins (currants), 4d.; great raisins, 2d. In 1531, 7 lb. rices at 4d.; almonds, 2d. lb.; and biscuits, carraways and nutmegs were added to the list. (*Finchale.*) For the several sorts of spices, see notes on their names. "Fine Spice" is a mixture of several aromatics together, and to prevent abuse I give the receipt and those things it ought to contain. Take black Dutch pepper 5 lb., dried cloves 1½ lb., nutmegs the same, fresh dried ginger 2½ lb., green anise and coriander each ¾ lb.; powder them separately, sift them through a fine sieve, mix them together, and keep them close stopped. The generality of those who make the four spices use, instead of pepper, pepper dust; instead of nutmegs, white costus or a bark very like rough cinnamon, but the taste having more likeness to sassafras, with the lesser galingale and cloves mixed together. This bark is called cinnamon wood or clove wood, but I believe it is the bark of a kind of sassafras. (*Pomet.*) Spices, both in the wider and more narrow

and modern definition, were much used in ancient English cookery. In recipes of 1390, "Eagerdouce of Fish" had in its ingredients sugar, raisins of Corinth, and great raisins; "do thereton whole spices, good powders and salt." So in "Tart de Brym (or Mid-) Lent"—"do thereto white powders and whole spices:" and in tarts of flesh "take good powder and whole spices, sugar, saffron and salt, and do thereto." At this period spices were imported from Italy and the Levant, and sugar coming from the same places and by the same route, will explain how it came to be enumerated among spices. So the old name of cinnamon "canell" was the Italian *canella.* Maces were usually expressed in the plural. Cloves are sometimes called "cloves-gylofres," and "powder gylofre" occurs in one recipe. Chaucer calls this spice "clowe" in the singular. Galingale, the long-rooted cyperus, was used in powders for cookery, and was the chief ingredient in galantine, which probably had its name from it. Pepper was imported from Venice and Genoa, and was used both whole (the round and the long) and in powder. Ginger was used chiefly in powder, and "the white powder" had it for a chief ingredient. Cubebs were also used, and "grains of Paradise" or "de Parys," which are the greater cardamoms. Nutmegs were used under the name of "Noix muscadez," caraways, &c. The powder douce or good powder, so favourite a seasoning in the fourteenth century, was probably powder of galingale, or made of various aromatic spices ground or beaten small, and kept at hand ready for use. Powder-fort was a mixture of the warmer spices, pepper, ginger, &c., pulverised, and it is sometimes called strong powder. There was powder-fort of ginger and another of canell. It may be the same with the "powder-marchant." "Spikenard de Spayn" is named in one recipe. (*Cury.*) The price of these trifles [imports from Spain] is metely well enhanced, as I (being a grocer and one that selleth spices) well know. As first, pepper, wont to be sold for 20d. the lb., now sold at 3s. the lb. The raisins or dried grapes of Spain, which (in time that I have known) were bought for 6s. 8d. the cwt, and might be retailed for 1d. the lb., to a great living, are now sold to us for 21s., and cannot be retailed under 2½d. the lb. The sugar that I have known at 4d. the lb. is now at 14d. The almonds at 18s. the cwt. within these few years, but now at 53s. 4d. White soap at 18s., now at 43s., &c. The alum, some time at 5s. 8d. the cwt., now at 26s. 8d. Oil wont to be sold for £9 or £10 the tun, is now sold for £24. Dates, some time at 18s. the cwt., now at 48s. Maces for 5s. the lb., now at 20s. Figs at 20d. the tapnet, now at 4s. And so all other, as well in

whole as in part, touching spicery. And as it is in spices, so it is in silks, so in wines (which do us more hurt than good), in linen cloth, thread, and all other things, whereof many (such as be profitable) might be made in the realm, if housewifery did flourish amongst us. (*Cholmeley*, 1553.) *Dolby* gives recipes for candying fruit and flowers, roses, &c. *Price*, for angelica tarts, aniseed biscuits, candied cakes, carraway ditto, cakes of ditto, clove, cardamom and citron, cinnamon and clary waters, gingerbread, oil and water of nutmegs, plum cake, sugar wafers and biscuits, spirit of clary and carraways, to rock-candy violets, &c. In the Accounts are numerous entries of the purchase of spices. In 1582, paid for spices at Manchester 6s. 10d.; but usually the spices were bought in London, and in December 1590, their carriage thence to Bolton was 18d. In August 1691, £8 was sent by Fogg, the carrier, to London, to buy spices there. August 1593, for spices which Cuthbert Hesketh bought at York, and for the carriage, 58s. 6d.; September 1595, Abraham Coulthurst, for spice bought at London, £4 17s. 5d. December 1597, to Robert Lever, of Darcy Lever, for spices and carriage from London, £5 11s. [It will be seen that spices were usually bought of Mr. Thomas Lever, of London, spicer and confectioner, in all probability a relative of the Levers of Darcy Lever; and Thomas Shuttleworth having married Anne, daughter of Richard Lever of Little Lever, will explain this selection of a spicer.] In January 1601, during the building of Gawthorpe Hall, there was paid by Jane [the housekeeper] for spices, viz., ¼ lb. anises 4d., 2 oz. pepper 8d., ½ lb. courwaynes [currants or carraways] 3d., mace and cloves 2d. August 1611, 1 oz. cloves and mace 8d., 2 lb. currants and 1 lb. sugar 2s. 7d.; 2 lb. currants, 1 lb. sugar 22d.; ½ lb. white sugar candy and 1 oz. cloves, 2s. 8d. February 1619, Thomas Yate, for spices, which he sent for to Manchester, 18s. But the fullest information as to the articles coming under the denomination of spices is given by lists 1 and 2, pp. 212, 213. The first, which is called "A note of the spices bought of Mr. Thomas Lever, 12th November 1617, at the time of my mistress lying in child bed" consists rather of confects or comfits of spices, sweet cakes and pastes, conserves or candies of fruit, than of spices proper. The second list, however, which specifies "the usual proportion of spices yearly bought in London at Michaelmas term," is more definitely of the commodities then termed spices, including besides spices proper and sugar, raisins (Malaga and those "of the sun") currants, almonds, dates and prunes; some colouring substances, as red sanders, turnsole, and English saffron; also rice meal [ground rice] and starch. See Index.

SPIGOT AND FAUCET. The faucet (French *fausset*) is a short wooden tap, tube or pipe inserted in a cask, for drawing liquor, and stopped with a peg or spigot (Welsh *yspigawd*, from *yspig*, a spike, and that again from Welsh *pig*, English *pike* or peg, Danish *spiger*, a nail) which Swift defines as a pin or peg used to stop a faucet or to stop a small hole in a cask of liquor. (*Webs.*) The latter is also called a *spile*. A tippler or pot-companion was called a spigot-sucker. (*Cotgrave.*) In the Accounts, in December 1590, spigots and faucet cost 2d.; July 1602 spigots, faucet and wood-spanes, 3d.; November 1617, spigots and faucets 2s.

SPIKINGS. Spikenes, &c., i.e. spike-nails, see Index and note on NAILS.

SPINDLES. Parts of the spinning-wheel. In November 1589, spindles and wharles (the piece of wood put upon the iron spindle to receive the thread), 2d.; December 1512, spindles 12d.

SPINNING AND SPINNING-WHEEL. The ancient spinning was chiefly on the distaff; though a wheel with spindles accompanies sculptured figures of Nemesis, Cupid, &c. The spinning-wheel was invented at Brunswick about 1530; and the spinning of cotton was performed by the hand-spinning-wheel till 1767, when Hargreaves, an ingenious mechanic near Blackburn, made a spinning-jenny (called Jenny after his wife) with eight spindles. (*Phillips; Haydn.*) Formerly it was a sort of rule that a young woman should not marry till she had spun herself a set of body, table, and bed linen; and from this custom all unmarried women came to be termed spinsters, an appellation still retained in deeds and law proceedings, though the spinning-wheel has long disappeared. Both wool and flax and hemp were spun in England, as a domestic employment. After your wool is mixed, oiled and trimmed [carded again] you shall then spin it again upon great wool-wheels, according to the order of good housewifery. Be careful to draw your thread according to the nature and goodness of your wool; for if you draw a fine thread from a wool of a coarse staple, it will want substance when it comes to the walk-mill; or either [being] there beat in pieces, or not being able to bed and cover the threads well, be a cloth of a very short casting. So if you draw a coarse thread from a wool of a fine staple, it will then be so much over-thick, that you must either take away a great part of the substance of your wool in flocks; or else let the cloth wear coarse and high, to the disgrace of good housewifery and loss of much cloth, which might have been saved. For the diversities of spinning, though our ordinary English housewives make none at all, but spin every thread alike, yet the better experienced make two manner of spinnings, and two

sorts of thread; the one they call warp, the other weft or woof. Warp is spun close, round, and hard twisted, being strong and well smoothed, because it runs through the sleighs and also endureth the fretting and beating of the beam. The weft is spun open, loose, hollow, and but half twisted; nor smoothed with the hand, nor made of any great strength, because it only crosseth the warp, without any violent straining, and by reason of the softness thereof beddeth closer, and covereth the warp so well that a very little beating in the mill bringeth it to a perfect cloth; and though some hold it less substantial than the web, which is all of twisted yarn, yet experience finds they are deceived, and that this open weft keeps the cloth longer from fretting and wearing. After spinning the wool, some housewives used to wind it from the broach [spindle] into round clews, for more ease in the warping; but it is a labour may very well be saved, and you may as well warp it from the broach as from the clew, as long as you know the certain weight, for by that only you are to be directed in all manner of cloth-walking. As to spinning flax for linen, after the tear is dressed you shall spin it either upon a wheel or rock [a distaff held in the hand, from which the thread was spun by twirling a ball below. In temp. Edward VI. they used to spin with rocks: in Staffordshire they use them still. (*Aubrey's Wilts.*) "What, shall a women with a rock drive thee away?" (*Digby Mysteries.*)] But the wheel is the swifter way, and the rock maketh the finer thread. You shall draw your thread according to the nature of the tear, and, as long as it is even, it cannot be too small; but if it be uneven, it will never make a durable thread. (*Mark.*) See also notes on FLAX, HEMP, LINEN. There was then a trade or craft of spinning, as the housewife not able to spin her own tear, is to make choice of the best spinners, weighing the tear before and after spinning, allowing weight for weight, or 1½ oz. for waste at the most. Prices for spinning are according to the place, the fineness of the tear, the dearness of provisions, and the modes of charge—by the lb., by the lay, [? the seventh of a skein] and by the day. In the Accounts, in May 1589, to a woman of Hoole for spinning thread to my mistress six days, 6d.; June 1590, spinning of sack-tow, 8d.; August 1592, ditto 16d.; November, Margery Cockete, for spinning six weeks at Smithills, 3s.; Margaret Riding ditto 3s.: July 1593, three women for spinning thirty-six weeks (at 4d.), 12s. March 1611, to a spinner, for spinning flax sixteen days at Gawthorpe, 16d. March 1617, for spinning of thirty lea of canvas yarn, 9d.; July, to the cook's wife, for a spinning-wheel, 2s. 4d.; March 1618, for a [spinning-] wheel for my mistress, 3s.;

paid by my mistress for a stone of flax, 9s. 6d.; August 1620, spinning of 2 lb. hemp, 6d.

Spoons. Spoons were formerly made of the root of box, brass, bone, horn, iron and silver; in the east of leather. (*Fosb.*) "A dozen of horn spoons in a bunch, as the instruments meetest to eat furmenty porage withal." (*Nichols's Progresses.*) "Apostle spoons" (usually gilt) were presents by sponsors, the custom borrowed from the Greeks. Opulent sponsors gave the whole twelve, with the figures of the Apostles at the ends or tops of the handles; others (in middling circumstances) the four Evangelists; the poorer sort only one spoon, with a figure of the saint after whom the child was named. (*Brande.*) In Shakspere's *Henry VIII.*, when Cranmer professes to be unworthy of being sponsor to the young princess, the king replies (in allusion to this custom) "Come, come, my lord, you'd spare your spoons." And in the same play, "Here will be father, godfather, and all together. *M.* The spoons will be the bigger." Ben Jonson, in his "Bartholomew Fair," speaks of "a couple of Apostle spoons and a cup to eat caudle in." Having named Shakspere and Ben Jonson, it may recal to recollection the anecdote of Shakspere giving to Ben Jonson's child a dozen apostle-spoons, of "latten," with the quiet joke on Jonson's classic taste, and the play on both words of which Shakspere was so fond, that he might "translate" them. The spoons mentioned in the Accounts were either of pewter (for the table) or of wood (for the kitchen) and these are separately indicated in the Index.

Sports and Amusements. These Accounts afford some traces of the out-door sports and pastimes of the gentry and the people of Lancashire in the sixteenth and early in the seventeenth century, and also of some of the in-door recreations of the ladies and of the family generally. Hawking and falconry were then eagerly pursued, and both ladies and gentlemen, mounted, formed "the field" in this exciting sport. In the wakes and fairs, of villages and towns, bears and bulls were baited, on the green or in the market place; and Birmingham still has its "bull-ring," marking the site of this barbarous sport. Cock-fighting, with its attendant betting, was also a favourite amusement of the period. Of the itinerants who ministered to the amusement of the gentry, and who visited the principal mansions for the entertainment of the family and household, those who exhibited out of doors included the rude performances and uncouth dances of Bruin and his attendant monkey, under the pole or "ragged staff" of the bear-ward. Itinerant jugglers, tumblers, &c., exhibited in the court-yards or in the

halls. Within doors the first place must be given to the travelling companies of players, either really the servants of, or allowed to perform under the names of, some of the wealthy and powerful nobles of the time. The so-called "players of" Lords Leicester, Oxford, Monteagle, Morley, Derby, Dudley, &c., nay even "the Queen's players," visited Gawthorpe Hall. Itinerant minstrels and musicians carried rude melodies and still ruder harmonies from place to place; while at Yule-tide and other festivals of the church, the "town waitts" brought welcome carols from places afar off, even from Preston, Halifax, and Carlisle. In the houses of the gentry, the lute, the viol and the virginals formed the study and the accomplishment of the ladies, and testified to the universal spread and culture in that age of "the language of sweet sounds." The favourite amusements of the nobility may be collected from a description of Charles Lord Mountjoy, regent of Ireland in 1599:—"He delighted in study, in gardens, in riding on a pad to take the air, in playing at shovel board, at cards, and in reading of play-books for recreation, and especially in fishing and fish-ponds; seldom using any other exercises, and using these rightly as pastimes." (*F. Morison's Itinerary*, 1617.) The favourite pastimes of Queen Elizabeth may be shown by a brief enumeration of the recreations provided for her entertainment at Kenilworth in July 1575. First she was received by a pageant, with representations of heathen gods and a Latin speech; on Sunday evening with fireworks in the air and on the water; on Monday with a great hunt, and a sort of masque; on Tuesday music, dancing, and an "interlude" upon the water; Wednesday, another grand hunting; Thursday, a bear-baiting, tumbling, and fireworks; Friday, bad weather prevented open-air sports and shows; Saturday, dancing within the castle, and a country bride-ale; running at the quintain in the castle-yard, and a pantomime-show called "The old Coventry play of Hock-Thursday;" in the evening a regular play, a banquet, and a masque. On Monday a hunting in the afternoon, and another show on the water. On Tuesday the Coventry play was repeated, because the queen had not seen the whole of it on Saturday. On Wednesday she left Kenilworth. In the "Basilicon Doron" of James I., written for the nurture and conduct of his eldest son Prince Henry, the royal author says that bodily exercises and games are very commendable; but he debars all rough and violent exercises, as foot-ball, "meeter for laming than making able the users thereof," and tumbling tricks, but approves the moderate use of running, leaping, wrestling, fencing, dancing, playing at tennis, archery, pall-mall, and such like other fair and pleasant

field games; and such games on horseback as may teach the handling of arms, as the tilt, the ring, and low-riding for handling the sword. Hunting, with running hounds he commends; but shooting with guns and bows he thinks a thievish form of hunting; and greyhound hunting [coursing] is not so martial a game. He praises hawking more sparingly as not so hardy, besides being an extensive stirrer-up of the passions. As for sitting and house-pastimes he would not forbid cards, dice, and such like games at hazard: when the weather is foul and stormy then ye may lawfully play at the cards or tables. As for dicing it becometh best debauched soldiers to play at, on the heads of their drums; and as for chess, "I think it over-fond, because it is over-wise and philosophic a folly." A later writer gives a general view of the sports most prevalent in the seventeenth century: Cards, dice, *hawks and hounds* are rocks upon which men lose themselves. . . . . Ringing, bowling, shooting, playing with keel-pins, tronks, quoits, pitching of bars, hurling, wrestling, leaping, running, fencing, mustering, swimming, playing with wasters, foils, foot-balls, balloons, running at the quintain, and the like, are common recreations of country folks; riding of great horses, running at rings, tilts and tournaments, horses and wild-goose chases, which are the disports of great men, and good in themselves, though many gentlemen by such means gallop quite out of their fortunes. . . . . . . Amongst country recreations are May games, feasts, fairs and wakes; and amongst those common to town and country are bull and bear baitings, dancers on ropes, jugglers, comedies, tragedies, artillery gardens [archery grounds], and cock-fighting. Ordinary recreations in winter are cards, tables, dice, shovel-board, chess-play, the philosopher's game, small trunks, shuttlecock, billiards, music, masques, singing, dancing, yule-games, frolics, jests, riddles, catches, cross-purposes, questions and commands, merry tales of errant knights, queens, lovers, lords, ladies, giants, dwarfs, thieves, cheaters, witches, fairies, goblins, and friars. Dancing, singing, masking, mumming and stage plays are reasonable recreations in season; as are May-games, wakes, and Whitsun-ales, if not at unreasonable hours. Let the people freely feast, sing, dance, have puppet-plays, hobby-horses, tabours, crowds [fiddles] and bagpipes; let them play at ball and barley-brakes. Plays, masks, jesters, gladiators, tumblers and jugglers are to be winked at, lest the people should do worse than attend them. (*Burton's Anat. of Mel.* 1660.) For various sports, out- and in-door, incidentally named in the Accounts, the Index and notes on the names may be referred to. The first "Book of Sports" (concerning lawful sports on Sundays) was

published by James I. May 24, 1618; the second "Book of Sports," with a ratification by Charles I., is dated October 18, 1633.

Sprats (*Clupea Sprattus*), called provincially sprots, (*Sprot*, Danish), and in Scotland Garvie herrings. This fish was long regarded by naturalists as the young of the herring or the pilchard, though a moment's glance, or even the feel alone, would detect the difference, the sprat having the line or ridge of the abdomen strongly serrated. The sprat is usually sold by rough measurement at a cheap rate; but its consumption is by no means confined to the humbler classes. Though rich and oily, it is an excellent fish, and a dish, hot from the gridiron, finds favour with the wealthy. (*Mus. Anim. Nat.*) The sprat does not seem to have been distinctively known to the ancients or to our early ancestors, probably for the reason that it was accounted a young herring or pilchard. In *C. C. Dic.* is a recipe to pickle sprats like anchovies. For entries in the Accounts see Index.

Sprodes or Sprotes. Sprod is a name for the salmon in its second year. (*Chambers.*) In the Accounts, in March 1617, a salmon and sprodes and trouts cost 2s. 8d; October, sprodes and trouts, 2s. 3d; November, ditto, do, 8d; December, sprods and trouts, 2s.

Spurs and Spurriers. Anciently the difference between a knight and esquire was that the knight wore gilt spurs (eques auratus) and the esquire silver ones. The art of plating or covering baser metals with a thin plate of silver, is said to have been invented by a Birmingham spur maker. Silver spurs being liable to be bent by the slightest accident, he made the branches of a pair of spurs hollow, and filled the hollow with a slender rod of steel. This proving a great improvement, he went on making the hollow larger and the iron thicker, till at last he coated the iron spur with silver, so as to make it equally elegant with those made wholly of that metal. The invention was quickly applied to many other purposes. (*Haydn.*) In the reign of Edward III. spurs were general with rowels. Spurrier, sometimes spelled sporyar, was one who made spurs. When spurs were fixed into leather, it required a strong needle to sew them in securely, and the old play of *Gam. Gurt. Needle*, has, "My goodly tossing sporyar's needle." The spurrier is introduced into Ben Jonson's play of *Staple of News*, and the allusion there to losing of the spurs, has reference to the mode of disgracing a knight, by cutting off his spurs with an axe or cleaver. Ripon, Yorkshire, was long a celebrated seat of the spur manufacture; the town still bears spurs in its arms; their good quality was proverbial—"As true steel as a Ripon rowel." In 1355 there was a gild or company of

"spurriers" in London. In the Accounts, November 1612, a pair of spurs to my master cost 12d. October 1613, a pair to Abel, 12d.; September 1617, a pair of brass spurs, 14d. In January 1599, the spurrier was paid 16d. for tinning two bridle-bits of my master's; May, the spurrier for a bit to my master and a pair of spurs, 4s.; December 1609, to the spurrier of Padiham, for a pair of spurs to my master, 2s. Spur-way was one name for a bridle road.

Squen. In May 1588 is the entry, "carriage of a squen from Tingreave, 4d." In all probability this was a swan, alive or dead. Swans were first brought into England by Richard I. from Cyprus. By an act of Edward IV. none but the son of a king was permitted to keep one, unless possessed of five marks (£3 6s. 8d.) a year; and, by a subsequent act, taking their eggs was punished with imprisonment for a year and a day, and a fine at the king's will. He who stealeth a swan in an open and common river, lawfully marked, the same swan shall be hung in a house by the beak, and he who stole it shall, in recompence thereof, give to the owner so much wheat as may cover the swan, until the head of the swan be covered with wheat. In the Thames at present the greatest number of swans belong to the queen, and the companies of vintners and dyers own the next largest proportion; but the birds are far less numerous than they used to be. The swan-marks are made upon the upper mandible with a knife or other sharp instrument. The "swan-hopping," or "upping," i.e. the catching and taking up the swans to mark the cygnets, and renew those on the old birds if obliterated, in the presence of the herdsman of the royal swans, is still continued by the two companies named. (*Pulleyn.*) As to Lancashire, a local writer says that swans are common in these parts, but more particularly upon the sea coasts, and upon Marton Mere near Poulton, Lancashire. The cygnet is very good food, but the old ones not so tolerable. (*C. Leigh.*)

Stag or Red Deer. (*Cervus Elephus.*) The hart and hind of the Dutch; *Hjort* and *Hind*, Swedish; and *Kronjort* and *Hind*, Danish. The red deer is a native of our island and of the temperate portions of Europe, and considerably exceeds the fallow deer in size, standing about four feet in height at the shoulders. Formerly the stag was very abundant on the wild hills and in the extensive forests; but the disforesting of vast woodland tracts, and the extension of agriculture, have limited the range of this noble animal to the larger places and chases of our country, to the Cheviot Hills and to the heath-covered mountains of Scotland. Few or none are to be seen in the New Forest, nor in Woolmer Forest in Hampshire, where they

were once numerous; nor do any remain in Epping Forest. In the central part of the Grampians there are large herds of red deer, chiefly on the property of the Dukes of Athol and Gordon. In the glens of the Tilt and Bruar these deer are often seen in herds of upwards of a thousand. The forest of Athol, consisting of 100,000 acres, is devoted to red deer; they exist in Mar forest and Glenartney, and in the west districts of Ross and Sutherland. The chase of the red deer in former days is admirably pourtrayed in *Waverley.* The present plan of deer stalking is to proceed cautiously within due distance of the herd, and, being concealed, to bring them down with the rifle. When wounded and brought to bay, the stag often rushes on his assailant, whose life is in imminent danger. The red deer swims vigorously, and will cross lakes and pass from islet to islet at considerable distances apart. (*Mus. An. Nat.*) Of our red deer, the young male is called in the first year a calf, in the second a broket, the third a spay, the fourth a stagon or stag, the fifth a great stag, the sixth a hart, and so forth unto his death. And with him in venery are accounted the hare, boar and wolf. Of these the stag is accounted the most noble game, the fallow deer is the next, then the roe, whereof we have indifferent store, &c. I deny not, but rather grant willingly, that the hunting of the red deer is a right princely pastime. (*Harri.*) The *Gentleman's Recreation* gives long directions for hunting the hart (which is stated to be a stag of five years old complete), for harbouring and unharbouring a stag, finding a hart in high woods, killing a hart at bay, &c. When huntsmen come in to the death, the first thing they cry is "Ware haunch," that the hounds may not break in to the stag. They cut his throat, blooding the youngest hounds therewith, that they may the better love a deer and learn to leap at his throat. Then having blown the mort and all the company come in, the say is taken (cutting open to see how fat the beast is) then breaking up the deer, giving the intestines, &c., to the hounds. Then he who took the say, with a drawn hanger cuts off the head, with which the hounds are rewarded. Then if a buck a double, if a hart a treble mort is blown, then a whole recheat in concert by all that have horns, and that finished, immediately a general "Whoo, whoop." (*Gent. Recr.*) *J. Whitaker* thinks the common race of deer in the British period of our island were the large red deer, which he says are still found wild in our forest of Bowland and in several other parts of Britain, and formerly abounded in all our woods. There is still a fine herd of red deer at Lyme Park, Cheshire. In October 1502, 10s. was given to a servant of Lady Herbert, wife of Sir Walter

Herbert, in reward for bringing a hart to the queen of Henry VII. at Langley. (*Eliz. York.*) In January 1532 10s. was given to a servant of the Lord Chamberlain for bringing a hind to the king's grace. There was then an office of the hart hounds. (*Henry VIII.*) In August 1543, one of the keepers of Windsor Forest, for bringing a stag, had 7s. 6d. (*Princess Mary.*) The Earl of Leicester made Sir T. Gresham a present of a number of red deer (an animal of as great rarity in the sixteenth century it seems as in the nineteenth.) Gresham writes to his servant Thomas Celey (18th February 1577-8): "Celey, you shall paye to this bringer x[li] for the . . . . . shipe [? wardship] of xl. red deer more, which my Lorde of Leaster hath given me: being a present for any nobylman in England, and not to be gotten for no gold nor silver; therefore dispache upon the sight hereof." (*Life of Gresham.*) Venison, or the flesh of the red deer, has been in favour in all ages and nations. A hind calf is a hind of the first year. Her flesh is softer than that of the hart, but not so savoury, and is dressed after the same manner. If roasted, it ought to be larded, dipped in a marmade or pickle, and moistened while roasting. (*Dic. Rus.*) Hart venison is dressed like buck venison, and will be preserved longer. (*Gent. Recr.*) See. notes on Hart, Deer, Venison, &c. In July 1583, fees were paid for two stags killed at Lyme; also others in Towneley and Bolland. In September 1600 is an entry of "one fat sagge" for the house use, 53s. 10d., which at first was supposed to be a stag, but it was doubtless what in the North is still termed a "seg," a bull made an ox after full growth, and then fattened.

Stamell. A kind of fine worsted. In a work of 1628 is named "a petticoat of the finest stammell." In an old play of 1621, "In a fresh stammell petticoat array'd." *Nares* says that stamel was a coarse kind of red stuff, very inferior to fine scarlet. Thus *Ben Jonson* has the couplet;

> Red hood, the first that doth appear
> In stamel — scarlet is too dear.

Beaumont and Fletcher also name "stammel breeches," and *Randolph* speaks of turning a stammell petticoat into a pair of scarlet breeches. In December 1617, 3½ yards of stamell bays (at 5s. 4d.) cost 18s. 8d. May 1620, for a coat of stamell red [fine red worsted] for my mistress, 15s. Is this the same with *stamyne*, which was a linsey-woolsey? In "Eastward Hoe," (1605,) a "stamen petticoat with two guards" is named.

Stande. There were two applications of this word to the beer cask. "Stands pro cadis" meant stands for casks, or gang-trees. (*Finchale.*) A

beer barrel set on one end was a stand. (*Halli.*) Hence a stand of ale or beer came to mean a barrel of the liquor. In February 1600 one stand of ale cost 16d.

Standish, Mr. In September 1586 the cook of Mr. Standish [? of Standish] was borrowed for two days to cook the wedding feast of Mr. Thomas Shuttleworth, and had for his pains 2s. 6d. In 1587 Ralph Standish returned a loan of £3 1s. and had his bill or note delivered to him. The Mr. Standish would doubtless be Edward, son of Alexander Standish Esq. He married Ellen, daughter of Sir William Radclyffe of Ordsal Knt., rebuilt Standish Hall in 1574, and died in 1603. Frank Standish, perhaps the same who succeeded to the estate in 1624, and was sheriff of Lancashire in 1634.

Starch and Starching. Anglo-Saxon *stearc*, stiff, rigid. Starch with blue was used to stiffen and clear linen; in Elizabeth's reign yellow starch was in vogue. *Stowe* says that the art of starching linen was brought into England by Mrs. Dinghein, a Fleming, in 1553 (1st Mary). During the reign of Elizabeth the fashion was introduced of using starch of divers colours to tinge ruffs. In 1564 a Mrs. Van der Plasse, a Fleming, came to London with her husband, and followed the profession of a starcher of ruffs, meeting with much encouragement. She first publicly taught the art of starching, her fee being £4 or £5 for each scholar, and 20s. in addition for teaching them how to make [and seethe] the starch. In a masque entitled "The World tossed at Tennis" (1620), five different starches are personified and contend for the superiority. A satirist of the time writes: One arch or great pillar wherewith the devil's kingdom of great ruffs is underpropped is a certain kind of liquid matter which they call *startch*, wherein the devil hath willed them to wash and dive their ruffs, which, being dry, will stand stiff and inflexible about their necks. And this startch they make of divers substances, sometimes of wheat flour, of bran, and other grains; sometimes of roots, and sometimes of other things; of all colours and hues, as white, red, blue, purple, and the like. (*Stubbes.*) He accidentally omits yellow, which in popularity surpassed all the rest. Ben Jonson makes one exclaim in a play, "Carmen are got into the yellow starch." And in another play is the question, "What price bears wheat and saffron, that your band's so stiff and yellow?" In "The Owle's Almanack" (1618) it is said, "Since yellow bands and saffron'd chaperoons came up, is not above two years past." Mrs. Turner, a starcher, when executed at the gallows for poisoning Sir Thomas Overbury, wore a yellow

ruff, and it was hoped that this would discredit the fashion, but it did not so happen. (*Howell.*) See also note on Ruffs. In the Accounts, in August 1608, blue starch cost 1d.; February 1609, 6 lb. white starch 2s.; May, 12 lb. white 3s. 6d.; 1 lb. blue starch 14d.; July 1610, 4 lb. white 16d.; April 1611, 4 oz. of blue starch 4d.; February 1612, to Jane, for starching Abel's linen for a year, 16d.; May, to Jane Hurst, for starching Turner's bands 12d.; June 1613, to Margaret and Elizabeth, for starching Abel's "traueres" [? hose] and Leigh's linens, 3d.; November 1617, 12 lb. white starch 3s.; October 1618, 3 lb. white 12d.; July 1621, amongst spices and groceries bought of Francis Austin, grocer, was 12 lb. white starch (at 3d.) 3s.

Stare or Starling. (Anglo-Saxon *Stœr*, Swedish *Stare.*) A bird of the genus *Sturnus* of Linnæus. It is not eaten in England, because of the bitterness of the flesh.

Starkies, The. The name is derived from *Stork ea*, the island or water of the stork, and the arms are canting, having six storks. Those named in the Accounts are Nicholas, Edmund, and John. Edmund was the son of Lawrence, and Nicholas was the son of Edmund, and died August 1618. A John Starkie (son of Nicholas) was sheriff of Lancashire in 9th Charles I. (1633-4.) But the John Starkie of the Accounts was a chandler, &c., in Padiham. (See Index.) In May 1611, Mr. Edmund Starkie repaid £8 6s. 8d. borrowed of Colonel Richard Shuttleworth, with 15s. interest for five months, or at the rate of £21 12s. per cent per annum. In March 1611 4d. was spent by the steward in meeting Mr. Starkie twice at Padiham about the [church] bells. In 1617 is an entry amongst receipts, "Of Mr. Starkie, the residue of the money due by bond long since, £7." In August 1621, Mrs. Starkie's maid, for bringing as a present a quarter of veal, had 11d.; and in September 1721, "lent to Mrs. Starkie, when she lay in childbed, for my mistress, 11s." There is nothing by which to identify these Starkies.

Start. A tail or handle. Red-start is literally red-tail.

Statutes. Among the acts passed during Elizabeth's reign were the following:—14th Elizabeth, cap. 5, Justices of the peace empowered to tax the county towards the relief of paupers: 35th, cap. 2, Popish recusants departing five miles from their habitations were to forfeit their goods and the profits of their lands for life; cap. 5, Persons absenting a month from church to be imprisoned without bail: 39th, cap. 2, Ploughed land converted into pasture to be restored to tillage; cap. 3, An act for the relief of

paupers; cap. 4, Houses of correction to be erected in every county for the reception and punishment of vagabonds and sturdy beggars: 43rd, cap. 2, The great poor law act. In the Accounts, in January 1596, the fee to Mr. Simon Lyndoch, for searching the statutes for Mr. Worsley, was 3s. 6d.

STASSAKER. In February 1612, for "stassaker to John Leigh, 2d." Staves aker (*Staphis agria*) is called also in English louse-wort and louse powder. Fifteen seeds in honied water will cause one to vomit gross phlegm and shiny matter, but with great violence. But because it bringeth danger of choking, it is rejected of physicians. The seed mingled with oil or grease, driveth away lice from the head, beard, and all other parts of the body, and cureth all scurvy, itch, and manginess. Tempered with vinegar, it is good to be rubbed upon lousy apparel, to destroy and drive away lice. I advise the ignorant not to be over bold to meddle with it, sith it is so dangerous that many times death ensueth upon the taking of it. (*Ger.*) Stassaker or staves aker, a species of larkspur, formerly used for giving dogs a purge. (*Topsell's Four-footed Beasts*, 1607.) It was doubtless for his dogs that young Leigh wanted it. The name of this herb, corrupted into stassaker, seems to be the origin of the surnames Stassiker, Stassaker, Stirzaker, &c. In April 1586, what is called "stirbeker 2d." was doubtless staves-acre. (See *Nares.*) In October 1598, some trees were bought of a Thomas Stirzaker, bailiff or steward to Mr. Townley. The name seems to come from the herb, or else from "the steers' acre," the name of an enclosed piece of land.

STEEL, STEEL COAT. As for our steel, it is not so good for edge tools as that of Colaine, and yet the one is often sold for the other, and the like sale used in both, that is thirty gads to the sheaf, and twelve sheaves to the burden. (*Harri.*) A burden of gadsteel is 9 score or 180 lb.; a faggot of steel is 6 score or 120 lb. (*Post.*) Flemish steel was called gadsteel because wrought in gads or small bars. (*Halli.*) Thirty bars or gads formed a sheaf or bundle, the word applying to long stems, stalks, rods tied together as sheaves of corn, of arrows, of gads. Each gad or bar would weigh only half a lb., so that 360 gads constituted a burden; 240 gads a faggot. A steel coat was coat armour made of small plates of steel attached to each other by wires and worn in the reigns of Mary and Elizabeth. In May 1588 are various items connected with the making of a steel coat, in preparation doubtless for the rumoured Spanish invasion: 1,400 plates for the steel coats cost 8s.; 9¼ yards of canvas, and for pitch, rosin and hemp to make a steel coat, 3s.; 1,600½ of plates to be a steel coat, 9s. 6d.; 9¼

yards of linen and canvas to make a steel coat, and for a lb. of "slape" and some more, to make the same, 7s. 1d.; "2 dozen of thride poundes" [? 2 dozen lb. of thread] for plate coats, 6d. Steel was also used to "lay" tools, or give them a new edge. In February 1587, "still" to lay plane irons with, 12d.; September 1588, "still" for the mill step, 2s. February 1596, 4d. was paid for "stile" to mend the work tools in the smithy with; and in May 1605, 3d. for one lb. of "stille" for the house.

STEER. (Anglo-Saxon *Steor*, *styre*; Danish *Stier*.) A young male of the ox kind. (*Webs.*) A bullock, or young ox. (*B. Dic.*) See notes on CATTLE, Ox, &c., also Index. A "twinter steer" was an ox of two winters in age.

STEWARDS. Amongst us, stewardships of peers were the most desirable objects to barristers, because they became rich by lending lords their own money. A velvet jacket with a gold chain over it was the distinguishing costume of stewards; sometimes a feather in the cap, and when they held courts a rod. Upon tombs their effigies were sometimes marked by a purse hanging before them. Even dignified clergymen became house stewards to noblemen. (*Fosb.*) Steward (*senescallus*) is from the Anglo-Saxon *Steda*, room or *stead*, and *weard*, a ward or keeper; q.d. one appointed in my stead. It always denotes an officer of chief account within his jurisdiction. Of the nine great officers of the crown the lord high steward is the first. The lord steward of the household is the chief officer of the king's court. In all households of honour an officer is found of this name and authority. There were stewards of manors and of the manorial courts. Even to the present time the Earl of Sefton is high steward of the queen's manor of the hundred of Salford, and presides over the court leet by his deputy, usually a lawyer. Of stewards of households we have an admirable representation in *The Stanley Papers*, part ii. (vol. xxxi. of the Chetham Society.) Of the succession of house and farm stewards in the family of Shuttleworths, the two first named in the Accounts were scions of the house. Mr. Thomas Shuttleworth, youngest brother of Sir Richard, held the office from the opening of the Accounts in September 1582 till his death in December 1593. Then the office was temporarily taken by another brother, the Rev. Lawrence Shuttleworth, rector of Whichford, and held till a new steward was appointed in the person of Edward Sherburne, who continued to be steward during the remainder of the life of Sir Richard, and also of his successor in the estates, Lawrence Shuttleworth. Owing to a volume being missing, it is not easy to say who was the next steward. But in July 1608, when the Accounts recommence, Lawrence Shuttleworth was dead,

and his nephew Richard (Colonel Richard) had succeeded to the estates. The earliest name of a steward under the colonel is that of James Yate at Gawthorpe, who appears to have succeeded an Anthony Wilkinson; James Yate continued steward to the end of the Accounts. There is an epitaph to a servant of the family, named Yate, in Padiham church (see note on YATE, JAMES and THOMAS), which is doubtless to one of the brothers, but the only name it contains is that of Thomas Yate, at the end, which may have been merely the name of him who placed the monument to the memory of his brother. The rhyming portion of the epitaph does not name its subject, but states that he was born in Coventry in 1581; that he was servant to the Right Worshipful Richard Shuttleworth Esq. thirty-four years; and that after living three score years and odd (62) he died at Gawthorpe on the 30th May 1643. He would therefore enter Colonel Richard Shuttleworth's service in 1609, when he was twenty-eight years of age, remaining in the same service till he was sixty-two.

STEWARD, MR. Mr. Ellis Nutter (son of John Nutter, living in Pendle forest 15 and 34 Elizabeth) was deputy steward of Bolland, and probably an attorney. (*Lanc. MSS.*) October 6, 1617, Steward Nutter kept leet, hallmote, and wapontake, at Clitheroe, all of a day. Not so kept in man's memory afore. (*Journal of Nicholas Assheton*, vol. xiv. of Chetham Society.) In December 1619, given to Mr. Steward Nutter his clerk 6d.; April 1620, paid Mr. Steward for the use of £100 for a year £10; October 1620, to Mr. Steward for two copies of Padiham Moor and part of Burnley Moor 5s.; April 1621, to Mr. Steward for the use £100, £10.

STILL, "STYLLETORIE." In October 1590, carriage of a "stylletorie" from Manchester to Bolton cost 4d. This was a still for the distillation of the various medicinal waters then so much in use. The earliest work in English giving a description of different kinds of stills, in rude wood cuts, is "The virtuous book on the distillation of all manner of waters;" translated from the German of Jerome of Brunswick, by Lawrence Andrews, London, 1585. See also note on WATERS DISTILLED, &c.

STINT. The stint is the purre, or sea-lark. At West-Chester they call them purres. (*Ray's Willoughby.*) See note on PURRE.

STIRKS. (*Styrc*, Anglo-Saxon,) a young steer, ox, or heifer. *Lanc.* (*B. Dic.*) There are various entries in the Accounts, some of which merely name the animals, stirks; but otherwise distinguish them as ox stirks, bull stirks, and heifer stirks. See Index.

STOBING OR STUBBING. This name occurs in the Accounts once or twice,

amongst other fish. Perhaps it was a small river fish called the stuckling. "Gubbings" were the parings of haberdynes.

STOCKFISH. (*Stockvish* Belgic, *Stockfisch* Teutonic.) A sort of fish dried in frosty air without being salted. (*B. Dic.*) Cod dried hard and without salt. (*Webs.*) Dried stock fish occurs in 1388, and it was so called from being as hard as a stock of wood. (*Du Cange.*) It was chiefly used in Lent; but salted cod, ling, &c., were preferred. In September 1589, 25½ couple of stockfish were bought at Stourbridge fair for 10s.

STOCKINGS. The oldest form of this covering was that of hose, which were rather like drawers than modern stockings. In the reign of Henry VII. *Skelton* describing the costume of "Eleanor Rumming," says:

> She hobbles as she goes
> With her blanket hose.

Hose or stockings of silk are generally supposed to have been unknown in this country before the middle of the sixteenth century; and a pair of long Spanish silk hose was presented as a gift worthy the acceptance of a king by Sir Thomas Gresham to Edward VI. *Howe* (the continuator of *Stowe*) adds that Henry VIII. never wore any hose but such as were made of cloth. In an inventory of his apparel, however, several pairs of silk hose are mentioned — one short pair of black silk and gold woven together; another of purple silk and Venice gold, woven like network, lined with blue silver sarcenet, edged with a passemain [lace] of purple, silk, and gold, wrought at Milan; a pair of white silk and gold hose knit. In an earlier inventory, taken 8th Henry VIII. (1516-17) both satin and velvet are mentioned as the materials of the king's hose. Writers of that period applied the term hose indifferently to stockings and breeches; and though *Howe* means stockings only, the richly embroidered and lined hose of the inventory must have been the upper portions of the leg coverings, which were frequently slashed, puffed, and embroidered distinctly from the lower. Indeed loose stocks or stockings were regarded as belonging to the lower appendages of the hose or breeches. One entry in this inventory runs — "1¼ yard green velvet for *stocks* to a pair of hose for the king's grace." Another, "1¼ yard of purple satin to cover the *stocks* of a pair of hose of purple cloth of gold tissue for the king." Numerous others occur of stuff used for "*stocking* and hose;" that is, adding the lower part, that covered the legs and feet, to that which was fastened by points to the doublet; the ultimate separation of which confounded the hose with the breeches, and left the stocking an independent article of apparel as at the present day. Another

distinction of the two parts of the hose was into upper and nether stocks or stockings. The stuffed upper stocks of Mary's reign were called trunk-hose. In the 3rd Elizabeth (1561) Mistress Montague, the queen's silk woman, presented to her majesty a pair of black knit silk stockings made in England, which pleased her so much that she would never wear any cloth hose afterwards, not only on account of the delicacy of the article, but from a laudable desire to encourage this new species of English manufacture. Soon afterwards (says *Stowe*) William Rider, then apprentice to Thomas Burdet, at the Bridge foot, opposite the church of St. Magnus, seeing a pair of knit worsted stockings at an Italian merchant's, brought from Mantua, borrowed them, and having made a pair like unto them, presented them to the Earl of Pembroke, which was the first pair of worsted stockings knit in this country. In 1589, William Lee, M.A. and Fellow of St. John's College, Cambridge, invented the stocking frame. Lee was born at Woodborough, and is said to have been heir to a good estate. Tradition attributes the origin of his invention to a pique he had taken against a townswoman with whom he was in love and who slighted him. She got her livelihood by knitting stockings, and with the ungenerous object of depreciating her employment he constructed this frame, first working at it himself, then teaching his brother and other relations. He practised his new invention some time at Calverton, a village five miles from Nottingham, and either he or his brother is said to have worked for Queen Elizabeth. The other stocking manufacturers used every art to bring his invention into disrepute, and it seems they effected their purpose for that time, as he went abroad, settling at Rouen in Normandy, where he met with good patronage; but the murder of Henry IV. of France, and the internal troubles that followed, frustrated his success, and he died at Paris of a broken heart. *Stowe* does not give these details; but only the following brief notice: — This year 1589 was devised and perfected the art of knitting or weaving of silk stockings, waistcoats, coverlets, and divers other things, by engines or steel looms, by William Lee, sometime M.A. of St. John's College of Cambridge; and sixteen years after this [1605] he went into France and taught it to the French, because he was not regarded in England.— The separation of hose into upper and nether stocks led as early as temp. Henry VII. to their being of different patterns, and doubtless soon afterwards of various colours. While the long tight hose were either supplanted by, or newly christened, the *trauses*, — the upper stock, or the breeches worn over them, received the name of trunk-hose, and were stuffed, slashed, paned, and ornamented in

the most quaint and extravagant manner, the nether stock settling finally upon the lower part of the legs, under the modern denomination of stocking. In the reign of Elizabeth the nether stocks or stockings of the men were similar to those of the women, with quirks and clogs or clocks above the ankle. But it is from the satirists of the period, especially from the Puritans, who already began to affect plainness and precision of attire, that we must expect the most minute description of the stockings. One of these, after describing the hose (see note thereon) adds — Then have they nether stocks to these gay hosen, not of cloth (though never so fine) for that is thought to be too base, but jearnsey [Guernsey] worsted, crewel, silk, thread and such like, or at the least of as fine yarn, thread or cloth, as is possible to be had; yea, they are not ashamed to wear hose of all kinds of changeable colours, as green, white, red, russet, tawny, and else what; which wanton light colours any sober, chaste Christian (except for necessity's sake) can hardly, without suspicion of lightness, at any time wear. Then these delicate hosen [stockings] must be cunningly knit with open seam down the leg, and curiously indented in every point with quirks and clocks about the ankles, and sometime interlaced in gold or silver threads, as is wonderful to behold. And to such impudent insolency and shameful outrage it is now grown, that every one almost, though otherwise very poor, having scarce 40s. of wages by the year, will not stick to his two or three pair of these silk nether stocks, or else of the finest yarn that may be got, though the price of them be a rial [10s.] or 20s., or more, as commonly it is; for how can they be less, when as the very knitting of them is worth a noble or a rial [6s. 8d. or 10s.] and some much more? (*Stubbes.*) In December 1530, six pair of hosen and six pair of stocks [stockings] for three riding boys cost £6 12s; July 1532, two pair of stocks for Mark 5s. (*Henry VIII.*) In December 1537, housen [stockings] and shoes to Jane the fool, 20d. The Princess Elizabeth, in January 1543, sent to her half sister the Princess Mary a chain and a pair of housen [stockings] gold and silk, and the bringer had 20s. fee. (*Princess Mary.*) In the Accounts, April 1610, a pair of stockings to Roger Isherwood 2s.; April 1611, a pair of fine worsted stockings 7s. 6d.; one pair of worsted stockings 5s. 4d. [both apparently bought at Burnley]; August 1611, 2½ yards of cloth (at 2s. 10d.) for breeches and stockings to Lawrence Shuttleworth 7s. 1d.; June 1612, for making a pair of breeches and two pairs of stockings to the cook's boy, 8d.; two pair of Richmond stockings to Turner 4s. [made, as well as the woollen caps called Richmond caps, at Richmond, Yorkshire]; September 1612, a pair of stockings of

linen to Hargreaves 11d.; January 1613, a pair of stockings to Mr. Barton 3s.; September 1617, a pair of mingled-coloured stockings 8s. 6d.; a pair of thread stockings 5s.; December, to my mistress for five pair of children's stockings 5s.; July 1620, three pair of worsted stockings 15s.; a pair of mingled worsted stockings 4s.; April 1621, three pair of stockings for the children 3s. 6d.; July, two pair of mingled stockings 13s.; three pair of stockings to my mistress 12s.; October, a pair of stockings 16d. See note on Hose.

Stocks. (*Cippus.*) A wooden engine to put the legs of offenders in, for the securing of disorderly persons and by way of punishment, in divers cases ordained by statute, &c. It is said that every vill within the precincts of a town is indictable, for not having a pair of stocks, in the penalty of £5. (*Jacob.*) The barnacles of the middle ages were of the same kind as stocks, but extended the legs, by the distances of the holes, according to the offence. Stocks were anciently moveable, and were kept in castles, being an appendage to the inner gate even, for the detention of prisoners till they could be conveniently taken to prison. (*Ducange*, *Gage*, *Lear*, act ii., *Fosb.*) In the Accounts, in October 1591, was paid for making a pair of stocks 6d.; January 1601, a gald included the charges for repairing the church at Whalley, making a new pair of stocks and a cocking-stool [cucking or ducking stool], also for soldiers, total 3s. 4d.

Stomachers. Sometimes called placards. Half a yard of stuff was always allowed for the king's placard, and as much for the stomacher, whether of the king or queen. They were used with the gown as well as with the coat and jacket, and were sometimes laced over it, like stays. (*Strutt.*)

Stone. Building with stone was first introduced into England by Bennet, a monk, in the year 670; but used chiefly for churches and bridges (Bow bridge in 1087, and one at Crowland, said to be in 860); and it is said that the houses in London were chiefly built of wood, till brick was introduced by the Earl of Arundel in 1600. (*Haydn*, *Pullein.*) We dig our stone to build withal, out of quarries, and of these, as we have great plenty, so are they of divers sorts, and those very profitable for sundry necessary uses. In times past the use of stone was in a manner dedicated to the building of churches, religious houses, princely palaces, bishops' manors, and holds, only; but now that scrupulous obstruction is altogether infringed, and building with stone so commonly taken up, that amongst noblemen and gentlemen the timber frames are supposed to be not much better than

paper-work, of little continuance, and least continuance of all. [After censuring his countrymen for leaving these natural treasures of building stone to "moulder and cinder in the ground," and preferring to use instead "an artificial brick, in burning whereof a great part of the wood of this land is consumed and spent," and for esteeming foreign above native commodities, especially the cane (Caen) stone that is brought hither out of Normandy, the old man thus continues:] Howbeit, experience on our side, and our skilful masons on the other, do affirm that in the North and South parts of England, and certain other places, there are some quarries, which for hardness and beauty are equal to the outlandish grit. [He adds that for the King's chapel at Cambridge, the greatest part of the square stone was brought out of the North.] Some commend the vein of white freestone slate and merestone, between Pentowen and the Black Head in Cornwall, for very fine stuff; others speak much of the quarries at Hampden, nine miles from Milbury, and paving stone of Burbeck [Purbeck]. For tough stone not a few allow of the quarry at Dresley; divers mislike not of the veins of hard stone at Oxford and Burford. One praiseth the freestone at Manchester, and Prestbury in Gloucestershire; another the quarries of the like in Richmond. A third liketh well of the hard stone in Cleetrill, Shropshire; a fourth that of Thorowbridge, Weldon and Terrinton. Whereby it appeareth that we have quarries enow, and good enough in England, sufficient for us to build. (*Harri.*) As to quarries of building stone in Lancashire, there was an old one in Collyhurst, near Manchester, from which it is probable the stone was got for the old Collegiate Church, commenced early in the fifteenth century; for Leland, visiting Manchester in 1538, describes the parish church as "almost throughout double aisled, ex quadrato lapide durissimo, whereof a goodly quarry is hard by the town." Perhaps it is to this very passage that Harrison refers in naming the free-stone of Manchester. But it has been observed that the church is built of the red sandstone common to the neighbourhood, which is any thing but "*durissimus*," as the crumbling tower and other portions of the venerable fabric sufficiently prove. It appears from *Whalley* that the stones of which its conventual church was constructed were brought from the quarries of Read and Symondstone; for Nicholas del Holden and John de Symondstone, license the abbot and convent to dig for stone in Symondstone, "pro fabricia monasterii sui" in the year 1336. John del Holt, of Read, granted a similar permission, "in the waste of Read," two years earlier, in 1334.— For other remarks on stone buildings, see Appendix I. pp. 314-18; also the note on HOUSES. The

stone named in the Accounts is chiefly described as rough for walling, scappled or rough-hewn by hammer without chisel, free-stone, ashlar or large squared free-stone, ready for building, fire-stone, &c. The processes of getting, hewing, scappling, dighting or dressing and carving (also paving), are specified, with the wages paid. These were chiefly in connection with the rebuilding of Gawthorpe Hall in 1600 - 1605; but in January 1587, Oliver Stones was paid for his toil, upon his own table, for getting so many stones as will wall four score square yards (at 1d. a yard) 5s. This total seems erroneous; it should probably be 7s. In August 1600, one man for getting stone on Padiham Moor, three score and five yards (at 3d), was paid 16s. 3d.; for getting eleven score eight yards of free-stone at Ryecliffe (at 2¼d.) 42s. 9d., and thirty-eight loads of wall-stone (at 2d.) 6s. 4d. In September, wall-stone for the new hall was got at Ryecliffe, twenty-seven loads (at 2d.) 5s. 4d. [? 54d.] Getting stone at Scholebank and Ryecliffe, according to the articles of agreement, £6 13s. 4d. March 1605, a mason was paid 9d. for one day getting "fyre stone" upon Padiham Moor, on his own charge, and in May, two men for one day for getting "fyre-stones" upon the moor, on their own charges, each 12d. September 1604, a mason for five days hewing batteling-stones and ashlars for the back stairs, was paid 2s. 1d. In the indenture for the construction of the dormitory at Durham in 1398, the mason engages that a certain wall should be outside of pure (or free) stone, called "achiler," cut smooth, and internally of broken stone, called "rough wall." (*Bursar's Mem.*) The carving the heraldic bearing of the Shuttleworths upon a square stone in front of the building, over the entrance (still perfect in 1857), is noticed in several entries, and what is more remarkable, this was not done by a mason, but by a joiner. March 1605, a joiner, beginning to work my master's arms in stone (at 6d. a day) 3s.; three days cutting the arms in stone, 18d.; April, two days ditto, 11d.; a joiner six days working at the arms in the stone over the hall door, 3s. In August 1605, a joiner was six days working "at the crest above the hall," &c. (at 5d.) 2s. 6d. For other entries see Index.

Stopforth, (Stockport.) In November 1602, William Wood's charges for going about a quantity of lead for the new hall of Gawthorpe, were for one night at Stopforthe and two at Manchester, 2s. 6d. The local names have been Stopford and Stopport. Two women riding sideways on one horse constituted what was locally termed "the Stopport Coach."

Stool. (*Stole* Anglo-Saxon, *Stool* Danish.) The old stools for seats were of one piece, a block of wood; but when they came to be more chair-

like (lacking only the back) they were made of several pieces by joiners, and joined together: hence called joined or joint stools. They were in universal use at the period; and Macbeth complains that dead men's ghosts come back "to push us from our stools." "Of one part of a tree a chair of state may be made, of another a carved image, and of a third part a stool of office" (*Taylor*) i.e. a close stool. Stool was also a name for a stump or root of copse or hedgewood; and stool ball was an ancient game at ball, played by both sexes, where balls are driven from stool to stool. (*Strutt; Brande.*) In the Accounts, in July 1612, a footstool cost 18d.; January 1613, two joined stools, 3s.; October 1613, a joined stool, 20d.

Stot. (Anglo-Saxon *Stod.*) A young bullock or steer. (*Webs.*) A young horse or bullock in the north. (*B. Dic.*) In the Accounts, in February 1587, a "stotte oxe" is named.

Stourbridge and its Fair. Stourbridge, Worcestershire, derives its name from its bridge, erected over the river Stour in the reign of Henry VI. It was once perhaps the greatest fair in England. *Gunning*, in his *Reminiscences of Cambridge* gives a graphic description of the ceremony of opening this fair on the 18th of September, and of the oyster feasts of the university officials (who exercised some authority over it) in a booth there. At their dinner a large dish of herrings graced each end of the table. Amongst the commodities and wares brought for sale to this fair, he enumerates salted and dried fish, cheese, hops, groceries and pickles; ironmongery, materials for saddlers and harness makers; all kinds of leather, woollen, linen and silk fabrics, furs, paper, toys, earthenware and china, &c. In an old play of 1607, after enumerating upwards of fifty articles of a lady's dress and toilet, the speaker exclaims that "seven pedlars' shops, nay all Stourbridge fair, will scarcely furnish her." *Fuller* dates the fair from about 1417, when a clothier of Kendal, (a town characterised as "lanificii gloriâ et industriâ præcellens,") casually wetting his cloth in water in his passage to London, exposed it to sale at Stourbridge on cheap terms, as the worse for wetting; and even saved by the bargain. Next year he returned again with some other of his townsmen, proffering drier and dearer cloth to be sold; so that within a few years hither came a confluence of buyers, sellers and lookers-on, which are the three principles [and principals] of a fair. In memoriâ therof, Kendal men challenge some privilege at Stourbridge, annually choosing one of their town to be chief, before whom an antic sword was carried, with some mirthful solemnities. (*Fuller.*) *Tusser* advises that —

> At Bartlemew-tide or at Stourbridge fair
> Buy that as is needful thy house to repair.

And *Mavor*, in a note, says that Stourbridge fair, near Cambridge, is held on the 18th of September, and a fortnight following. It is still the great mart for the neighbouring counties, though much declined.—In the Accounts, there were bought at Stourbridge fair, in September 1589, eight couple of ling, 26s. 8d.; fifteen and a half couple of cod, 12s.; fifteen and a half couple of stock fish, 10s.; and the carriage of sixteen ling and thirty-one cod from Stourbridge to Bolton cost 10s., and that of a pack of fish, &c. 11s. September 1594, six couple of ling (at 6s. the couple) bought at Stourbridge fair, 36s.; September 1595, six couple of ling, bought at the fair, 40s.; carriage to Smithills, 8s. 6d.; September 1596, six couple of ling, bought there, 36s.; carriage to Bolton, 12s.; September and October 1621, at Stourbridge, for a hundred, a quarter, and sixteen lb. (156 lbs.) of hops (at £3 18s. the hundred) £5 6s.; a couple of ling, 8s. 6d.; a couple of "habberdyne" (salted cod) 12d.; to two porters there, 6d. [Then follow many purchases of books, stationery, compasses, cloths, lace, silk, spices, and a bag to put them in, a lute and case, and a bandore and case; all of which were probably bought at Stourbridge or in London, for there are entries of] a porter, 4d.; lost by a piece of gold, 12d.; carriage from London to Halifax, 5s. 6d., and carriage of a pack from Stourbridge to Preston, 15s.; while Thomas Yate spent in his journey to Stourbridge (travelling on his own mare—her foot was dressed for 6d., and a shoe for her cost 4d.), thence to London and so to Gawthorpe, 39s. In 1561, the "Lent stuff" (i.e. dried and salt fish) bought at Stourbridge fair and in the country, for the Earl of Derby's household, cost £77 8s. 4d. (*Stanley Papers*, part ii.)

Strange, Lord. In September 1586 there was a muster and show of light horsemen for her majesty's service at Preston, before my Lord Strange. In September 1593, the keeper of Knowsley Park brought a fat doe to the Smithills as a present from Lord Strange, and had a fee of 5s. Both these are within the life of Henry, fourth Earl of Derby, whose eldest son, Ferdinando, (succeeding his father in 1593) would then be Lord Strange.

Strawberries. (*Fragaria.*) There be divers sorts; one red, another white, a third green, and likewise a wild strawberry, altogether barren of fruit. They prosper well in gardens; the red everywhere; the other two more rare, and are not to be found save only in gardens. The berries, which are ripe in June to July, are called *Fraga* by Virgil and Ovid; in

French *fraises.* Ripe strawberries quench thirst, cool heat of the stomach and inflammation of the liver, and taketh away redness and heat of the face. (*Ger.*, who figures the three varieties named.) The strawberry was brought into England from Flanders about 1530; the oriental strawberry from the Levant in 1724. (*Haydn.*) In *Lawson's New Orchard and Garden* (6th edition, 1683) is the passage: "Your borders on every side hanging and dropping with feberries [gooseberries], raspberries, barberries, currants, and the roots of your trees powdered with strawberries, red, white and green; what a pleasure is this!" *Tusser* in September says —

> Wife, into thy garden, and set me a plot
> With strawberry roots, of the best to be got.
>
> * * *
>
> The gooseberry, respis [rasps] and roses, all three
> With strawberries under them trimly agree.

Price gives a recipe to preserve strawberries all the year. *C. C. Dic.* states that strawberries are usually eaten soaked in water or wine, and strewed with sugar; but they may be iced and preserved as well dry as liquid. Recipes are given for a compote of strawberries and for strawberry water. It would seem that strawberries and cream is therefore a comparatively modern innovation. In the Accounts, in June 1612, Mary Ainsworth brought strawberries, and had 3d.; in July 1618, were bought strawberries 4d., and whinberries 2d.

Strickland, Lady. Probably the wife of Sir Thomas Strickland. December 1616, was paid to the Lady Strickland the rest of the money for the land purchased of her, £36 6s. 8d.; June 1620, to Mr. William Abbott, attorney, in part of a greater sum, about a suit betwixt my master (Colonel Richard Shuttleworth) and the Lady Strickland in the chancery of England, 40s.

Strike. To "strike corn" is to pass a flat piece of wood over the top of the measure, usually a bushel, and thus to remove any corn above the level of the measure top. Strike or streeked measure, therefore, is exact measure in contradistinction to up-heaped measure, which latter is only used for things of smaller value. From this mode of measuring the bushel of corn, a bushel came to be called "a strike of corn," consisting usually of four pecks, and in some instances a measure of four bushels or half a quarter was locally called a strike. In the Accounts, in August 1595, a strike of pears cost 12d., and in this case in all probability, notwithstanding the name, the bushel measure would not be struck or levelled, but up-heaped. In 1598 was re-

ceived for corn sold at Gawthorpe, four "stroke" [a plural of strike] (at 3s.) 12s.; two stroke of light corn, 2s. September 1601, paid at Halifax for twelve strike of seed wheat (at 2s. 8d. and 6d. more) 32s. 6d. [It is remarkable that seed wheat for Gawthorpe, near Burnley, Lancashire, should be bought at Halifax.] September 1608, a strike of wood ashes (in London) 16d.

Stubbes. Having frequently quoted this writer's *Anatomie of Abuses*, it may be stated that its first edition appeared 1st May 1583; the second on the 16th August in the same year; the third in 1585, and a fourth in 1595; so that it is strictly synchronous with the Accounts. A reprint of the third edition appeared in 1836, edited by W. B. D. D. Turnbull Esq., Advocate, F.S.A., Scotland.

Stubbing. Stub is an old root or stump; stubby, short and thick like a stump; to stub, is to grub up these stocks or roots. In the Accounts, in January 1621, two labourers, each twenty days, on their own table, stubbing, &c. (at 7d.), were paid 23s. 4d. But elsewhere in the Accounts, a stubbinge was the name of a large fish. It occurs always as bought with other fish, and in March 1594 is an entry, "Fish, viz. a stubbinge claye [? claw] 20d. April 1595, a stubbinge and half scate fish, 4s.; March 1596, a stobinge, 2s. 4d.; May, a stubbinge, 2s. 7d.; and May 1598, a stubbinge, 15d. The etymology seems to denote a short, thick fish; but the name does not occur in any dictionary or glossary consulted. One of the "pipers" was called the tub-fish.

Stuff. (French *estoffe.*) A term which, in its wider sense, comprehends any kind of cloth as silk stuffs; but in its present signification it denotes a woollen cloth of slight texture for linings. (*B. Dic.*, *Ency.*) In the narrower meaning is the entry in the Accounts, June 1620, of 36 yards of stuff (at 16d.) 48s.

Subsidy (Subsidium.) An aid, tax, or tribute granted to the king for the urgent occasions of the kingdom, to be levied on every subject of ability, according to the value of his lands or goods. There is no certain rate, but as parliament thinks fit, and there is no aid or subsidy to be taken but by assent of parliament. 14th Edw. III. stat 2, cap. 1. (*Jacob.*) "Subsidies," says Lord Coke, "were anciently called *auxilia*, aids, granted by act of parliament, upon need and necessity; as also, for that originally and principally they were granted for the defence of the realm, and the safe keeping of the seas," &c. The word used in its general sense was applied to aids of every description; these were of two kinds, the one perpetual, the other tempo-

rary. Those which were perpetual were the ancient or grand customs, the new or petty customs, and the custom on broad cloth. The temporary included tunnage and poundage; a rate of 4s. in the pound on lands, and 2s. 8d. on goods; and the fifteenths, tenths, &c., of moveable goods. The limited, which is the most common, sense of the word subsidy, attaches only to the rates on lands and goods. The grand customs were duties payable on the exportation of wool, sheep-skins and leather. The petty customs were paid by merchant strangers only, and consisted of one half, over and above the grand customs, payable by native merchants. Tunnage and poundage was a duty varying in amount, at different times, from 1s. 6d. to 3s. upon every tun of wine, and from 6d. to 1s. upon every pound of merchandize, coming into the kingdom. The object in granting it was said to be that the king might have money ready, in case of a sudden occasion demanding it, for the defence of the realm or the guarding of the sea. This kind of subsidy appears to have had a parliamentary origin. The earliest statute mentioned by Lord Coke as having granted it is the 47th Edw. III. (1373). In the early instances it was granted for limited periods, and express provision was made that it should have intermission and vary, lest the king should claim it as his duties. The duties of tunnage and poundage were granted to Henry V. for his life, with a proviso that it should not be drawn into a precedent for the future. However, notwithstanding the proviso, it was never afterwards granted to any king for a less period. These duties were farmed, while Lord Coke was comptroller of the treasury, for £160,000 a year. Subsidy, in its more usual and limited sense, consisted of a rate of 4s. in the pound on lands, and 2s. 8d. on goods; and double upon the goods of aliens. (*Pol. Dic.*) Subsidies, which perhaps fell less heavily on the people than any other taxes, were levied with great partiality; and the produce was extremely various and uncertain. A subsidy which in the 8th Elizabeth (1567) amounted to £120,000, in the 40th year of her reign (1598) was only £78,000. It was continually decreasing, and was so far considered as a personal tax, that a man paid only in the county where he lived, although he possessed various estates in other parts of the kingdom. *Hume* adds that the assessors formed a very loose valuation of a man's property, and rated him accordingly. " When rents fell, or parcels were sold off an estate, the proprietor was sure to represent these losses and obtain a diminution of his subsidy; but when rents rose, or new lands were purchased, he kept his own secret, and paid no more than formerly. The small proprietors or £20 men (for none of less income paid any sub-

sidy) went continually to decay; and when their estates were swallowed up by a greater, the new purchaser increased not his subsidy." . . . . . A more obvious way of accounting for the falling off of the subsidy is to suppose that the size of estates was rather reduced than increased. (*Eden.*) Elizabeth received during the forty-five years of her reign, from parliament, only twenty subsidies and thirty-nine fifteenths, averaging about £66,666 a year. (*Wade.*) For the entries in the Accounts relating to subsidies, see Index.

SUBTLETIES. Often spelled "sotiltees"; devices made of sugar and paste, formerly much used at feasts, and generally closing each course. (*Halli.*) Our cooks of old had great regard to the eye in their compositions; it being for the purpose of gratifying the sight that sotiltees were introduced at the more solemn feasts. Rabelais has comfits of a hundred colours. (*Cury.*) There was no grand entertainment without sotiltees. They were made of sugar and wax, and when first brought in, were called warners, as giving warning of the approach of dinner. (*Lel. Coll.*) There were three sotiltees at the Earl of Devon's feast, a stag, a man, and a tree. Were these succeeded in later times by figures of birds, &c., made in lard, jelly, or sugar, to decorate cakes? (*Cury.*) The art of the confectioner is still exercised in this way in fancy-pieces of sugar work, &c., for decorating the table; also in the adornment of bridecakes, &c. In one recipe of 1390, for "chastelets," [castlets] one direction is to "kerve out keyntlich kyrnels above in the manner of bataiwyng," i.e., carve out quaintly kernels or battlements, in the manner of embattling. (*Cury.*) In merchants' feasts are to be found jellies of all colours mixed with a variety in the representation of sundry flowers, herbs, trees, forms of beasts, fish, fowl, and fruit, and thereunto marchpane wrought with no small curiosity . . . . . . besides infinite devices, not possible for me to remember. (*Harri.*)

SUCKADES OR SUCKETS. A conserve or sweetmeat, to be sucked in the mouth. (*Halli.*) Dryed sucketts are sweetmeats for the mouth. (*Cleaveland.*) In the account of Archbishop Warham's installation feast in 1466, amongst other dainties and sweetmeats were "jelly ipocras, quince and orange pastry, tart melior, leche Florentine, marmalade, succade, comfits, wafers." (*Lel. Coll.*) Socado or sucado is twice mentioned as having been brought to Henry VIII. in 1502-3, once with "marmalade." (*Eliz. Yk.*) Amongst the sweets at merchants' feasts, an Elizabethan writer enumerates marchpane, tarts of divers hues and sundry denominations, conserves of old fruits, foreign and home-bred, suckets, codinacs, [conserves] marmilats, sugar-

bread, gingerbread, florentines, and sundry outlandish confections, altogether seasoned with sugar. (*Harri.*) "Instead of suckets, twelve raw puddings." (*Taylor*, 1630.) A writer of the period gives the following recipe — To make suckets: Take curds, the paring of lemons, of oranges or pome-citrons, or indeed any half-ripe green fruit, and boil them till they be tender in sweet-wort. Then make a syrup in this sort: three lb. sugar, the whites of four eggs, and a gallon of water. Swing and beat the water and eggs together, then put in your sugar, set it on the fire, let it have an easy fire, and so let it boil six or seven walmes [bubblings in boiling]; then strain it through a cloth, and set it on again till it fall from the spoon, and then put it into the rinds or fruits. (*Mark.*) For a marriage feast of 1530, three lb. suckets cost 4s.; in 1528, for the sheriff of Yorkshire's diet at the Lent assizes, two little barrels of green ginger and suckets, 3s.; and at the August assizes, one barrel of green ginger and suckets cost 4s. Sucket of mallow-stalks was kept as a wet sucket in syrup; a sucket was made of lettuce-stalks. (*Sir Ken. Digby's Closet Opened*, which gives recipes for both.)

SUGAR. (*Saccharum officinarum.*) It is not known at what date sugar was introduced into England; but certainly prior to Henry VIII. (*Haydn.*) In an account of provisions for the house of Whalley Abbey in 1478, is the entry, "Pro sucaro inrolat. et al. sp'ebus, 14d." [for rolled sugar and other spices.] Dr. Whitaker in a note observes on this as proving that sugar was in use amongst us before the discovery of America, but (he adds) its history is not well ascertained. The sugar cane, however, appears from "*Pancirollus* de Rebus Inventis," to have been grown in Sicily and manufactured at Venice, though probably in small quantities, some centuries before his time. It was rather considered as a balsamic or pectoral medicine, than an article of food. In 1521 are entries under similar heads, of "succar-cande 1s." [sugar candy] and "succar" 9s. (*Whall.*) Dr. Samuel Pegge, in the proem to *Cury*, says that sugar was now (1390) beginning in England to take the place of honey; in one recipe they are directed to be boiled together. Sugar came from the Indies, by way of Damascus and Aleppo, to Venice, Genoa, and Pisa, and from these last places to us. (*Moll.*; *Harris.*) It was not only frequently used in the royal English cookery of the fourteenth century, but was of various sorts, as "Cypre," named probably from the Isle of Cyprus, whence it might either come directly to us, or where it received some improvement, as refining. Some sugar was used in the making of blanche powder, also of blanc desire; a white sugar is

named; also sugar clarified with wine. In "Cawdel ferry" a "great quantity of sugar cypre" is to be used, and when the dish is messed forth, "lay thereon sugar and powder ginger." Sugar cypre also enters into "viand royal," and "tenches in cynee. "Pears in comfyt" are to be soaked in a syrup made of white sugar, &c. (*Cury.*) For a marriage feast in 1530, two loaves of sugar, weighing 16 lb. 12 oz. (at 7d.) cost 9s. 9d. A manuscript letter from Sir Edward Wootton to Lord Cobham, dated Calais, 6th March, 1546, states that Sir Edward had taken up for his lordship twenty-five sugar loaves at 6s. a loaf, "which is 8d. a lb." The art of refining sugar was made known to the Europeans by a Venetian in 1503. It was first practised in England in 1659, though some authorities say we had the art among us a few years earlier. (*Anderson*; *Mortimer.*) Sugar, though noticed by many authors even as early as the fourteenth century, continued to be very dear in the reign of James I. (*Eden.*) It first came to England from Barbary and Cyprus, where the sugar cane was introduced by the Moors, and was taken thence to Spain and the Canaries. Anciently honey was the chief ingredient used as a sweetener of our dishes and liquors; but sugar, notwithstanding its extravagant price, was very generally substituted in the place of honey, even as early as the reign of Richard II. Sack and sugar was a favourite beverage of our ancestors. (*Pulleyn.*) The first recipes in *Price* are to clarify sugar (with white of egg), to boil sugar to the degree called smooth, to that called blown (when it will form air bubbles), till it be feathered, or crackled, or carmel (snapping like glass), which is the highest and last degree of boiling sugar. Similar directions for these processes are given in the *C. C. Dic.*, which it describes as the six ways of boiling sugar, viz. smooth, pearled, blown, feathered, cracked, and caramel (q.d. dear honey), which last is proper for barley sugar. "Thin sugar" is clarified sugar, mixed with half its bulk of water; sugar-candy is blown sugar, allowed to crystallise on small sticks. This book also gives recipes for sugar cakes, paste, omelettes, sultanes, &c. For the cost of sugar of various sorts, and sugar-candy, see Index.

SUMPTUARY LAWS. In these days [1574] had very great excess of apparel spread itself all over England, and the habit of our country, through a peculiar vice incident to our apish nature, grew into such contempt, that men by new-fashioned garments, and apparel too gaudy, discovered a certain deformity and insolency of mind, whilst they jetted up and down in their silks, glittering with gold and silver, either embroidered or laced. When the queen had observed that, for maintenance of this excess, a great quan-

tity of money was carried yearly out of the land, to buy silks and other outlandish wares, to the impoverishing of the commonwealth; and others that they might seem noble, did, with their private loss, not only waste their patrimonies, but also run so far into debt, that of necessity they fell into danger of the laws, and sought to raise troubles and commotions, when they had wasted their own estates, — although she might have proceeded against them by the laws of King Henry VIII. and Queen Mary, and thereby exacted a great sum of money, yet she chose rather to deal by way of commandment. She commanded therefore by way of proclamation, that every man should within fourteen days conform his apparel to a fashion prescribed, lest they should provoke the severity of the laws; and she began herself in her own court. But through the malice of time, both this proclamation, and the laws also, gave way by little and little, to this excess of pride, which still grew more and more insolent. And withal crept in riot in banqueting and bravery in building. For now began more noblemen's and private men's houses to be raised here and there in England, built with neatness, largeness, and beautiful show, than ever in any other age, and surely to the great ornament of the kingdom, but decay of the glory of hospitality. In the beginning of this year [1580] the neck attire, which we call ruffs, being above measure large, and with huge wide sets, and with cloaks reaching down almost to the ankles, no less uncomely than of great expence, were restrained by proclamation. Swords also were reduced to the length of three feet, daggers to twelve inches without the handle, and the pikes of bucklers' bosses to two inches. (*Camden's Eliz.*)

Suppers. In the sixteenth century sack was drunk to supper, and fruit eaten afterwards; sometimes music books were brought in, every one taking a part. In the reign of Henry VIII., though the hour for supper was six p.m., there was a later meal called the "after-supper," being that at which wine was chiefly used. See notes on Food, Meals, &c. For the suppers in the Accounts, which are chiefly those at inns, during journeys, see Index.

Surveying. To survey is to measure, lay out, or particularly describe a manor or estate in lands, and to ascertain not only the boundaries and royalties thereof, but the tenure of the respective tenants, the rent and value of the same, &c. (*Jacob.*) The oldest book on this art is that of Sir Anthony Fitzherbert, printed in 1539, entitled "The Boke of Surveyinge," written subsequently to his "Boke of Husbandrye"; as the groundwork of which (he states in his prologue) he takes the old statute (4th Edward I.

1275-6) named "Extenta Manerii." He gives the original Latin of the statute divided into seventeen chapters, with a translation and commentary after each clause. The remainder of the treatise (chapters 18 to 40 inclusive) is full of curious but very miscellaneous instruction. If a man shall view a close or a pasture, he may not look over the hedge, and go his way; but he must either ride or go over, and see every parcel thereof, and to know how many acres it containeth, and how much thereof was meadow ground, how much pasture ground, wood or bush, heath, ling, or such other, and what an acre of meadow ground is worth, and what an acre of pasture, and what an acre of the wood ground, of bush, and such other, be worth. And what manner of cattle it is best for, and how many cattle it will grass, or find by the year, and what a beast's grass is worth by the year in such a pasture; or else he cannot set a true value what it is worth. Therefore a surveyor must be diligent and laborious, and not slothful and reckless, for and he be, he is not worthy to receive his wages, and may fortune to make an imperfect book; and if he do so, it is to his shame and rebuke, and great jeopardy to his soul to make a false precedent. . . . . . . He that shall view, butt and bound lands or tenements by east, west, north and south, it is necessary that he have a dial with him; for else, and the sun shine not, he shall not have perfect knowledge which is east, west, north and south. For many times the lands or meadows do not lie alway even east, &c., but sometime more of one part than another, as south-east or south-west, &c.; some two parts of the one and but the third part of the other, as north-north-east, north-north-west, &c. But it needeth not to a surveyor to take so narrow a diversity, but to butt it upon the most part as it lieth, and then must the dial give him perfect knowledge how it lieth, and so must he title it in his book; and he must stand in the midst of the flat, when he shall butt truly. (*Fitz.*) To "butt" is to ascertain and state what adjacent land, water, &c., abuts upon each boundary of the land surveyed.—In December 1616 was spent by Thomas Remington (a steward of one of the Yorkshire manors of the Shuttleworths) when he surveyed the Crossdell beck, three days and two nights, 2s. A survey of a manor, coupled with its valuation, was formerly called an "Extent," not as merely ascertaining its superficial extent, by extending over it the measuring chain, but as ascertaining the extent of its money value, by estimation or valuation. To extend was, therefore, to value an estate, and a writ de extenta was a commission to the sheriff for the valuing of lands or tenements. (*Jacob.*) Surveyors of highways were first appointed by the statute 2nd and 3rd of Philip and Mary, cap. 8, (1555-6.)

SWEETMEATS. *Webs.* limits the meaning too much in giving it only to fruits preserved with sugar. It evidently includes all the dry productions of the confectioner's art, especially every variety of comfit, lozenge, &c., prepared with honey, sugar, or anything to give them sweetness. *Ainsworth* defines them as (*bellaria*) dainties, the second course of tarts, confects, junkets, candied or preserved fruits; in short, what we now call dessert. The title-page of *C. C. Dic.* includes "directions for setting out a dessert of sweetmeats to the best advantage." From the text it appears that these included not only various fresh, dried and preserved fruits, but "all sorts of sweetmeats, biscuits, marchpanes, &c." In a dessert placed in wicker baskets, for entertainments of fraternities or societies, the most delicious comfits were placed at the top of the baskets, "and every person eats only the liquid sweetmeats, and shuts up and takes away his basket to carry home." *Price* says: "For country ladies it is a pretty amusement both to make the sweetmeats and dress out a dessert." Several bills of fare for dessert are given, in which, besides fruit, occur various ice creams, syllabubs, &c., white and coloured wafers, heart, savoy, sponge and other biscuits, wet and coloured sweetmeats in glasses, sweetmeats wet and dry (as the centre dish), ratafia and other cakes, sweetmeats wet and dry, piled upon salvers with crisped almonds and nicknacks. In the Accounts most sweetmeats are named, and will be found under the notes thereon; but the following entries are simply of sweetmeats: In July 1620, paid to Mr. Lever for sweetmeats, as by bill appeareth, £3 3s.; June 1620, received of my master, to buy sweetmeats at Manchester, 50s. Mr. Lever's bill (pp. 212-213) will show what were then included in the term sweetmeats.

SWEET POWDER. Of this name were two very different things; one a mixture of the milder and sweeter spices with sugar, and called "poudre douce," for use in various dishes of the fourteenth century cookery for the table; and the other, a mixture of odorous herbs and aromatic spices, &c., as a perfume powder, with which to scent the person or the apparel. The former, or powder-douce, Dr. Pegge thinks was either powder of galingale or a powder of sundry aromatic spices ground and beaten small, and kept always at hand for use. It is occasionally termed good powders, or powder only, and when white was termed blanche powder, which was bought ready prepared. (*Cury*, 1381-1390.) But in the Accounts, in July 1620, "one lb. of sweet powder 4s." does not occur with spices, sugar, &c., but in the midst of gloves, ruffs, and other articles of dress. A recipe of the period runs thus:—To make sweet powder for bags: Take of orris, four

oz.; gallaminis, one oz.; citis, half an oz.; rose leaves dried, two handfuls; dried marjoram and spike, each one handful; cloves, one oz.; benjamin and [bo]rax, each two oz.; white and yellow sanders, each one oz. Beat all these into a gross powder: then put to it of musk a dram; civet and ambergris, each half a dram: then put them into a taffety-bag and use it. Another is: Take orris and damask rose leaves, each six oz.; marjoram and sweet basil, each one oz.; cloves and yellow sanders, each two oz.; citron peels, seven drams; lignum aloes, benjamin, and storax, each one oz; musk, one dram. Bruise all these, and put them into a bag of silk or linen. (*Mark.*)

SWINE. (Latin *suinus*, Anglo-Saxon *swin*, Swedish and Danish *svin.*) Now, thou husband, it were mercy that thou have both swine and bees; for it is an old saying:

He that hath swine, bees and sheep,
He may thrive, wake he or sleep.

Because they be those things that most profit riseth of in shortest space, to least cost. Then see how many swine thou art able to keep, and let them be boars and sows all, and no hogs. If thou be able to rear six pigs a year, let two of them be boars and four sows, and so to continue after the rate. For a boar will have as little keeping as a hog, and is much better than a hog and more meat on him, and is ready at all times to eat in the winter season, and to be laid in souse. (*Fitz.*) *Tusser* in January says —

Of one sow, together, rear few above five,
And those of the fairest, and likely to thrive.
* * * *
Who hath a desire to have store very large,
At Whitsuntide let him give housewife a charge
To rear of a sow at once only but three,
And one of them also a boar let it be.

As for swine, there is no place that hath greater store, nor more wholesome in eating, than are these here in England, which nevertheless do never any good till they come to the table. In champaigne countries they are kept by herds, and a hogherd [swineherd] appointed to attend and wait upon them, who commonly gathereth them together by his noise and cry, and leadeth them forth to feed abroad in the fields. (*Harri.*) The swine is the husbandman's best scavenger and the housewife's most wholesome sink; for his food and living is by that which else must rot in the yard, make it beastly, and breed no good manure; or, being cast down the ordinary sink

of the house, breed noisome smells, corruption, and infection; for from the husbandman he taketh pulse, chaff, barn dust, garbage, and the weeds of his yard; from the housewife her draff, swillings, whey, washing of tubs, and such like, with which he will live and keep a good state of body very sufficiently; and though he is accounted good in no place but in the dish only, yet there is so lovely and so wholesome, that all other faults may be borne with. (*Mark.*) This writer gives directions for the choice of swine, preferring those of Leicestershire and Northamptonshire; for the rearing of pigs, the feeding of swine, and tending them by the swineherd (recommending once a fortnight raddle or red ochre to be mixed with the swillings given them, as a preservation from measles and other inward infections); recipes for the cure of various diseases; how to feed swine very fat, whether in woods, champaigne country, or in or about great cities. See also BACON, BOAR, BRAWN, HOG, PIG, PORK, SOW, &c., in Notes and Index. In the Index, under swine, will be found various entries for ringing them, taking them up, &c.

SWINGLE. The first operation in dressing flax is to swingle or beat it, in order to detach it from the harle or skimps. A swingle hand, head, or stock, is a wooden instrument made like a falchion, with a hole cut in the top to hold it by; it is used for the clearing of hemp and flax from the large broken stalks or shoves, by the help of the swingle-foot, which it is hung upon, which said stalks, being first broken, bruised, are cut into shivers by a brake. (*Holme.*) See also FLAX and HEMP.

SWIPPLE. The part of a flail (the blade) which strikes the corn. It is still used in Warwickshire. (*Halli.*) Swupple, or souple (French *souple*, Isl. *sweipa*, to strike) is the upper joint of a flail. In Cheshire it is called a swippo. (*B. Gloss.*) In December 1619, twelve "swipples to the drister-hanye" cost 4d.; that is, twelve blades to the dryster's handle, i.e. the flail. In January 1621, eight "hollin-swipples" (flail blades of holly) cost 6d.

SYLE. In the Accounts, in July 1601, "one syle to syle milk with" cost 2d. To sile (Su.-Gothic *sila*, colare) is to strain or purify milk through a straining dish, so as to cleanse it from impurities. A sile (Su. Gothic *sil*, Swedish *sil*) is a fine sieve or milk strainer. (*B. Gloss.*) To soil or sile milk is to cleanse or strain it, to cause it to subside; to sile down, in Lincolnshire [and the north], is to fall to the bottom, or subside. (*Ray, Grose.*) To sile, is to strain or skim; to sink, drop or settle; to flow or rain; to boil gently or simmer. A siling-dish (north) is a milk-strainer. (*Halli.*)

Symondstone, now Simonstone, is a small township in the parish of Whalley, close to Padiham and four miles west of Burnley, near the river Henburn. It has an area of 900 acres, and Simonstone House is the residence of C. Whitaker Esq. The township is to a great extent the property of the Starkies and the Whitakers; but at the period of our Accounts a considerable portion was held by the Shuttleworths. Simonstone is contiguous to Read on the east side. It was formerly held by the Holdens, who were there in 1361; but in the reign of Elizabeth it was [partly] in the possession of the Braddylls. It was long a residence of a branch of the Whitakers from High Whitaker. (*Whalley.*) In 1617, one year's rent, paid to the Shuttleworths for Symondstone, was 26s. 8d.

Tables. (*Tabularum lusus.*) The old name for backgammon, and so called in French. In *Love's Labour Lost* we are told of one who, "when he plays at tables, chides the dice;" and in an old epitaph, "Man's life's a game at tables." It was also the name for other games played with the same boards and men. (*Nares.*) Tables or backgammon is said to have been invented about the tenth century, and to have been one of the favourite sedentary games of the Anglo-Saxons, the Danes, and the Normans. The name has by some been derived from two Welsh words, signifying "little battle," but it is more probably Anglo-Saxon from *bac* or *bæc* and *gamen*, i.e. back-game, from the players bringing their men back from their antagonists' tables into their own, or because the pieces are sometimes obliged to go back, or re-enter at the table they came from. (*Strutt*, who figures "tables" of the thirteenth and also of the fourteenth century, and describes several varieties of the game.) In December 1597, the steward gives 6d. to my master (Sir Richard Shuttleworth) for to play at tables.

Tabling. What we now call board; usually the food of labourers or workmen, or its cost. A tabler was a person who boarded others for hire. (*Coles.*) To table is to board or live at the table of another. (*Halli.*) "All supper-while, if they table together." (*Man in Moon*, 1609.) The payments of wages, or for any work done in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, were distinguished as with or without food; in the latter case the labourer or workman is stated to have done the work "on his own table," that is, boarding or dieting himself, at his own cost. Sometimes payments are made for the tabling of servants and labourers sent to a distance. Nearly fifty entries of tabling will be found in the Accounts, for which see Index.

Taffeta or Taffety. (French *taffetas.*) A fine smooth silk fabric,

having usually a remarkable wavy lustre, imparted by pressure and heat with the application of an acidulous fluid, to produce the effect called watering. (*Ency. Dom. Econ.*) This was anciently called *Sendal*, and was always an eminent stuff. In the thirteenth century it was chiefly used for linings of rich garments. Gowns of changeable taffeta (i.e. shot silk) occur. (*Strutt; Fosb.*) A sort of thin silk. (*Halli.*) "No taffety more changeable than they." (*Taylor*, 1630.) In February 1537, taffeta for a gown cost 2s. (*Princess Mary.*) In the Accounts, August 1610, half a quarter ($4\frac{1}{2}$ inches) of bl: taffitie and two yards of threepenny-broad ribbon for my master 2s.; half a quarter of green taffitie 18d.; September 1612, half an ell ($2\frac{1}{2}$ quarters or $22\frac{1}{2}$ inches) of taffitie to my mistress 8s. 6d.; April 1613, to John Starkie of Padiham, for a quarter and a half ($13\frac{1}{2}$ inches) of taffytie to my mistress 6s.; December 1617, one ell (five quarters) of changeable taffitie 15s.; February 1618, half a yard of taffitie for my mistress 6s.; February 1619, half a yard of taffitie for my mistress 5s. 6d.; July 1621, eight yards of taffatie (at 7s.) 56s.

Tailors and Tailoring. In former times tailors made the dress of both men and women, and as early as the fourteenth century worked upon boards sitting cross-legged. (*Fosb.*) Many were the jests current upon them at all times, owing to the effeminacy of their business, using needles, thread, thimbles, &c. How old the sarcasm of nine tailors making a man may be, does not appear; but it is very old. It appears in Shakspere and his contemporaries; and it was also imputed to them that they were fond of rolls, hot or cold. In the *Taming of the Shrew*, Katharine's dress is brought in by the tailor, formerly spelled taylor and taylior. (*Nares.*) The company anciently named "tailors and linen armourers," incorporated in 1466, were reincorporated in 1503 as the merchant tailors. In the scarce tract of "O per se O" (1612) Birchin Lane is described as the quarter of the tailors or linen armourers. They were great importers of cloth as early as temp. Edward III. In June 1563, when Mr. Sergeant Fleetwood (steward of one of their manors) was chosen recorder of London, the tailors' company voted him a hogshead of wine. In 1588 the quota of soldiers for this company against the Spanish armada was "thirty-five men well armed." John Stowe, the antiquary, was a member of the company, and on presenting them with his "Annals," they settled on him an annuity of £4, afterwards raised to £6, and subsequently to £10. They also restored his monument. (*Herbert.*) In the Accounts, in October 1620, was paid to Pullen the tailor and his man, for either three days' work at making

of my mistress' waistcoat, 2s. (4d. a day each.) For the numerous entries of tailoring in the Accounts, see that word in the Index, also Smalley Thomas.

Tanner and Tanning. The process of tanning leather with the bark of trees was early practised by various nations, being of oriental origin. The name cordovan was derived from the eminence of the tanners of goat skins at Corduba in Spain. Our ancient tanners obstructed rivers and water courses, and thus occasioned inundations. (*Fosb.*) The monasteries had their tanneries till the statute of 21st Henry VIII. (1529) forbade priests, whether secular or regular, to engage in such base employments. The Accounts of Whalley Abbey in 1478 contain receipts of the tanneries £3 6s. 8d., and in 1521 the same amount. (*Whalley.*) *Dr. Fuller* observes that though the monks themselves were too fine-nosed to dabble in tan fats, yet they kept others (bred in that trade) to follow their work. These convents, having bark of their own woods, hides of the cattle of their own breeding and killing, and, which was the main, a large stock of money to buy at the best hand, and to allow such chapmen [as] they sold to a long day of payment, easily ate up such as were bred in that vocation. (*Hist. of Abbeys.*) I might add the profit ensuing by the bark of oak, whereof our tanners have great use in dressing of leather, and which they buy yearly in May by the fadame [a fathom of wood in husbandry is the sixth part of a quantity called a coal-fire. *Dic. Rus.* and *B. Dic.*] as I have oft seen; only this I wish, that our sole and upper leathering may have their due time, and not be hasted on with extraordinary slights, as with ash bark, &c., whereby it doth prove in the end to be very hollow, and not able to hold out water. (*Harri.*) For the entries in the Accounts, see Index.

Tar. (Anglo-Saxon *tare*, *tyr*, *tyrwa*; Danish, *tiere*; Gael. *tearr.*) This was in great request as an ingredient in all ointments or salves for the wounds of animals, especially for sheep cut by the shears in clipping. *Fitz.* says a shepherd should not go any where without his tar box either with him or ready at his sheepfold. If a sheep be scabbed, shed the wool, and with thy finger lay a little tar thereon. Let thy tar be medled [mixed] with oil, goose grease, or capons' grease. These three be the best, for they will make the tar to run abroad. Butter and swine's grease [lard] when they be molten are good, so they be not salt; for tar of himself is too keen, and is a fretter, and no healer, when it be medled with some of these. Some sheep will be blind a season, and yet mend again; and if thou put a little tar in his eye he will mend the rather. There be divers waters and

other medicines that would mend him; bnt this is the most common medicine that shepherds use. For numerous entries of tar, see Index, also notes on Sheep Clipping and Shepherd.

Tarleton Boat. The ferry at Tarleton, nine miles south-west of Preston. Tarleton Moss is north of the village. In September 1618, the ferryage for "my master and mistress" was 6d.

Tarragon. So called from Tarragona in Spain, where it abounds. It is the *Draco-herba*, or herb Dragon-wort, of the older herbalists; the *Artemisia dracunculus* of later. It was formerly eaten in salads, and used in perfuming vinegar in France. (*Ger.*, &c.) The tops and young shoots are to be used in salad, especially where there is much lettuce; being hot and spicy, highly cordial, &c. (*Evel. Acet.*) In the Accounts tarragon seed was bought (2d.) for sowing in the kitchen garden (page 213).

Tawing. Dressing white leather, commonly called alum leather, in contradistinction from tan leather or that which is dressed with bark. (*Todd's Johnson.*) See Index.

Teals. The common teal (*Querquedula Crecca*) is one of the smaller varieties of the duck tribe. Besides the migrants arriving in our marshes from the North about the end of September and leaving us in the spring, we have our own indigenous birds, permanently staying with us, breeding in Northumberland, Cumberland, and the borders of some of the Welsh lakes. Of all our water-fowl this is the most delicate for the table, and as Willoughby says, doth deservedly challenge the first place among those of its kind. Accordingly we find it usually among abundance of good things composing the lordly banquets of the olden time. (*Mus. An. Nat.*) Teal are very plentiful in Lancashire. (*Leigh.*) In the first course of a wedding dinner in 1526, seven teals were served on one dish. For the same feast thirty dozen mallards and teal cost £3 11s. 8d. In 1528 for the Assize diet in August, mallards, teal and other wild fowl cost 42s. (*Cury.*) These birds cost 1d. each in the *North. Ho. Book.* For numerous entries in the Accounts see Index.

Temes or Temse. (Belgic *Teems*, *tems*, French *tamis.*) A fine seirce, a small sieve; whence comes our "Temse bread." (*Ray.*) Temse, a sieve of hair-cloth, used in separating flour from bran, or fine from coarser flour. (*Finchale.*) The sifting-room is called in the North the temsing-chamber. To temse is to sift. (*B. Gloss.*) A tems-loaf is bread of sifted or fine flour, such as a fine manchet. (*Cotgrave.*) In a note in *Tusser*, *Mavor* says the tems-loaf is made of a mixture of wheat and rye, out of which the coarser

bran only is taken. — In May 1593, a milking piggin, a can, and a "temes siffe" cost 6d.; March 1601, two hemp temes, 14d.; July, to a smith in Whalley for 6 lb. iron to mend the temes with, and for working the same, 16d.; April 1619, a temes sive to the deye (dairy-maid), 2d.

TENANTS, (*tenens*, from *tenere* to hold.) One that holds or possesess lands or tenements by any kind of right, either in fee, for life, years, or at will. There are various kinds of tenants, as tenants in dower, in frank-marriage, by statute-merchant, by the curtesy, by (writ of) elegit, in mortgage, by the verge (i.e. by the rod in the ancient court of demesne), by copy of court roll, by knight's service, in burgage, in soccage, in frank-fee, in villenage, in fee-simple, in fee-tail, at will of the lord by custom of the manor, at will by common law, on sufferance, of estate or inheritance, in chief; sole tenant, several tenant, joint-tenants, tenants-in-common, &c. (*Jacob.*) See Index.

TENCH. (*Cyprinus tinca*, Linnæus.) A fish with a golden body and transparent fins, which inhabits most stagnant waters, is very prolific, and tenacious of life, and will live all the winter under water. (*Crabb.*) A tench is a good fish and healeth all manner of other fish that be hurt, if they may come to him. He is the most part of the year in the mud, and he stirreth most in June and July, in other seasons but little. He is an evil biter. His baits be these : — For all the year, brown bread toasted, with honey, in likeness of a buttered loaf; and the great red worm. As for chief, take the black blood in the heart of a sheep, flour and honey, and temper them altogether some deal softer than paste, and anoint therewith the red worm ; and they will bite much the better thereat at all times. (*Fishing with an Angle.*) The slime of a tench is very medicinal to wounded fishes; therefore he is commonly called the fishes' physician. When the pike is sick or hurt, he applies himself to the tench, and finds cure by rubbing himself against him. The tench hath a greater love for ponds than clear rivers, and loves to feed in very foul water; yet his food is nourishing and pleasant. He is a great lover of large red worms, and will bite most eagerly at them if you first dip them in tar. He loves also all sorts of paste, made up with strong-scented oils or tar, or a paste of brown bread and honey. He will bite also at cud-worm, lob-worm, flag-worm, green-gentle, cud-bait, marsh-worm, or soft-boiled bread-grain. (*Gent. Recreat.*, *Nares*, &c.) In 1528, twelve great tenches cost 16s. (*Cury.*) For entries in the Accounts see Index; also as to "tench-cobs," which may mean young tench, as "cobs" is a name for young herrings.

TENDE. Literally tenth; hence meaning tithe. An old MS. has the couplet —

> Right wise he was, God his friend,
> And truly gave to Him his tende.

In 1582, staples for a lock were set on the "tende barne dowre" or tithe barn door.

TENTING. Attending to, guarding, especially as to cattle or live stock, poultry, &c. To take tent is to take heed or care, and *Ray* gives the Cheshire proverb:

> I'll tent thee, quoth Wood;
> If I can't rule my daughter, I'll rule my good.

A tenter is a person who watches or who tends cows: in the north it sometimes means a hired toll-collector. For entries of payments for tenting, see Index.

THACKER, THACKING, THATCHER, THATCHING. In November 1590, a "thacker" at Tingreve, "thacking" three days, and one to serve him, were paid 3s. 6d. The original meaning of "thacke" (*thaccan* Anglo-Saxon, to cover) was straw or rushes, our Saxon ancestors using no other covering for their houses. Afterwards it was extended to slates and tiles; and he who covered a building either with these or the more ancient materials, was called a thacker or thatcher. (*Hallamsh. Gloss.*) Pegs for securing thatch were called thack pricks; thack tiles were roof tiles (*Grose*), and a "thacstare" was a thatcher (*P. P.*) Thack nail was a wooden pin or stob used in fastening thatch to the roof. (*B. Gloss.*) "Houses of thacke" (*Chaucer.*) See Index.

THORNBACK. (*Raia clavata.*) One of the ray family. The thornback is very common on our coasts, and is taken in abundance for the table in spring and summer, when it visits the shallows. The flesh, however, is in the best condition in November. The female is known under the term of "Maid." The skin is covered with thorny tubercles; whence its name. (*Mus. An: Nat.*) It was often called thornbag, as in the Accounts; see Index.

THRAFFE, THRAVE. (*Thraf* Anglo-Saxon.) Twenty-four sheaves of corn or twenty-four bundles of straw make a thrave (*B. Gloss.*), twelve or twenty-four sheaves of corn, now more commonly called a shock. (*Nares.*) It also meant a company of threshers. In an old MS. a knave is said to be "the worst of a thrave." (*Halli.*) See Index.

THREAD. Thread is of course coeval with spinning, as its natural result. Vast quantities of thread were imported so late as the fourteenth century. Thread of divers colours occurs in the fifteenth. Coventry was famous for its blue thread, worked in shirts, &c. The bone or thread lace made at Honiton in Devon — a manufacture probably introduced temp. Elizabeth — was formed of fine thread imported from Antwerp. In Lydgate's "London Lickpenny" the "Parys thread," the finest in the land, is described as sold in Cheapside. There are many entries of various sorts of thread in the Accounts; see Index.

THRESHING OR THRASHING CORN. An operation performed in the open air in warm countries; in Britain the flail was commonly used in barns. There was always a floor on purpose, called by the Anglo-Saxons the "thyrstel flor." Threshing, as now, was chiefly confined to autumn and winter. (*Fosb.*) Ere thou thresh thy corn open thy sheaves, and pick out all manner of weed, and then thresh it and winnow it clean, and so thou shalt have good clean corn another year. In some countries about London specially, and in Essex and Kent, they do fan the corn, the which is a very good gise [fashion, method] and a great safeguard for shedding of the corn. (*Fitz.*) A man may thresh, if the corn be good and clean, without some extraordinary abuse or poverty in the grain, in one day, four bushels of wheat or rye, four bushels of rye, six bushels of barley or oats, and five bushels of beans or peas. But the pulse should be exceeding good, otherwise a man should thresh less of it than of any other kind of grain. (*Mark.*) For numerous payments for threshing see Index.

THRUSHES. The common or song-thrush (*Turdus musicus*) is the *sing-drossel* of the Germans, and the throstle or mavis of older English. The red wing (*Turdus iliacus*) is very similar to the common thrush, with which it is often seen. This bird is variously called in different parts of England the red-sided thrush, the wind-thrush, and the swine-pipe. The missel-thrush (*Turdus viscivorus*) is the largest of our British thrushes. The blackbirds or ouzels are now grouped by many naturalists in the family of *Merulidæ* or thrushes. The common blackbird (*M. vulgaris*, the *Turdus merula* of Linnæus), the ring, rock, or tor ouzel (*M. torquata*), and the water ouzel (*Cinctus aquaticus*) or water pyet, dipper, or Betsey-ducker of provincial English, may be named as in the group. (*Mus. An. Nat.*) Of the thrush kind *Ray* enumerates the missel-bird or shrite, the mavis, song-thrush or throstle; the field-fare and red-wing (both birds of passage), ring-ouzel and water-ouzel, and the stare or starling. — The

thrush, under the names of throstle, thyrstylle or thrustell-cock, has been celebrated in our older poetry. In one poem of 1594, "the thrustle-cock and sparrow" are classed among the "little birds, such as our city hedges can afford." A much older MS. piece has

The nightingale, the throstylcoke,
The popejay, the joly laveroke.

In another work of 1652 (*Ashmole*) is the line "Crowes, popinjayes, pyes, pekocks, and *mavies*." Though much eaten, thrushes are not often particularized, being classed generally as "small birds." For entries in the Accounts see Index.

Timber. Although I must needs confess that there is good store of great wood or timber here and there, even now, in some places of England, yet in our days it is far unlike to that plenty which our ancestors have seen heretofore, when stately buildings were less in use. For albeit that there were then greater number of messuages and mansions about in every place, yet were their frames so slight and slender, that one mean dwelling house in our time is able to countervail very many of them; if you consider the present change, with the plenty of timber that we bestow upon them. In times past men were contented to dwell in houses builded of sallow, willow, plum tree, hard beam, and elm, so that the use of oak was in manner dedicated wholly unto churches, religious houses, princes' palaces, noblemen's lodgings, and navigation; but now all these [timber trees] are rejected, and nothing but oak any whit regarded. And yet see the change; for when our houses were builded of willow, then had we oaken men; but now that our houses are come to be made of oak, our men are not only become willow, but a great many (through Persian delicacy crept in among us), altogether of straw, which is a sore alteration. In those the courage of the owner was a sufficient defence to keep the house in safety, but now the assurance of the timber, double doors, locks and bolts, must defend the man from robbing. Now have we many chimneys, yet our tenderlings complain of rheums, catarrhs, and poses [colds in the head]. Then had we none, but reredosses, and our heads did never ache. For as the smoke in those days was supposed to be a sufficient hardening for the timber of the house, so it was reputed a far better medicine to keep the good man and his family from the quack or pose, wherewith as then very few were oft acquainted. We have many woods, forests, parks, which cherish trees abundantly, although in the woodland countries there is almost no hedge that hath not some store of the greatest sort, beside

infinite numbers of hedgerows, groves and springs [young woods, young trees] that are maintained of purpose for the building and provision of such owners as possess the same. Howbeit as every soil doth not bear all kinds of wood, so there is not any wood, park, hedgerow, grove, or forest, that is not mixed with divers, as oak, ash, hasel, hawthorn, birch, beech, hardbeam, hull [holly], sorfe, [the sorbe (Latin *sorbus*) or service tree] quicken asp [the aspen, white poplar, or tremble-tree], poplars, wild cherry, and such like, whereof oak hath always the pre-emininee, as most meet for building and the navy, whereunto it is reserved. Of all the oak growing in England, the park oak is the softest, and far more spalt [splintering] and brittle than the hedge oak. And of all in Essex, that growing in Bardfield Park is the finest for joiners' work, for oftentimes have I seen of their works, so fine and fair as most of the wainscot that is brought hither out of Danske [Denmark]; for our wainscot is not made in England. Nevertheless in building so well the hedge as the park oak go all one way, and never so much hath been spent in a hundred years before as in ten years of our time; for every man almost is a builder, and he that hath bought any small parcel of ground, be it never so little, will not be quiet till he have pulled down the old house (if any were there standing) and set up a new after his own device. Of elm we have great store in every highway and elsewhere; yet have I not seen thereof any together in woods or forests, but where they have been first planted and then suffered to spread after their own wills. Yet have I known great woods of beech and hasel in many places, especially in Berkshire, Oxfordshire, and Buckinghamshire, and where they are greatly cherished and converted to sundry uses, by such as dwell about them. Of all the elms that ever I saw, those in the south side of Dover Court, Essex, near Harwich, are the most notable, for they grow in crooked manner, that they are almost apt for nothing else but navy timber, great ordnance and beetles [heavy wooden mallets], and such thereto is their natural quality, that being used in the said behoof, they continue longer than any the like trees in whatsoever parcel else of this land, without cuphar [French, a cracking], shaking, or cleaving, as I find. Ash cometh up every where of itself, and with every kind of wood. And as we have very great plenty and no less use of these in our husbandry, so we are not without the plane, the ugh [yew] the sorfe, the chestnut, the line, the black cherry, and such like. And although we enjoy them not in so great plenty now in most places, as in times past, or the other afore remembered; yet have we sufficient of them all for our necessary turns and uses,

especially of ugh, as may be seen betwixt Rotherham and Sheffield, and some steads [places] of Kent also, as I have been informed. The fir, frankincense and pine, we do not altogether want, especially the fir, whereof we have some store in Chatley Moor, Derbyshire, Shropshire, Anderness, [Amounderness hundred, co. Lancaster,] and a moss near Manchester, not far from Leircester's house [? Chat Moss]; although that in time past not only all Lancashire but a great part of the coast between Chester and the Soline were well stored. As for the frankincense and pine, they have been planted only in colleges and cloisters, by the clergy and religious heretofore; wherefore we may rather say that we want them altogether; for, except they grew naturally and not by force, I see no cause why they should be accounted for parcel of our commodities. We have also the aspe, whereof our fletchers make their arrows. The several kinds of poplars, of our turners have great use, for bowls, trays, troughs, dishes, &c. Also the alder, whose bark is not unprofitable to dye black withal, and therefore much used by our country wives, in colouring their knit hosen. I might here take occasion to speak of the great sales yearly made of wood, whereby an infinite quantity hath been destroyed within these few years. I dare affirm that if woods go so fast to decay in the next hundred year of grace, as they have done and are like to do in this, sometimes for increase of sheep walks, and some for maintenance of prodigality and pomp, it is to be feared that the fenny bote, broome, turf gall, heath, furze, brakes, whins, ling, dyes, hassocks, flags, straw, sedge, reed, rush, and also sea-coal, will be great merchandise, even in the city of London, whereunto some of them even now have gotten ready passage, and taken up their inns in the greatest merchants' parlours. (*Harri.*) A "timber" of skins consists of 40 skins, pelts, or fells. (*Ib.*) There are numerous entries of timber in the Accounts, for wheels and other things, but chiefly for the erection of the new stone hall of Gawthorpe, its beams, rafters, floors, roofing-frame, and for wainscotting, doors, windows, tables, &c. "Syling timber" is probably for "syles" or rafters; or it may mean for ceiling or wainscotting rooms. Most of the timber was got in Read Wood, or in Little Mytton Wood, but some came from Ireland. This last consisted of 956 pieces; of which in June 1607 were received from Houll, or Holl, [Hoole,] in syling timber [rafters] 300, 4 score and 7 (387) punchions (i.e. joists), and 500, 3 score and 9 (569) panel boards that came forth of Ireland, viz., 956 pieces in all. Again, August 1607, more received of the said timber, viz., 71 panel boards, and in montence [mountance, Anglo-

Norman, an amount] 8 score and 19 (179); so all the timber is come from Holle. See Index; also Notes on TREES, WOODS.

TINGREAVE. The name of an estate or farm held by Sir Richard Shuttleworth in right of his wife. It was formerly a small manor, locally within the parish of Eccleston. For entries see Index.

TIN. Tin, which Strabo noteth in his time to be carried unto Marsilis (Marseilles) from hence, is very plentiful with us in Cornwall, Devonshire, and also in the North. (*Harri*, who describes at length the mixture of tin and lead to form pewter, then in great request.)

TINKER. (*a Tiniendo*) a maker or mender of vessels of brass, copper, &c. (*B. Dic.*) The practice which caused the name has been long disused. A tinker was one who tinked, and formerly tinkers went about giving warning to their vicinity by making a tinkling noise on an old brass kettle. (*Pulleyn.*) In the Accounts, besides the work proper of a tinker, such as mending old pans and metal pots, dripping-tins, trays, milking vessels, pewter cans, warming-pan, &c.,—in December 1588, a tinker was paid 18d. for soldering the lead gutters at Smithills; March 1611, mending a wooden doubler or dish, probably with splicings of wire; May, Henry Douglas the tinker received 3s. for boot (*bote*, Anglo-Saxon, surplus to compensate) betwixt 3 old pans he took, and a new one of his, which he supplied. This tinker seems to have made periodical visits to Gawthorpe for some years. See Index.

TIPPING HILL. A farm about a quarter of a mile south of Gawthorpe Hall. In 1617, the half-year's rent was 13s. 4d. [one mark.]

TITHES. (*Decimæ*, from *teotha*, Anglo-Saxon tenth.) A certain part of the fruit or lawful increase of the earth, beasts' and men's labour, — which, in most places, and of most things, is the tenth part, — which by the law hath been given to the ministers of the gospel, in recompense of their attending their office. (*Jacob.*) Selden has shown that tithes were not introduced into England till about the year 786, when parishes and ecclesiastical benefices came to be settled; for it is said that these being correlative, the one could not exist without the other. Tithes are of three kinds, personal, predial and mixed. Such as arise from the profit of the personal labour of a man, in the exercise of any art, trade, or employment, are called personal tithes. Such as arise immediately from the fruits of the earth, as from corn, hay, hemp, hops, &c., and from all kinds of fruits, seeds, and herbs, are called predial tithes. Such as arise from beasts or fowls, which are fed with the fruits of the earth, are called mixed tithes. Great tithes

generally belong to the rector, and small tithes to the vicar. Great tithes are corn, hay and wood; small tithes comprehend all other predial tithes, as also those which are personal and mixed. Some things may be great or small tithes in regard of the place; as hops, in gardens, are small tithes, and in fields, may be great tithes. The getting will turn a small tithe into a great one, if the parish is generally sown with it. (*Jacob*, who gives a long alphabetical list of things tithable, and those exempt from tithes.) Tithes were originally paid in kind; that is, the tenth wheat sheaf, lamb, or pig, as the case may be, belonged to the parson of the parish as his tithe. The inconvenience and vexation of such a mode of payment are obvious; and sometimes the owner of land would enter into a composition with the parson or vicar, with the consent of the ordinary and patron of the living, by which certain land should be altogether discharged from tithes, on conveying other land for the use of the church, or making compensation. In other words the owner of the land purchased an exemption from tithes; and such arrangements were recognised by law; but it was found that they were often injurious to the church, by reason of an insufficient value being given for the tithes. The acts 1st Elizabeth, cap. 19, and 13th Elizabeth, cap. 10, (1559 and 1571,) were accordingly passed, — which disabled archbishops, bishops, colleges, deans, chapters, hospitals, parsons and vicars, from making any alienation of their property for a longer term than 21 years, or three lives. A large portion of the land of England and Wales is tithe-free from various causes, — as by composition, prescription, but chiefly as having once belonged to religious houses; which were discharged by Pope Paschal II. from paying tithes of lands in their own hands; and the act 31st Henry VIII., cap. 13, (1539-40,) which dissolved various religious houses, continued the discharge of their lands from tithes, though in the possession of the king, or of any other person by grant from the crown; and consequently the lands of many laymen granted by the crown are tithe-free, and the right to tithe and the property in many rectories are vested in laymen. Many monasteries had previously been dissolved by acts of parliament, but as those acts contained no clause continuing the discharge of the lands from tithes, in such cases the lands of dissolved monasteries became chargeable with tithes. (*Pol. Dic.*) In the Accounts the tithes are great or bigger, and small or lesser, also privy tithes. There are tithe-gatherers named. Amongst the entries are many under the denominations of "tithe corn silver," tithe-corn, tithe-corn-rent, &c.; and the other articles on which tithe seems to have been paid were calves, geese, hay, hemp, lambs, pigs, wool, &c. See Index.

Toft. (*Toftum.*) An enclosure, generally the site of a homestead; or "a field where a house or building once stood." (*Kennett.*) A place where a messuage once stood, that is fallen or pulled down. Also (q. d. a tuft) a grove of trees. (*B. Dic.; Jacob;* the latter adding that toftman was the owner or proprietor of a toft.) Every toft paid a certain amount to the gald or tax. In September 1601, in a gald at Padiham, for the maintenance of a suit for Sabden-bank, each oxgang of land was assessed at 18d., and three tofts in the town at 2d. each. In August 1605, a "note" or memorandum was made by Mr. Lawrence Shuttleworth, of "the tofts in Padiham that belong to me," (pp. 164, 165.) Bond yard, "now without a house," was one of these, and these words show that it was essentially in accordance with the signification of the word toft. Another was in Whip croft; and a croft is a little enclosure adjoining a house, for pasture or tillage. Several others denote the former existence of buildings, as the Bridge End, the Chamber of the Hill, the Acre of the Chapel, the Priest Chamber, Black Hall, the Bark House, &c. In all there were twenty-two tofts in Padiham at that time belonging to Lawrence Shuttleworth.

Tolls. (Anglo-Saxon *tol*, *tolnetum*, *vel theolonium.*) Properly a payment in towns, markets and fairs, for goods and cattle bought and sold. A reasonable sum of money due to the owner of a fair or market, upon sale therein of things tollable. It was first invented, that contracts in markets should be openly made before witnesses, and privy contracts were held unlawful. The king pays no toll, and a man may be discharged from payment of toll by the king's grant. Tenants in ancient demesnes are discharged of toll throughout the kingdom for things which arise out of their lands, or are bought for manurance thereof; but not for merchandises. Toll in fairs is generally taken upon the sale of cattle, horses, &c., but in the markets for grain only. It is always to be paid by the buyer. Tollage is the same with tallage (according to *Coke* a general word for all taxes); toll-booth is a place where goods are weighed, &c.; toll corn is corn taken for toll on being ground at a mill; and a toll-hop or toll-dish is a small dish or measure by which toll is taken in a market or fair, &c. (*Jacob.*) The tolls in the Accounts are chiefly for cattle bought at fairs. See Index.

Tools and Implements. A husband must have an axe, a hatchet, a hedging-bill, a pin augur, a rest augur, a flail, a spade, and a shovel. I give them these names as is most commonly used in my country, but I know they have other names in other countries. (*Fitz.*) *Mark.* in his

"Farewell to Husbandry," figures and describes various husbandry tools and implements, including hacks (of iron, well steeled, and reasonably sharp) for cutting clods; clotting beetles or mauls, made of hard and very sound wood; flat beetles of thick ash-boards, more than a foot square and about two inches thick; long, small, toothed wooden nippers for weeds; a fine, thin paring shovel of the best iron, well steeled and hardened round about the edges, for cutting swarth; a harrow made of a white or hawthorn bush, well plashed and crossed by thick logs on the upper side; blocks, like truncated pyramids, to raise stacks upon, &c. From a list in rhyme of "husbandly furniture" in *Tusser* the following are selected: — Short and long pitchforks, straw fork, flail, rake, fan, bushel, peck and strike, casting-shovel, broom, sacks, dung-fork, sieves, skips, bins, pails, hand and wheel barrows, spades, curry-comb, mane-comb, whip, pincers, hammer and nails, scissors, crotches and pins, cart-ladder, wimble, piercer and pod, wheel-ladder, a pulling-hook for bushels and broom, pickaxe and mattock, grindstone, whetstone, hatchet, bill, a frower of iron (for cleaving or splitting laths), short and long saws, axe, adze, a Dover Court beetle (i.e. a very large one, like the rood of Dover), wedges with steel, plough-beetle, barley rake, brush and grass scythes, sickle and mending hook, hayfork and rakes, a scuttle or screen, a clay fork and hook, lath-hammer, trowel and hod or tray, a twitcher and rings for hogs, a sheep mark, tar-kettle, beam, scales and weights, a mole-spear with barbs, a scoop and scavel (a sort of peat spade), a sickle (or hook at the end of a long pole, for cutting weeds at the bottom of a ditch), a diddall (a triangular spade, for cutting and banking-up ditches), a crome (like a dung-rake, for drawing out weeds out of the ditch), clave-stock and rabbit-stock, a jack to saw upon, soles, fetters and shackles, horse-lock, pad, &c. In the Accounts the various tools and implements named will be found under their names in the Index.

TOOTHPICKS. Formerly called pick-tooth. They were probably first used in Italy and France, and travellers returning thence exhibited them as symbols of gentility. In *King John*,

> Now your traveller,
> He, and his toothpick, at my worship's mess.

And Ben Jonson, in his *Devil an Ass* —

> To have all toothpicks brought unto an office,
> There sealed; and such as counterfeit them mulcted.

Massinger, describing a fop or fine gentleman, makes him name —

> My case of toothpicks, and my silver fork.

At one time they were even worn as an ornament in the hat: — "Just like the brooch and toothpick, which wear not now." (*All's Well, &c.*) Sir Thomas Overbury, describing a courtier, the pink of fashion, says, "You shall find him in Paul's, with a pick-tooth in his hat," &c. Bishop Earle says of an idle gallant, "His pick-tooth bears a great part in his discourse;" and Ben Jonson, "What a neat case of pick-tooths he carries about him still." (*Nares.*) In the Accounts, September 1617, for a case and tothpickes, 16d.

Townleys, The. This ancient family derive their name from the hamlet of Townley cum Brunshaw, in the township of Brunley, now Burnley. The old orthography from the time of Stephen or Henry II. to Edward III. was Tunlay; since which it has been successively Thonlay, Touneley, Towneley, Townley, and lately Towneley again. Its import is, the town ley or field. In the time of these Accounts, besides the parent stem of the family seated at Townley, there were branches at Royle, Hurstwood, Hapton Tower, Barnside, and Carr. The Mr. Townley and Mr. Townley of Townley named in the Accounts was in all probability John, the son of Charles Townley, who married his cousin Mary, sole heir of Sir Richard Townley. This John died in 1607, aged 79. Numerous entries respecting transactions with him, presents of deer from him, &c., will be found by the Index. John's eldest son Richard, born in 1566, died in 1628. He married in 1594, Jane, daughter of Richard Assheton of Lever Esq., who survived him, and in 1633 was living at Hapton Tower. Another son of John's was Christopher, born in 1570. The Barnard Townley in the Accounts might be either the son of Edmund and brother of Nicholas of Royle, born in 1587; or the Barnard, son of John, of Hurstwood, whose sister Johanna married Richard Shuttleworth, which Barnard died in 1602. His son John died in 1627; another son Richard was born in 1571. John the son of John was born in 1599, and died in 1664. These were all of Hurstwood. The Henry named in the Accounts was probably of Barnside; he married in 1559 Ann Catteral. Their son Lawrence married Margaret, daughter of Sir Richard Sherburne; and Lawrence's brother Robert had a son Richard, who married Ann Shuttleworth, widow of J. Asheton, and he was killed by a bull about 1655. Lawrence's son Richard married Alice, daughter of John Braddyll Esq., who survived him, and married secondly Christopher Townley the transcriber. These were the principal Townleys of Barnside during the period of the Accounts. (*Whall.*) The Mrs. Townley named

would probably be the Jane Lever, wife of Richard Townley. For those named in the Accounts, see Index.

Trafforthe, Sir Edmund. In April 1587, at Smithills, 12d. was given to musicians of Sir Edmund Trafforthe's. He was of Trafford, and died in 1590. In October 1586, the musicians of Mr. Trafforthe had 12d. This may have been Edmund, only son and heir of Sir Edmund, who in 1588-1592 was M.P. for Newton, a deputy-lieutenant and justice of the peace for Lancashire, and sheriff of the county in 1609 and 1617; having been knighted by James I. at York in 1603. He died in 1620.

Trade. In "Wheeler's Treatise of Commerce," (1601,) some account is given of the company of merchants adventurers, consisting of some fifteen hundred wealthy and well experienced merchants, dwelling in divers great cities, maritime towns, and other parts of the realm, as London, York, Norwich, Exeter, Ipswich, Newcastle, Hull, &c. The company shipped yearly at least 60,000 [pieces of] white cloths, besides coloured cloths of all sorts, kerseys, short and long, bays [baize], cottons [of woollen], northern dozens, &c.; the white cloths worth not less than £600,000 sterling, and the coloured (40,000 cloths at least) worth £400,000. Besides these woollen cloths there goeth also out of England into the Low Countries, wool, fells, lead, tin, saffron, coney skins, leather, tallow, alabaster, stones, corn, beer, and divers other things, amounting to great sums. Of the Dutch and German merchants the company buy Rhenish wine, fustians, copper, steel, hemp, onion seed, copper and iron ware, latten, kettles and pans, linen cloth, harness, saltpetre, gunpowder, all things made at Noremberg; and there is no kind of ware that Germany yieldeth, but generally the company buy as much or more thereof than any other nations. Of the Italians they buy all sorts of silk wares, velvets wrought and unwrought, taffetas, satins, damasks, sarcenets, Milan fustians, cloth of gold and silver, grograines, camlets, satin and sewing silk, organzine, or say, and all other kind of wares, made or to be had in Italy. Of the Easterlings [the Hanse Towns, or the East of Germany] they buy flax, hemp, wax, pitch, tar, wainscot, deal boards, oars, corn, furs, cables and cable yarn, tallow, ropes, masts for ships, soap-ashes, Estridge wool, and almost whatsoever is made or groweth in the East countries. Of the Portingales they buy all kind of spices and drugs. With the Spanish and French they have not much to do, by reason that other English merchants have had a great trade into France and Spain, and so serve England directly from thence with the commodities of those countries. Of the Low Country merchants or

Netherlanders they buy all sorts of manufacture and handwork not made in England; tapestry, buckrams, white thread, inkle, linen cloth of all sorts, cambrics, lawns, mather [madder] and an infinite number of other things, too long to rehearse in particular.

Travelling and its Expenses. The nature of roads very much prescribes the mode of travelling. In the reign of Elizabeth the roads of England generally were very bad; acts had been passed in 1524 and 1555, to secure the reparation of the highways, and they were followed by other enactments during her reign. At that period coaches had been so recently introduced that they were by no means general in the country, and were chiefly used for an airing in the metropolis and on state occasions. The country was chiefly traversed on horseback, and even light loads were thus conveyed from place to place, in panniers or on packsaddles; while in a journey of length, especially if a family or company of travellers, the sumpter horse or mule, with the requisites for the road, usually formed part of the cavalcade. And it was found prudent to travel in companies, as the roads were beset by bands of thieves, sturdy mendicants, and others, into whose hands no one liked to fall. An Elizabethan writer says: — I might here speak of the excessive staves which divers who travel by the way do carry upon their shoulders, whereof some are twelve or thirteen feet long beside the pike [blade] of twelve inches; but as they are commonly suspected of honest men to be thieves and robbers, or at the leastwise scarce true men, that bear them, so, by reason of this and the like suspicious weapons, the honest traveller is now enforced to ride with a case of dags [pistols] at his saddle-bow, or with some pretty short snapper, whereby he may deal with them further off in his own defence, before he come within the danger of these weapons. Finally, no man travelleth by the way without his sword, or some such weapon, with us, except the minister, who commonly weareth none at all, unless it be a dagger or hanger by his side. Seldom also are they or any other wayfaring men robbed without consent of the chamberlain, tapster, or ostler, where they bait or lie; who, feeling at their alighting, whether their cap-cases or budgets be of any weight or not, by taking them down from their saddles, or otherwise see their store in drawing of their purses, do by and by give intimation to some one or other attendant daily in the yard or house, or dwelling hard by upon such matches, whether the prey be worth the following or no. If it be for their turn, then the gentleman peradventure is asked which way he travelleth, and whether it pleaseth him to have another guest to bear him company at

supper, who rideth the same way in the morning that he doth, or not. And thus if he admit him, or be glad of his acquaintance, the cheat is half wrought. And often it is seen that the new guest shall be robbed with the old, only to colour out the matter and keep him from suspicion. Sometimes when they know which way the passenger travelleth, they will either go before or lie in wait for him, or else come galloping apace after, whereby they will be sure, if he ride not the stronger, to be fingering with his purse. And these are some of the policies of such shrews or close-booted gentlemen, as lie in wait for fat booties by the highways, and which are most commonly practised in the winter season, about the feast of Christmas, when serving men and unthrifty gentlemen want money to play at the dice and cards, lewdly spending in such wise, whatsoever they have wickedly gotten, till some of them sharply set upon their chevisances [gains or booty] be trussed up in a Tyburn tippet, which happeneth unto them commonly before they come to middle age. Whereby it appeareth that some sort of youth will oft have his swing, although it be in a halter. (*Harri.*) For entries of travelling expenses, chiefly breakfasts, suppers, and keep of horses, see Index; also the notes on INNS, JOURNEY, &c.

TREACLE. (French *theriaque*, Latin *theriaca.*) A viscid, uncrystallizable syrup which drains from the sugar refiners' moulds; molasses (with which treacle is often confounded) being the drainings of crude sugar. (*Webs.*) The word treacle was formerly used to denote various thick mucilages, as Venice treacle, Genoa treacle, the grand treacle, &c. Treacle, then, of old, was a composition of drugs, reduced into a liquid electuary with honey. Treacle is named from the viper, which the Greeks call *therion*, and it was compounded by Andromachus the father, a native of Candia, and first physician to Nero. The Venetians of late years have got the reputation of being the only people who had the true way of preparing the treacle; and at present the apothecaries of Montpelier make such vast quantities, that one lb. of good honey will sell for more than the same weight of this pretended treacle. It is sold at Paris at 16d. or 18d. the lb., being nothing but the worst honey, in which is incorporated a parcel of rotten, worm-eaten roots and drugs, no better than the sweeping of shops; and to promote their sale they cover the pots with a printed paper, wherein are two vipers that compose a circle, crowned with a fleur-de-lis, which contains this title, "Fine Venice Treacle," though it is made at Orleans or Paris. As to that of Montpelier, I have seen it often made with all the exactness that can be; but what is sent to the fairs for common sale is

mixed with large quantities of boiled honey, being obliged to sell it about 18d. a lb., that which is true standing them in above 40d. a lb. At Paris in 1688, there was a large quantity made without substituting anything, and with the finest and best drugs that were ever seen. For the treacle of Andromachus: Take troches of squills, 6 oz.; troches of vipers and hedycroy, long pepper, opium prepared, of each 3 oz. [Troches of squills consist of pulp of squills 12 oz., flower of the bitter vetch 8 oz. Troches of vipers are made of the flesh boiled in water with dill and salt and cleaned from the bone, of each 8 oz., and bread crumbs dried and sifted 2½ oz. Troches of hedecroy is too long a recipe to insert. Besides these three troches there are fifty-five other ingredients, roots, flowers, barks, leaves, seeds, gums, and spices, an enumeration of which would only weary the reader.] Then choice honey three times the weight of all, and as much Spanish wine as will give due consistence. Then there was "the Grand Treacle, reformed by M. D'Aquin, the king's physician."—"Take dried vipers, with the hearts and livers 20 oz.; troches of squills and extract of opium, of each 12 oz. [then a great variety of herbs, roots, spices and drugs]; a mellaginous extract of juniper-berries 72 lb., and malmsey wine one quart." This prescription has been better received than that of Andromachus of later years, M. D'Aquin having expunged what was superfluous and added other things more necessary. In several dispensatorics we meet with a third sort of treacle called the Diatesseron, because compounded of four drugs, gentian, round birthwort, bay berries, and myrrh, reduced into powder, and made up with honey and extract of juniper into an electuary. This treacle is of small price, and is useful for all sorts of cattle. Some people call it the Poor's Treacle or German Treacle. (*Pomet*, who gives also recipes for the Montpelier treacle-water, and a celebrated treacle-nostrum of the time called Orviettan, from Orviette, in Italy; for which there is a recipe also in Bate's Pharmacopœia, which was communicated to him by Sir Robert Tabbor.) In England treacle-water was a mess made with treacle, spirits of wine, &c., used as a remedy for coughs. Treacle-ball (called in the North *claggum* and *clag-candy*, from clag, to stick or adhere) was treacle made hard by boiling. Treacle-butter-cake is oat-cake spread over with treacle. Treacle-wag is a weak beer in which treacle is the principal ingredient. In the Accounts, in March 1591, 1 lb. 4 oz. treacle, and a pot to put it in, cost 18d. This was to be used in cure of a bad leg, apparently with 4 oz. syrup of lemons, sent by Mr. Cogan, apothecary, of Manchester.

In February 1619, 2 lb. of treacle cost 18d., and some white mercury 12d., probably for external application to cattle, horses, or dogs.

Trees. It is certain that timber trees in coppice-woods grow more upright and more free from under-boughs, than those that stand in the fields; the cause whereof is, for that plants have a natural motion to get to the sun, and besides they are not glutted with too much nourishment, for that the coppice shareth with them; and repletion ever hindereth stature: lastly, they are kept warm, and that ever in plants helpeth mounting. The most lasting trees are those largest of body, as oaks, elms, chesnuts, &c.; for they last according to the strength and quantity of their sap and juice; being well munited [fortified] by their bark against the injuries of the air. Trees that bear mast and nuts are commonly more lasting than those that bear [softer] fruits, especially the moister fruits. Oaks, beeches, chesnuts, walnuts, almonds, pine trees, &c., last longer than apples, pears, plums, &c. Trees that leaf late and cast their leaves late, are more lasting than those that sprout out their leaves early or shed them betimes; because the late coming forth showeth a moisture more fixed. For the same cause wild trees last longer than garden trees, and those whose fruit is acid more than those whose fruit is sweet. Often cutting promoteth the lasting of trees. (*Bacon's Sylva Sylvarum.*) I am of a contrary opinion to all which touch the planting of trees that ever yet I knew, read or heard of; for the common space between tree and tree is ten feet; if twenty feet it is thought very much. But I suppose twenty yards distance is small enough betwixt tree and tree, or rather too little. I know one apple tree, set of a slip, finger great, in the space of twenty years (a very small part of a tree's age) hath spread his boughs eleven or twelve yards compass; that is five or six yards on every side. Hence I gather that in forty or fifty years, a tree, in good soil, well liking, by good dressing, will spread at least twelve yards of a side; which being added to his fellow tree, make twenty-four yards; and so far must every tree stand from another. The faults of a disordered fruit tree I find to be five: 1. an unprofitable bole; 2. water boughs or undergrowth; 3. fetters, or branches rubbing each other; 4. suckers, or birches, growing long and bearing no fruit; and 5. one principal top, which arises from the same cause as suckers. I have apples standing in my orchard which I have known these forty years, whose age before my time I cannot learn; it is beyond memory, though I have inquired of divers aged men of eighty years and upwards. These trees, although come into my possession very ill wooded, notwithstanding, with that small regard they have had

since, they so like, that I assure myself that they are not come to their growth by more than two parts out of three; which I discern not only by their own growth, but also by comparing them with the bulk of other trees. And I find them short by so many parts in bigness, although I know the other fruit trees to have been much injured in their stature by evil guiding. [The writer, assuming his apple trees to be a hundred years old and yet to want two hundred years more of their growth before they leave off increasing, concludes that three hundred years are but the third of a tree's life; as trees, like all living things, must have one third for growth or increase, another third for their stand, and a third part of time also for their decay.] Fruit-trees, well ordered, may live and like a thousand years, and bear fruit. And if fruit-trees live to this age, how many ages is it to be supposed strong and huge timber-trees will last? You may easily know the age of a fruit-tree, till he accomplishes twenty years, by his knots. Reckon from his root upward an arm, and so to his top twig, and every year's growth is distinguished from other by a knot, except lopping or removing do hinder. (*Lawson.*) As to felling trees, *Tusser* says in April:

> Sell bark to the tanner, ere timber ye fell.
> Cut low by the ground, else do ye not well.
> In breaking, save crooked, for mill and for ships,
> And ever, in hewing, save carpenters' chips.
>
> First see it well fenced, ere hewers begin,
> Then see it well stadled without and within.
> * * * * * *
>
> Leave growing, for stadles, the likest and best,
> Tho' seller and buyer dispatchèd the rest.
> In bushes, in hedgerow, in grove and in wood,
> This lesson observèd is needful and good.
>
> Save elm, ash and crab-tree, for cart and for plough,
> Save step for a stile, of the crotch of the bough;
> Save hazel for forks, save sallow for rake,
> Save hulver and thorn, thereof flail to make.

Note: To stadle woods is to leave a sufficient number of thriving young trees, in order to replenish it. The kinds of trees enumerated are still applied to the same purposes. "Hulver" is holly.

In the Accounts, in October 1598, 45 trees were bought for £45 of John Townley Esq. April 1599, for 27 trees lying on a green in Billington, Mr.

Richard Assheton was paid £18. These were probably — many in subsequent entries certainly — purchased for the building of Gawthorpe Hall. For numerous other entries see Index. See also TIMBER, WOOD, &c.

TRENCHERS. (*Trench*, French, to cut or carve.) Wooden platters; whence trenchering came to be a term for eating, and trencher-man for a good eater. In December 1612, two dozen of plane-tree trenchers cost 3s. 4d.; December 1617, one dozen, 18d.

TROUT. (*Salmo fario.*) It is observable that three of our most delicious fish, the salmon, the trout, and the char, are all of the same family of *Salmonidæ.* (*Mus. An. Nat.*) The trout is a right dainteous fish, and also a right fervent biter. He is in season from March unto Michaelmas. He is on clean gravelly ground and in a stream. Ye may angle to him all times with a ground line, lying or running, saving in leaping-time, and then with a dub. Early with a running ground line, and forth in the day with a float line. [Then follow copious directions as to baits and flies in each month.] (*Fishing with an Angle*, 1496.) These flies seem all to have been adopted by Walton; he describes them nearly in the same words, and having given directions to make twelve sorts, he adds — "Thus have you a jury of flies, likely to betray and condemn all the trouts in the river."—I should rather think it better to find the fly proper for every season, and that which the fish at that time most eagerly covet, and make one as like it as possibly you may, in colour, shape, and proportion; and for your better imitation, lay the natural fly before you. The trout comes in and goes out of season with the stag and buck, and spawns about October or November. All the winter he is sick, lean, and unwholesome, and you shall frequently then find him lousy. In the spring his strength increaseth, he deserteth the still, deep waters, and betakes himself to gravelly ground, against which he never leaves rubbing till he hath cleared himself of his lousiness; and then he delights to be in the sharp streams and such as are swift, where he will lie in wait for minnows and May-flies; at the latter end of which month he is in his prime, being better and fatter than at any other time throughout the year. There are several sorts of trouts highly prizable, as the Fordidge, the Amerly, the bull-trout in Northumberland, with many more. The red and yellow trouts are the best; and the female is better, having a less head and a deeper body, than the male. (*Gent. Recreat. in Angling.*) The Accounts contain various entries of the purchase of trout, fresh-water trout, and in June 1610 two "morte trouts" cost 10d. Salmon of the third year's growth are called "morts" in Lancashire (*C. Leigh*), but

we have not seen the term applied to trout. It may mean the female trout, as distinguished for its larger body. See Index.

TUDOR LIVERY. The royal colours of the Tudors were white and green.

TULLETES. Some kind of bird, but what is not clear. The following are the entries in the Accounts: August 1590, four dozen "pires and tulletes," 12d. The purre, stint, or sea-lark is a shore-bird. May 1592, fifteen dozen of "pieres and tulletes," 5s.; April 1593, "pieres and tulletes," 6d.; May, "pieres and tulletes," 4d.; December 1594, "two pires and two tulletes," 1d. In April 1595 is an entry of "two piures 2d.; two lapwings 2d." It is therefore not improbable that "tullet" was a name for the latter bird, applied to its cry, as "pee-wit." *Montagu* mentions a kind of gull, which he calls "Tuliac"; but the tullet of the text is evidently a small bird. One of the sandpipers, a native of America, but little known in Europe, is called the "willet," which seems to come nearest to the Lancashire orthography of the bird in question.

TUMBLERS. The joculators were sometimes excellent tumblers, but, generally, vaulting, tumbling and balancing were executed by some of the other members of the gleeman's company; very often by females called glee-maidens (*maden-glywiend*, Anglo-Saxon), and tumbling-women, tomblesteres, and tombesteres in Chaucer (from *tomban*, Anglo-Saxon, to dance, vault, or tumble), who also calls them saylours or dancers (from *salio*, Latin, I leap.) They are also called *sauters* (from *sauter*, French, to leap.) In "Piers Plowman" is the expression, "I can neither sayler ne saute." Dancing, tumbling and playing on timbrels (whence they were called "tymbesteres") continued to be exhibited by women to modern times. Among the pastimes exhibited before Queen Elizabeth at Kenilworth Castle, an Italian showed surprising feats of agility in goings, turnings, tumblings, castings, hops, jumps, leaps, skips, springs, gambauds, somersaults, caprettings of flights, forward, backward, sideways, downward, upward, and with sundry windings, gyrings and circumflexions; insomuch that I cannot tell what to make of him, save that I may guess his back to be metalled like a lamprey, that has no bone, but a line like a lutestring. (*Laneham.*) In the Accounts, in January 1617, was given to the tumbler's boy at Gawthorpe, 6d., — a reward which may be measured by the fact that at the same time a poor scholar was relieved with 4d.

TUN. (Anglo-Saxon *tunn.*) A measure of capacity and of liquids, containing 272 gallons. The weight also was formerly spelled tun, i.e. 2,240 lb. or 20 cwt. A tun of timber was 40 solid feet. (*B. Dic.*) In wine

measure, 18 gallons=a rundlet; 42 gallons=a tierce; 3 tierce, or 14 rundlets, a pipe; 63 gallons, or 2 barrels, a hogshead; 2 hogsheads, or 126 gallons, a pipe or butt; and 2 pipes, or 252 gallons, a tun. The tun of wine=18 cwt. avoirdupois. (*Arithm. Assist.*)

Tups. A tup, throughout Scotland, the northern counties, especially Lancashire, and also Shakspere's county of Staffordshire[?], was the name for a ram or male sheep. It is several times used as a verb in *Othello*. (*Nares*, *Tim Bobbin*, &c.) *Fitz.* never uses the term, but always ram; and he lays down directions as to the times of putting rams to the ewes, in rich and in common pastures, common fields, and the poor highland of the Peak, that hath all onely [alone] the common heath. *Mark.* gives advice in the choice of rams, which should be large, with a long body, large belly, forehead broad, round and well rising, a cheerful large eye, straight short nostrils, a very small muzzle, and by no means any horns; for the dodder [hornless] sheep is the best breeder; besides, those which have no horns have such strength of head that they have often been seen to kill those which have the largest horns. For entries in the Accounts, see Index.

Turbary and Turf. (*Turbaria* from *Turba*, an obsolete Latin word for turf.) Turbary is a right to dig turf on a common, or in another man's ground. It also means the place where the turfs are dug. (*Jacob.*) Charred turf appears to have been used about 1560 at the Freiburg smelting houses. (*Beckmann.*) When turf was first dug in England does not appear; but in Lancashire, *Whalley* and "the Whalley Abbey Coucher Book" show that it was here used, and the right to get it valued, at a very early period. In June, *Tusser* says —

> With whins or with furzes thy hovel renew,
> For turf and for sedge, to bake and to brew;
> For charcoal and sea-coal, and also for thack,
> For tall-wood and billet, as yearly ye lack.

A ploughman was sometimes called a turf-graver; and a spade made properly for under-cutting turf was called a turfing spade. The Index will guide to the entries of turf bought or sold, of getting and drawing it, and also of stacking it. Several entries also relate to the driving of the turf-wain or waggon.

Turkeys. (*Meleagris gallopavo.*) This bird is a native of America, whence it was imported into Europe in the early part of the sixteenth century. Little, however, is known of its early introduction here. Willoughby says its name was derived from the country whence it was supposed to be

imported; and it appears to have been confounded with other birds by even sixteenth and seventeenth century writers. In the 15th Henry VIII. (1524) turkeys are reported to have been introduced into England, and in 1541 they are named amongst the dainties of the table. Archbishop Cranmer (says *Leland*) ordered that of cranes, swans, and turkey-cocks there should be at festivals only one dish. In 1573, *Tusser* notices these birds as among the farmer's fare at Christmas. At the present day the domestic turkey is spread over the greater part of Europe. (*Mus. An. Nat.*) Fattened turkeys may be made to weigh from twenty to twenty-five pounds. *Parmentier* says that if killed at the same time as pigs, and the turkeys cut in quarters be put in earthen pots, covered with the fat of the pork, they may be preserved for the table all the year round. (*Pantrophéon.*) That these fowls were not known in England in the beginning of the sixteenth century is very probable, as they are not named in Archbishop Nevill's Installation feast, nor in the household regulations of Henry VIII., in which all the fowls used in the royal kitchen are enumerated. They were introduced into this country, some say in 1524, others in 1530, and some in 1532. (*Anderson*, *Hakluyt*, *Googe.*) Young turkeys were served up at a great banquet in 1555 (*Dugdale*), and about 1585 they were commonly reckoned among delicate dishes. (*Beckmann.*) *Tusser* does not name them in his edition of 1557, but in that of 1585, he says —

> Beef, mutton and pork, shred pies of the best,
> Pig, veal, goose and capon, and turkey well drest;
> Cheese, apples and nuts; jolly carols to hear;
> As then in the country, is counted good cheer.

Turkeys, however by some writers they are held devourers of corn, &c., yet it is certain they are most delicate either in paste or from the spit, and, being fat, far exceeding every other house fowl whatsoever. For the fattening of turkeys sodden barley is excellent, or sodden oats for the first fortnight; then for another fortnight cram them in all sorts, as you cram your capon, and they will be fat beyond measure. When they are at liberty they are so good physicians for themselves, that they will never trouble their owners; but, being cooped up, you must cure them as you would pullen [poultry]. Their eggs are exceedingly wholesome to eat, and restore decayed nature wonderfully. (*Mark.*) For entries in the Accounts, see Index.

Turmeric. Some call it *curcuma;* others, saffron or cypress of India, Malabar, or Babylon. It is brought from several parts of India by the

company of merchants trading thither, and great quantities come from the isle of St. Lawrence. The root is chiefly used by the dyers, glovers and perfumers. The founders employ it to tinge their metals, and the button-makers to rub their wood with when they would make an imitation of gold. With it the Indians tinge yellow their bread or other things, as we do with saffron. (*Pomet.*) It is a yellow simple of strong flavour, to be bought at the apothecaries. (*Mark.*)

Turnips. *Ger.* divides them into great and small; of which the former grow in light, loose, fat earth, in fields, and divers vineyards or hop gardens in most places of England. The small turnip groweth by a village near London, called Hackney, in a sandy ground, and brought to the cross in Cheapside by the women of that village to be sold, and are the best that ever I tasted. Those which flower the same year they are sown are a degenerate kind, called in Cheshire about the Namptwych "mad neeps," because of their evil quality in causing phrensy and giddiness of the brain for a season. The turnip is called in Latin *rapum*, in French *naveau ronde*, in English turnep and rape. (*Ger.*) Under the name of rapes, they were used in English cookery temp. Richard II. To make rapes in pottage, wash them clean, quare [square] them, parboil them, cast them in a good broth and seethe them. Mince onions and cast thereto saffron and salt, and mess it forth with powder douce. (*Cury*, 1390.) In the Accounts, November 1586, turnepes cost 4d.; November 1610, turnepps, 2d.; July 1621, turneppe seed, 4d. In Lancashire, even now, they are frequently called *turmits;* also in Herefordshire, Gloucestershire, &c. (*B. Gloss.*)

Turnsole. Tornesole (*Heliotropium*), the Sunflower, or heliotrope. There be five kinds. They grow in fenny grounds, and near unto pools and lakes. They are strangers in England as yet. It doth grow about Montpellier in Languedoc, where it is had in great use to stain and dye clouts, wherewith through Europe meat is coloured. With the small turnesole they in France do dye linen rags and clouts into a perfect purple colour, wherewith cooks and confectioners do colour jellies, wines, meats, and sundry confectures; which clouts in shops be called turnesole, after the name of the herb. (*Ger.*) The fine turnsol of Constantinople is made of Holland or fine cambric, dyed with cochineal by means of some acids. It is used for tinging liquors, as spirits of wine, cordial waters, &c. The Turks and others in the Levant call this turnsol for linen, the red bizerere. The turnsol in cotton, or that of Portugal (vulgarly called Spanish wool) is brought to us by the Portuguese. It is of the figure, thickness and size of

a crown piece. They use it to colour their jellies; but it is much less used than the turnsol in linen, which is made entirely of the mesteck cochineal. The Dutch turnsole (called likewise *orseil*) is a paste made with the fruit or berry of a plant, which the botanists call *Heliotropium tricoccum*, or turnsol (which grows plentifully in several parts of Holland), of perelle (a dried earth, from Auvergne in France), lime and urine; and these four drugs, mixed, are put into little barrels that hold about 30 lb. Those that make this paste do not sell it soft, but in form of square cakes of bread, which, when dried, we call turnsol in the cake. This kind, being well dried, strikes a blue upon the violet tinge, and being rubbed upon paper, dyes it blue; being much better than that which makes it red. Turnsole in rags is so called because it gives a tincture or dye to rags dipped in it. What is commonly sold in the shops is nothing but old rags or old linen dipped in the juice of the blood-red grape or that of mulberries, and so dried in the sun; but this is a cheat, for the true turnsole ought to be dipped in the juice of the berry of the herb called *heliotropion*, the sun-follower, because its flower always turns to the sun. It bears berries always set three together, whence Pliny calls it *Heliotropium tricoccum*, the turnsole with three berries. They have between the outward skin and kernel a certain juice, which, being rubbed upon paper or cloth, at first of a fresh and lively green, presently changing into a kind of bluish purple upon the paper or cloth; and the same cloth, afterwards wet in water or white wine, and wrung forth, will strike the said water or wine into a red or claret wine colour; and these are the rags of cloth which are the true turnsole, wherewith people colour jellies, conserves, tinctures, &c. Their chief use is to colour jellies or tarts, frequent at feasts and entertainments, as also to colour all sorts of tinctures, spirits, &c., void of colour. (*Pomet.*) To remedy claret that hath lost his colour, take one or two lb. of turnsole, beat it with a gallon or two of wine, let it be a day or two, then put it into your hogshead, draw your wine again and wash your [turnsole] cloths; then lay it in a fore-take all night, and roll it on the morrow; then lay it up and it will have a perfect colour. (*Mark.*) If thou wilt have thy lete lardes [the name of a dish of eggs, lard and milk] pownas [? purple colour] do thereto turnsole. (*Cury*, 1390.) It was bought with the spices. In 1527-8 half a pound cost 8d. (*Gild Holy Trin. at Luton.*) Not only were the plant, the paste or cake, and the cloth or dyed rags, called turnsole, but a dish of confectionary, dyed blue by means of the rags, was also called thence *Turnesole:*—Take thick almond milk, and draw it up with wine

Vernage [i.e of Verona] or other sweet wine; let it boil, and cast thereto sugar, and make it standing with flour or rice, and when it is done from the fire, take blue turnsole and dip it in wine, that the wine may catch the colour thereof, and colour the potage therewith, and dress it up in leches [slices] in dishes, and serve it forth. Or else draw up black berries with wine, and colour it therewith and make one leche blue and another white. (*Arundel MS.*, *15th century.*) In the Accounts, in December 1596, a strainer and tournesole cost 6d.; in November 1617, one pound cost 2s.; October 1621, a pound cost 3s. 4d. It is included in the usual proportion of spices yearly bought in London at Michaelmas.

Turpentine. We usually sell three sorts, to wit, that of Chio, that from pine-wood, and the Bourdeaux turpentine. Several others in the shops have false names given to them according to the adulterations. The first and dearest is that of Chio, which flows from the turpentine tree, which grows in the isle of Chio, in Cyprus, Spain and France: it ought to be white, inclining to green, and the least subject to stick in the teeth, or to the fingers, that is possible. Take care of the pine-wood turpentine, which some sell for the true Chio; but it is not difficult to find out by its strong smell, and because it sticks to the teeth. The second is that falsely sold for Venice turpentine, but which is nothing but fine pine or fir turpentine of Lyons. It serves for many uses, as well in physic as for the artificers, especially for making varnish. The common turpentine is also called Bayonne or Bourdeaux. It is white, thick as honey, and comes chiefly from Bourdeaux, Nantz, or Rouen. It is made from a hard white rosin, which we call galipot and the mountaineers barras. As to the true Venice, Cyprus, or Pisa turpentine, we have none brought us, and the Strasburg turpentine rarely comes amongst us, but is frequently sold in Holland. (*Pomet.*) *Ger.* describes two kinds of *terebinthus*, or turpentine tree, the true and the broad-leafed (*T. latifolia*); and he enumerates its medicinal or physical virtues. In July 1612, turpentine and oil of bays cost 8d., doubtless for some ointment.

Turton. A chapelry in the parish of and four miles north from Bolton. At the period of our Accounts it was in the possession of the Orrells, though the tithe seems to have been received by the Shuttleworths. For in 1590 was received of Mr. Orrell, one moiety of the tithe wool and lambs of Turton, due at St. Margaret last [there were ten saints of this name], 40s.; the one moiety for the tithe wool and lambs of his demesne in Turton, 6s. 8d.

TUTTY. *Tutia*, brass scoria adhering to the furnace. See LAPIS CALAMINARIS.

TUWYTTES. In September 1592 were bought two "tuwyttes" and a snipe for 3d. It was probably a name for the peewit or lapwing. See TULLETES.

TWINTERS. Two winters, i.e. oxen or other animals two years old. See Index.

TWISTON. A township five miles east-north-east of Clithero. It was anciently Twistleton, i.e. the boundary town; as Extwistle is from *acas* oaks, the boundary oaks; and so Birtwistle is Bird-boundary, Oswaldtwistle Oswald's boundary, &c.

TYLLE, TYWLLE. In November 1583, 25 yards of "tywlle," to be sacks, cost 14s. 4d; June 1586, 16 yards of "tylle" to be sacks, cost 6s. 8d.; November, 16 yards of "tywell" to be sacks, 6s. 8d.; February 1596, 25 yards of "twill" to be sacks (7½ yards, bating 1½d.) 15s. 6d. Probably these should be read "twill," which was a sort of coarse linen cloth, such as would suit for sacks. Or it may be *towle* or *towel*, not the cloth for drying the hands and face (for that is probably from *touvaille*, French), but as made of *tow*, the hard or coarser part of hemp or flax.

TYLDESLEYS, THE. In September 1617, 5s. (a lawyer's fee?) was given to Sir Thomas Tyldesley for a motion. In June 1618, a fee of another kind was paid, of 2s., for covering a mare at Mr. Tyldesley's at Myerscough. At this time Myerscough Lodge was the seat of Edward Tyldesley Esq., son of Thomas Tyldesley and his wife Elizabeth, daughter of Christopher Anderson of Lostock. He died in 1618, and was succeeded by his son Thomas, afterwards Sir Thomas, the governor of Lichfield, and a major-general in the army of Charles I. He was killed at the battle of Wigan Lane, 25th August 1651. James I. was a guest of Edward Tyldesley Esq. at Myerscough Lodge, two or three nights in August 1617. (See *Assheton's Journal*, vol. xiv. Chetham Society.)

TYPPET FIELDS AND HOUSE. In November 1583, was received for the tithe-corn silver of Typpet fildes, 2d. In August 1586, was paid to the constable of Little Bolton for a fifteenth for the Typpet House, due unto her Majesty, 2d. The meaning of the word Typpet is not clear. There was an old phrase, "to turn tippet," meaning to make a total change. A tippet-house may be a house with a tipped, high-peaked, or pointed roof; and the fields may be named from it. There seems no connection between the word in the text and the garment of that name.

UMBLES. (French *hombles.*) The entrails of a deer; a hunting term, denoting the liver, kidneys, &c. "The keeper hath the skin, head, umbles, chine and shoulders." (*Holinshed.*) The old books of cookery give recipes for making umble pies (*May's Acc. Cook*); hence a very flat proverbial witticism, of "making persons eat humble pie," meaning to humble them. (*Nares.*) To make an umble pie or pasty: Cut the umbles in small pieces and cut fat bacon in small pieces; mix them together and season them with salt, pepper, and nutmeg; strip some thyme and mince some lemon and mix them; lay suet minced at the bottom; fill your pasty, cover them with thin slices of bacon and a good quantity of butter; let it be well soaked in the oven, and when it is baked, beat up butter with claret, lemon and stripped thyme, pour it into your pasty and serve it up hot. (*C. C. Dic.*) In an ancient book of cookery (*Arund. MS.*) printed by the Society of Antiquaries, and supposed to be early in the fifteenth century, is the following recipe for dressing these parts of the deer, in the original spelling: "*Nombuls of a Dere*: Take nombuls of a deer and parboyle hom [them] and kerve hom smal and put hom in a pot to gode brothe, and take brede and stepe hit in brothe, and drawe hit thurgh a streynour and do it into the pot and blode and vynegur medelet [mixed] therewyth, and take onyons and mynce hom smalle and do therto, and let hit wel boyle, and put thereto pouder of pepur and of clowes, and canel [cinnamon] and let hit wel sethe [boil] and serve hit forthe." *Dolby* directs the kidneys of a deer, with the fat of the heart, to be seasoned, fried, and stewed; the skirts to be stuffed with a force-meat made of the fat of the venison, &c., and roasted; the skirts in the middle of the dish, with the fricasee round it. See Index, Humbles.

URMSTONES, THE. There are two Richard Urmstones named in the Accounts, and it is not always easy to distinguish them. One was a superior servant, a deputy steward or bailiff, who went to hold courts at Barbon, &c. The other was doubtless one of the Urmstones of West Leigh, co. Lancaster, perhaps the son and heir of John (who was gentleman of the horse to Edward Earl of Derby.) This Richard was born in 1590, and died in 1659, aged 69, his daughters becoming his coheiresses. (*Lanc. MSS.; Collins's Peerage.*) Many of the entries, however, cannot relate to this Richard, as they occur before his birth; thus in July 1589, Richard Urmstone's man, for bringing as a present from Roger Urmston, a fat wether to the Smithills, had 12d.

USE OF MONEY; USURY. (*Usura.*) Usury is money given for the use

of money, and is particularly defined to be the gain of anything by contract, above the principal, or that which was lent, exacted in consideration of the loan thereof. Properly, usury consists in extorting an unreasonable rate for the use of money beyond what is allowed by statute. The letting out of money upon interest, or at usury, was against the common law; and in former times, if any one after his death had been found to be a usurer, all his goods and chattels were forfeited to the king, &c. By several ancient statutes all usury is declared unlawful, but at this time neither the common nor the statute law absolutely prohibit usury, — that is, interest for money lent, not exceeding what is the settled rate of interest by the statute law. The statute 27th Henry VIII., cap. 2 (1585), allowed £10 per cent. for money lent on mortgages, &c. The 13th Elizabeth, cap. 8 (1571), ordained £8 [an error; it should be £10] per cent; and the 21st James I., cap. 17 (1623-4), also fixed the maximum at £8 per cent. (*Jacob.*) An Elizabethan writer is very severe on all taking of interest. He mentions three old men yet living in the village where he resides, who speak of three things too much increased in England within their remembrance, and which are grown to be very grievous unto them. The third thing they talk of is usury, a trade brought in by the Jews, now perfectly practised by almost every Christian, and so commonly, that he is accompted but for a fool that doth lend his money for nothing. In time past it was "Sors·pro sorte," that is, the principal only for the principal; but now, beside that which is above the principal, properly called "Usura," we challenge "Fœnus," that is, commodity of soil and fruits of the earth, if not the ground itself. In time past also one of the hundred was much, from thence it rose unto two, three, then to four, to five, then to six, and at last it amounteth to twelve in the hundred, and therefore the Latins call it centesima, for that in the hundredth month it doubleth the principal. . . . . Help, I pray thee, in lawful manner to hang up such as take "centum pro cento;" for they are no better worthy, as I do judge in conscience. (*Harri.*) Another writer, a puritan and a satirist of the day, is still more severe in his denunciations of usury. Thus he argues: Though the laws say, Thou shalt not take above 2s. in the pound, £10 in the £100, and so forth; — doth this prove that it is lawful to take so much, or rather that thou shalt not take more than that? . . . . This law doth but mitigate the penalty; for it saith that the party that taketh above £10 for the use of £100, loseth but the £10 and not his principal. [The old puritan, in his savage way, goes on at length to show that the usurer is worse than a Jew, than Judas, than hell, death, or the

devil!] (*Stubbes.*) On the other hand, *Wade* says, that in spite of the popular prejudice against usury, Elizabeth had the good sense to fix the legal rate of interest at ten per cent. In a paper on the rate of interest for the use of money in ancient and modern times, the author, Mr. Hodge, states that in the thirty-seventh year of Henry VIII. (1545) an act was passed allowing interest at the rate of ten per cent. per annum to be taken. It is curious that, in the Exchequer Rolls of that same year, a fee-farm rent was sold by the king at twenty years' purchase. This law was repealed, and the former prohibition renewed in 1552; but in the next reign the queen herself set the example of breaking the law, by borrowing £20,000 from the city of London, for which she agreed to pay interest at the rate of twelve per cent. In the thirteenth year of Elizabeth (1571) the act of Edward VI. was repealed, and interest at the rate of ten per cent. was legalized; and this arrangement, which was at first to continue for five years, after several renewals, was made permanent in the thirty-ninth year of Elizabeth (1597). In the Accounts (see Index) there are various entries of loans of money, and of payments for the use of money, now called interest, in most cases about ten per cent., though in one or two instances considerably more. It is a feature in the lives of the two men, that while Sir Richard Shuttleworth, the judge, was an extensive lender of money to the neighbouring gentry, his nephew, Colonel Richard Shuttleworth, was as large a borrower.

Vails. (Latin *velum*, from *velo* to cover; French *voile.*) Profits that arise to officers or servants, besides salary or wages. (*B. Dic.*) Money given to servants. (*Dryden.*) ? Covered or concealed gifts; or (as *velo* means to let fall) gifts dropped into the hands of servants at leaving a house. They were usually given to the four principal servants or officers of a household. In the Accounts, in August 1609, given at Sir William Ingleby's house, by my master's appointment, to the chamberlain, butler, and cook, 3s.; to the horsekeepers there 2s.; to two boys for the dressing the horses 6d. December 1609, at Birmingham (during a journey to Lancashire), to the maid there 6d.; to the chamberlain 4d.; given at Mr. Dunderhill's house 11s.; at Alsberie, the maid 6d., the ostlers 7d.; at the White Hart, Holborn, for fire and to the chamberlain, 6d.; June 1610, given at Mr. Anderton's of Clayton, to the four officers 4s.; to the boy that wiped boots 3d.; September 1618, to the horsekeepers at the Abbey in Whalley 3s. 4d.; to the officers at Houndswood 4s. 6d.

Valances. (Italian *falenzune*; ? French *avalant*, falling; Norman *valawnt*, descending.) Short curtains for the upper part of the furniture of

a bed, window, &c. (*B. Dic.*) A piece of drapery hanging round the tester and head of a bed, and also from the head of window curtains. (*Swift.*) By a bold metaphor Shakspere applies it to the beard, as draping the face — "Thy face is *valanc'd* since I saw thee last." (*Hamlet.*) In the Accounts, in April 1590, little nails to fasten "valandes" to beds, cost 2d.

Varnes or Varnish. (French *vernis.*) We sell six sorts, to wit, 1. the dry varnish made of oil of spike, fine turpentine, and sandarac melted together; 2. white varnish, called Venetian, oil of turpentine, fine turpentine, and mastic melted together; 3. spirit varnish — sandarac, white karabe, gum elemi, and mastic; 4. golden varnish — of linseed oil, sandarac, aloes, gamboge and litharge of gold; 5. China varnish — of gum lac, colophony, mastic in tears, and spirit of wine; 6. common varnish — common turpentine dissolved in oil of turpentine. (*Pomet.*) Of the gum of juniper wood and oil of linseed mixed together, is made a liquor called vernish, which is used to beautify pictures and painted tables with; also to make iron glister and to defend it from the rust. (*Ger.*) In the Accounts, December 1604, two lb. of "varnes" for the beds [i.e. the oak bedsteads; those at Gawthorpe are still varnished] 2s. 8d.; August 1605, two lb. of vernes for the beds 3s.; August 1620, three lb. of varnish for the caroache, 21d.

Veal. (French *veau*, probably contracted from the Latin *vitellus.*) Calves to be slaughtered for the table, by the ancients, received no other food than their mother's milk, though frequently they were not killed till a year old. In the fourteenth century, in English cookery, veal was used, one dish named monchelet being smited to gobbets, seethed in good broth, with shred herbs, good wine, and minced onions, with powder fort, saffron, eggs and verjuice. A fraise was made of veal seethed well, hacked small with good bread, pepper, and saffron, fried, then pressed well upon a board and served. (*Cury*, 1390.) *Mark.* gives a recipe for veal toasts, which consist of shred veal, with various herbs, spices, sugar, and salt, laid thickly on both sides of toasts made of manchet, soaked in butter and fried brown. When dished up, strew sugar upon them, and so serve them forth. Some cooks put the veal but upon one side of the toast, but to do it on both is much better: if you add cream, it is not amiss. He also gives recipes for olives of veal — how to roast a fillet, &c. *C. C. Dic.* gives recipes for veal à la mode, à la braise, à la bourgeoise, cutlets larded, veal collared, boiled, roasted, farced, fricaseed, fried, the French and the Italian ways, marinated, ragout, pasty, pie, stoved and stewed veal, &c. It is clear from the Ac-

counts that veal was a favourite meat in the sixteenth century, the entries of its purchase are so very numerous. See Index.

Vegetables. Many esculent plants, now cultivated in the fields, and, in a scarcity of corn, found to be admirable substitutes even for wheaten bread, were in the beginning of the sixteenth century either little known, or exclusively confined to the tables of the rich. Potatoes, which are now very generally used by the poor in every part of England where fuel is cheap, were in King James's reign considered as a great delicacy. They are among the articles provided for the Queen's household; the quantity however is extremely small, and the price is 2s. the lb. In 1619, two cauliflowers cost 3s., and 16 artichokes 3s. 4d.; being then regarded as rarities. (*Eden.*) See Herbs, note and Index.

Velvet, Velure. (Latin *vellus*, hair, nap; French *velours*.) A rich silk stuff, covered on the outside with a close, short, fine, soft shap or nap [called pile]. (*Web.*) This stuff is mentioned in *Joinville*, and the will of Richard II. It was formerly called *vellet*, and guards (or facings) and trimmings of it were a city fashion. Numerous sorts are described by *Strutt* as existing temp. Edward IV. Chaucer has *velouettes* for velvet, and Spenser has the line — "His vellet head began to shoot out." Shakspere calls citizens, because of their fashion of wearing guards or trimmings of velvet, "Velvet guards and Sunday citizens." (*First Part of Henry IV.*) The French form of the word was also in use; for in the *Taming of the Shrew*, we have "a woman's crupper of *velure*"; and in one of *Beaumont and Fletcher's* plays, "an old hat, lined with *vellure*." A velvet jacket was part of the distinctive dress of a prince's or nobleman's steward, with a gold chain worn over it. (*Nares.*) In "The Wardrobe Accounts of Edward IV." (1480) are many varieties named; amongst which (besides all the colours) are velvet of Mountpellier in Gascony, figured, motley, chequered, changeable, ray (i.e. striped or rayed), velvet russet figury, velvet upon velvet tissue, single and double velvet, enamelled velvet on satin ground, velvet cloth of gold, velvet with branches (i.e. sprigs), velvet tissue cloth of gold, &c. In 1502-3, plain velvet appears to have been from 10s. to 10s. 6d. a yard. (*Eliz. York.*) In the Accounts, in June 1599, making two velvet white caps, and for lining for the said hats, 10d.

Venison. (French *venaison*, from Latin *venatio*, a hunting.) I heard of late of one ancient lady who maketh a great gain by selling yearly her husband's venison to the cooks, but not performed without infinite scoffs and mocks even of the poorest peasants of the country, who think them

odious matters in ladies and women of such countenance, to sell their venison and their butter. (*Harri.*) In the Accounts, in 1582, 5s. was given to the keeper who brought venison from Mr. Assheton of Middleton. See notes on Deer, Stag, and Index.

Vergresse, Verdigrasse. The spelling of some words in the Accounts is so loose that it has been occasionally difficult, from the orthography, to tell in this case whether the thing meant was verdigris or verjuice. The former, besides the two ways given above, is spelled vardigrasse, vardigrace, &c. It was chiefly used for the feet of oxen, cows, &c., when they had the disease called the foul; and in one instance, vergresse and saffron were bought for an ox that was sick. The verdigris or rust of copper is made of plates of red copper, and the skins of grapes, after pressing, soaked in good wine, and put together in a large earthen pot, in alternate layers, till the pot be full, and then put in a cellar. After some days' time they take out these copper plates, which are covered with rust, and this being scraped off, the plates are put in again, and this must be repeated till the copper is consumed, or rendered so thin that it may be mixed with the verdigris, as often happens. Most authors tell us it is made of vinegar, which is not true, for the best wine is not too good for it, and there is scarce any but Languedoc wine that will make good verdigris. It is in and about Montpellier that the greatest part of the verdigris used in France and other countries is made. We have two sorts thence, one in powder, the other in cake. There is no cake such as they send from Montpellier, that weighs twenty-five pounds, but after it is dry has lost a third part, so that the verdigris that cost 20d. when soft will be worth near 28d. when hardened. The quantity used is almost incredible, not only in physic, but by dyers, skinners, hatters, farriers and painters; but it is absolutely necessary for painting to add white lead to it, for otherwise, instead of being green, it would be black. One of its properties is eating of dead flesh; the apothecaries use it in some ointments and plasters; and to colour paper green, verdigris and white tartar are used. (*Pomet.*) It is used for a collyrium, to wash the eyes, being mixed with various other things; and as an ointment, with honey, juices of wound herbs, vinegar and abstersive sulphur of vitriol, it is used for weeping wounds, ulcers in the joints, &c. (*Lemery.*) It was used to stain green the feathers of an arrow, also to make green wax. (Edward I., 1300.) For various sores of horses, cattle, &c., an ointment was made of verdigris and soft grease, ground to an ointment, called the green salve of verdigris. For any galling sores, turpentine and verdigris mixed. (*Mark.*)

Vergiesse, Verjuice. (French *verjus*, i.e. *verd jus*, the juice of green fruits.) The juice of crab-apples, sour grapes, &c., used in sauces, ragouts, and the like. (*Webs.*) The young, unripe, and sour grape, much used in French cookery. In England the name is given to crab-apple juice, distilled and put into sauces, when lemon is wanting. (*Dolby.*) Being mixed with hard yeast of ale or beer and applied as a cold ointment, that is, spread upon a cloth first wet in the verjuice and wrung out, and then laid to, taketh away the heat of St. Anthony's fire, all inflammations whatsoever, and healeth scabbed legs, burning and scalding, wheresoever it be. (*Ger.*) To make verjuice gather your crabs as soon as the kernels turn black, and having laid them a while in a heap to sweat together, pick them from the stalks, blacks and rottenness. Then in long troughs, with beetles for the purpose, crush and break them all to mash. Make a bag of coarse hair cloth, as square as the press; fill it with crushed crabs, put it into the press, and press it while any moisture will come forth, having a clean vessel underneath to receive the liquor. Tun it up in sweet hogsheads, and to every hogshead put half a dozen handfuls of damask rose leaves. Then bung it up, and spend it as you shall have occasion. (*Mark.*) *Tusser* in October says —

> Be sure of vergis (a gallon at least),
> So good for the kitchen, so needful for beast;
> It helpeth thy cattle, so feeble and faint,
> If timely such cattle with it thou acquaint.

If Providence has given to each country the fruits and medicines necessary for its inhabitants, crab-juice or verjuice might supply the place of the more costly foreign acids. (*Mavor.*) That it did so in our olden cookery is evident from various MSS. under the names of verjous, veriaws, and verious, all which varieties occur in a MS. Cookery of 1390, in which vinegar was also extensively used; but for some dishes verjuice seems to have been preferred to vinegar. In a roll of provisions for a marriage feast in 1530, butter, eggs, verjuice and vinegar are classed together; and in a Yorkshire sheriff's provision for the Lent assizes in 1528, besides thirteen gallons one quart of vinegar, costing 6s. 8d., are six gallons of "vergis," 4s. 8d. Vinegar was therefore about 6d. a gallon, while verjuice was 9d. In an account of the anniversary feast of the Gild of Holy Trinity at Luton, co. Bedford, in 1528, are two entries of "vinegar" and "warg:" and three pottles [six quarts] of vinegar cost 1s., while a gallon [four quarts] of verjuice cost only 2½d. So that the price of verjuice would much depend on whether crabs

were plentiful in that particular locality. (*Cury.*) The *C. C. Dic.* gives a recipe almost identical with that above, from *Mark.* *Dolby* gives recipes for verjuice marmalade, verjuice preserve, moist and dry, verjuice syrup, &c. In the Accounts, verjuice was bought in small quantities, from one to four pennyworth, but only occasionally, when that made for the use of the house had been expended. See Index.

VERMIN. (French *vermines*, from Latin *vermes*, worms.) All sorts of small animals that prey on corn or other produce, as squirrels, weasels, moles, rats, mice, &c. Formerly foxes, badgers, otters, &c., were included in the term; and an Elizabethan writer says — Of foxes we have some, but no great store; also badgers in our sandy and light grounds. I suppose that these two are rather preserved by gentlemen to hunt and have pastime withal, than suffered to live, as not able to be destroyed because of their great numbers. I might here entreat largely of other vermin, as the pole-cat, minever, weasel, stoat, fulmart, squirrell, fitchew, and such like; also of the otter and of the beaver (of which last we have not many, but only in the Teifie in Wales); for the otter is not wanting, or to seek, in many but most streams of this isle; but it shall suffice to have named them, as I do finally the martern, a beast of the chase; although for number I worthily doubt whether that of our beavers or marterns may be thought to be the less. (*Harri.*) See also notes on MICE, RATS, &c.

VETERINARY PRACTICE. A long chapter might be written on the curative treatment of various animals in the sixteenth century; but it must suffice here to refer the curious reader to *Fitz.*, *Mark.*, the *Gent. Recreat.*, *Dic. Rus.*, *Gent. New Jockey*, &c. The following are some of the entries in the Accounts: October 1583, to Robert Markland of Wigan (elsewhere called horse-marshall and horse-doctor) for horse cures, 16d.; January 1684, to him for a horse-cure, 6d.; 1583, for grease for a horse-leg, 3d.; October 1586, to Robert Markland, for an ointment or salve for the curing of a horse's leg, which had pains in the same, 8d.; February 1587, Humphrey March, for putting in the shoulder of a cow which was out of joint, 4d.; March 1587, to a man who dwelleth in Aspull, for putting in an ox shoulder, being out of the step, 6d.; May 1590, to Robert Markland, the horse-marshall, for the curing of a horse, 3s.; February 1592, for mending two horses which were gravelled, 6d.; September 1592, vynicar and butter for Mr. Leigh's horse back, 3d.; May 1593, letting blood of the gray nag, 2d.; July, Arthur Bradley, for dressing a horse foot, being gravelled, and for oil to dress the same, 8d.; August 1594, verdigris to dress the foul in

the kine's feet 6d. [See note on VERDIGRIS.] September, dressing of the mare's foot, being gravelled at Lostock, 3d.; December 1597, to Markland of Wigan, for drink given to a young mare at Lostock, 23d.; December, to the smith, for letting the gray gelding blood and giving him a drink, 6d.; December 1601, a horse leech and smith in Burnley, for dighting [dressing] Nandow the mare's back, and to buy stuff for the same, 6d. [The horse-leech is he that taketh upon him to cure and mend all manner of diseases and sorance that horses have. — *Fitz.*] June 1602, a smith in Burnley or horse-leech, for his pains in dighting Nandow the mare's back (and 6d. he had before to buy stuff with) 6d.; October, a smith for taking a ring-bone off the black mare, and for his pains and salve to the same, 2s. [A ring-bone is a callous substance growing in the hollow of the little pastern above the coronet.] June 1603, for a medicine for an ox that was sick, 4d.; December 1605, to a smith and horse-leech at Burnley, for cutting and dighting of the black mare's back divers times, 12d.; April 1606, a smith and horse-leech for letting the bay nag (that came from Witchford) blood and giving him a drink, 12d.; May 1610, for letting the grizzle mare blood for the staggers [which is of one nature with headache and frenzy — *Mark*] and giving her a drink, 14d.; March 1611, for a drench and bleeding Northern colt at Preston, 14d.; September 1618, given to a boy that went to fetch a man from Chatburn to give a drink to the swine, 2d.; to Mr. Christopher Townley's man, for cutting of the bay gelding Snipe, for fear of a spavin, 12d. [The spavin is a bony excression on the inside of the hinder hough — *Mark.*] November 1619, to Thomas Parker, for giving a drink to the sick cattle at Gawthorpe, 30s.; July 1620, paid to the libber for gelding a young cow and letting the water out of a sow, 8d; February 1621, Roger Wood, his allowance for a year, for giving the cattle a drink, and to come as often as needed, 13s. 4d. [a mark]; for pepper for the cattle, 14d.; June 1621, paid to Henry Grimshay, for taking the hooks of the black mare's eyes, 6d. [Hooks or haws are gristles growing between the lower eyelid and the eye — *Mark.*] For various other entries, lybbyng, &c., see Index.

VIEGDE, VOYAGE. [An instance of the French use of the word, meaning a journey.] June 1588, from Chester to Smithills, spent in the same "viegde," in fetching wine, vinegar and iron, 3s. 11d.

VINE. The vine was planted in England in 1552; and was first planted at Bloxhall, Suffolk, in that year, and in other places in the neighbourhood of London soon afterwards. Previously to the reign of Edward VI. grapes

were brought to England in large quantities from Flanders. (*Haydn; Leigh.*) But there was a much more ancient culture of the vine in England. Probus permitted the Britons to have vines and make wine. Good wine was known to the Britons. The Anglo-Saxons called October the wine month, and their wine press, called the *win-wringa* (literally wine-wringer) is engraved in Strutt's Horda. Vineyards became common in England, and one existed even within the Tower of London. The vines either ran along the ground or were trained up poles. Tents were placed in vineyards, and they were used as pleasure gardens. They are said to have become extinct either by a treaty with France, or from Gascony falling into English hands; but it is certain that private gentlemen had vineyards in 1621, and made wine from them. From the term "vineyard or orchard" being used in some old papers, perhaps they were in some instances synonimous. (*Herbert, Fosb. &c.*) Some vines bring forth fruit four-square, of which [and other] sorts or kinds, we have great plenty. (*Ger.*) Amongst vulgar errors noticed by *Brand* is one that the old statutes have prohibited the planting of vineyards, relating to which he says he can find no statute. *Harri.* says expressly, when speaking of wines, "we have none growing with us." Subsequently he says—"Of wine I have written already elsewhere sufficiently; which commodity (as I have learned further since the penning of that book) hath been very plentiful in this island, not only in the time of the Romans, but also since the Conquest, as I have seen by record; yet at this present have we none at all, or else very little to speak of, growing in this island; which I impute not unto the soil, but the negligence of my countrymen." See notes on Wines, Grapes, Raisins, &c.

Vinegar. (French *vin*, wine, and *aigre*, sharp and sour.) It may be made from wine, cider, beer, &c., by the acetous fermentation; though that from ale was formerly called *alegar.* Vinegar was known nearly as early as wine; and the ancients had several kinds, which they used for drink. Vinegar was used in English cookery as early as 1381. (*Cury.*) In the Accounts, in June 1588, it was 14d. a gallon; in May 1612, white wine vinegar was bought for 10d.; 4½ gallons (at 5d. the quart) cost 7s. 6d.; March 1618, a rundlet of vinegar, containing nine gallons three quarts, cost 13s. For various other entries, see Index.

Viols. See Fiddles.

Wafers. In the Accounts are the entries May 1610, to Fletcher, who brought sugar wafers and pippins [apples] to Gawthorpe, 12d.; July, 100 of wafers, 14d. It is clear these were not wafers for letters; for the oldest

seal with red wafers known, is dated 1624. Throughout the 17th century wafers were only used by private persons; on public seals they commence only in the 18th century. Those in the Accounts were thin, wafer-like cakes. *Cotgrave* says that wafers were paste-cakes sweetened with honey. Verses were commonly inscribed upon them, which were panegyric when presented to queens or great persons. (*Fosb.*) In *C. C. Dic.* are recipes for English, and one for Dutch wafers. The shortest of the former runs: — Put the yolks of four eggs and three spoonsful of rose water to a quart of flour; mingle them well; make them into a batter with cream and double-refined sugar, pour it on very thin, and bake them on irons. *Price* also gives recipes, and one for the sort named above "sugar-wafers," of which the ingredients are fine sugar, lemon juice, two drops of sack, some perfume, and coloured. The mixture is dropped on thin paper; about two spoonsful make three or four wafers.

WAGES. (French *gage*, *gages*.) With a plural termination, but singular in signification. Hire, reward, chiefly applied to services by manual labour. (*Webs.*) Wages is what is agreed upon by a master to be paid to a servant, or any other person hired to do business for him. The wages of servants, labourers, &c., is to be assessed by justices (5th Elizabeth, cap. 4, 1563. 1st James I., cap. 6, 1603.) *Jacob.*—Appendix II., pp. 334–394, is wholly devoted to notices of prices, wages, &c. The wages of sundry workmen were first fixed by act of parliament 25th Edward III., 1350. The following were the wages per day of harvest-men at different periods: — In 1350, 1d.; 1460, 2d.; 1568, 4d.; 1632, 6d.; 1688, 8d.; 1716, 9d.; 1740, 10d.; 1760, 1s.; 1788, 1s. 4d.; 1794, 1s. 6d.; 1800, 2s.; 1850, 3s. — (*Haydn.*) In the Accounts, wages are different according to circumstances, especially as to whether, in the case of workmen, the work is "by the great," or by the day or daytal [day-tale or count] work; also whether the workmen are "on their own table," (as the modern expression is "find themselves,") or are provisioned by the employer. As will be seen by Appendix II., the statutes of wages not only regulated the prices of labour, with or without meat; but are divided into two scales for the halves of the year, being always more from Lady-day to Michaelmas (March 25 to Sept. 29) than from Michaelmas to Lady-day; as labour was more needed and more worth in the long than in the short days. The Index gives ample reference to the entries relating to wages in the Accounts, — distinguishing the wages of labouring men, from those of women, boys and children, servants, daytall wages, &c. Sometimes wages were paid in kind.

In August 1605, a wright, for work done, took part payment in wheat. Of day-tale wages the following are examples: — August 1620, daytall wages to Henry Hartley, for five days' work at corn-field, 20d.; daytall wages to Robert Stevenson, four score and eleven [91] days at several works (at 3d.) 22s. 9d. For the other entries, see Index.

Wains and Drivers. (*Wæn*, Anglo-Saxon, contracted from *wægen*, a waggon,) a cart or waggon; a cart drawn by oxen and having a wain-cope. (*B. Dic.*) The constellation Ursa major was called by the Anglo-Saxons "Carles' wæn," and is still familiarly named Charles's wain. A journey in a wain was called a "wæn-fær," and a waggoner a wænere or wægenere. (*Bosworth.*) In later times wain-men. (*Halli.*) A wain is made of divers pieces, that will have [need of] a great reparation; that is, the wheels, and those be made of nathes [naves] spokes, fellies and dowles [wooden pins or plugs to fasten wood with,] and they must be well fettered [? fettled] with wood or iron. If they be iron bounden they be much the better, and though they be dear at first, yet at length they be better cheap; for a pair of wheels iron-bound will wear seven or eight pair of other wheels, and they go round and light after oxen or horses to draw. Howbeit, on marsh ground and soft ground, the other wheels be better, because they be broader on the sole and will not go so deep. They must have an axletree stout, with eight wainclouts of iron, two lin-pins of iron in the axletree ends, two axle-pins of iron, or else of tough, hard wood. The body of the wain of oak, the staves, the nether rathes [rathes are the frame extending behind the body and wheels of the wain to hold hay, straw, &c.,] the over-rathes, the cross-somer [rails] the keys and pikestaves. (*Fitz.*) *Tusser*, in describing "husbandry furniture," gives the following counsel: —

> Horse, oxen, plough, tumbril, cart, waggon, and wain,
> The lighter and stronger, the greater they gain.

In the Accounts, July 1589, was paid to Frampolde for watching the wain, which was freighted with stuff which came from London, 2d.; in 1593, an old wain was sold to Christopher Smithe, for 4s.; and as to wain drawers, in May 1591, was paid to three men for drawing the turf wain, every one six days, 18d. (a penny a day each.) June 1600, for driving the stone cart two days (at 2½d.) 5d.

Waistcoats. The placard and stomacher [for men] seem to have been superseded by the waistcoat, which is first mentioned in the latest inventories of temp. Henry VIII. It was worn under the doublet, and had sleeves; and being made of rich materials, such as cloth of silver, quilted

with black silk, "and tuffed out with fine cameric" (cambric), must have been occasionally visible, perhaps in consequence of the slashing of the upper garments, a fashion carried to great excess at that time. The waistcoat for ladies was a similar garment to that worn by the men. One entry in an inventory of Henry VIII. is "two wast-cotes for women, being of clothe of silver, embroidered, both of them having sleeves." The ladies' sleeves were separate, and attached at pleasure to the gown or waistcoat. (*Planché.*) In the Accounts, in May 1618, a waistcoat to my mistress cost 9s.; July 1621, a stuff waistcoat to Mrs. Elizabeth Shuttleworth cost 4s. 4d.

WAITTS. (Gothic *Wahts*, watch.) Formerly, minstrels or musical watchmen, who attended on great men and sounded the watch at night. They have now degenerated into itinerant musicians, who give notice of the approach of Christmas. (*Fosb.*) *B. Dic.* derives the name either of waiting, because they attend on magistrates, officers, &c., or of *guet* a watch, *guetter* to watch, French, because they keep a sort of watch a-nights; and the signification is given as a sort of music or musicians. *B. Gloss.* says that waitts are musicians who parade and play by night in the streets about the time of Christmas and the new year; originally, watchmen or sentinels. They used to be the privileged minstrels at weddings and feasts. The term would seem to be derived from the Mœso-Gothic *Wahts*, vigilia, excubiæ; these waits being anciently viewed as a sort of watchmen. Wait is explained in *Prompt. Parv.*, speculator, vigil. So in old French, waite is garde, sentinelle. (Vide Todd's Johnson, *Waits.*) *Dr. Busby*, in his "Dictionary of Music," says that the word wayghtes, or waitts, formerly signified hautboys; and, which is remarkable, has no singular number. From the instruments, its signification was after a time transferred to the performers, who, being in the habit of parading the streets by night with their music, occasioned the name to be applied generally to all musicians who followed a similar practice. Hence those persons who annually, at the approach of Christmas, salute the public with their nocturnal concerts, were and are to this day called wayghtes, or waits. The institution of waitts, or city minstrels, seems to have existed, as some old writers say, "time out of mind." *Stowe*, in describing the setting of the Midsummer watch on St. John's eve (June 23), says that in the procession the mayor and his sword-bearer were preceded by the waitts, or city minstrels. In the processions on St. Clement's and St. Catharine's days (23rd and 25th November) in Catholic times, the latest in the reign of Mary, the waitts, or minstrels of the city, were an important

part, playing on different instruments. In an old play, *Promos and Cassandra* (printed 1578), the carpenter is commanded to erect a stage, "that the wayghtes in sight may stand;" so that they were employed in court pageants. In the Accounts, in July 1586, was given unto the "wyethes" of Pontefract, 12d.; in January 1591, was given to the "wyethes" of Eland, 4d.; April 1591, paid to Huete, the wyethe of York, 2s.; December, given unto the wyathes of Halifax, 8d.; January 1593, the wyathes of Halifax, 6d. These visits of wandering minstrels were all to Smithills, doubtless in a certain round; and after the removal of the Shuttleworths to Gawthorpe, they seem to have been a little out of the way of itinerating waitts; for there is no entry of their visits till 1611, and then they came from the north country, even as far off as the capital of Cumberland. October 1611, given to the waites of Carlisle, 12d.; November 7, 1612, given to the wates of Manchester, 2s. 6d. [The Manchester town waitts must have been superior, either in numbers or quality, perhaps both. They are often named, and regulations are made for their appointment, government and duties, in the old Court Leet records of the manor of Manchester from 1560 downwards.] March 11, 1613, given to the waitts of Wakefield, 14d.; September 1617, given to the waitts, 6d.; March 11, 1618, given to the waits of Durham by my master's appointment, 3s. 4d. It is curious that only one of these payments to waitts is in December, and one in November, and that the rest are in January, March, April and October, months in which waitts are never heard in these days.

Walling and Wallers. Numerous entries in the Accounts show the mode and cost of getting walling-stone, and the wages for building walls, in connection with the erection of Gawthorpe Hall. For these entries see Index. The walls of our houses on the inner sides be either hanged with tapestry, Arras work, or painted cloths, wherein either divers histories, or herbs, beasts, knots, and such like are stained; or else they are ceiled with oak of our own, or wainscot brought hither out of the Eastern countries; whereby the rooms are not a little commended, made warm, and much more close than they otherwise would be. (*Harri.*)

Walmesley, Mr. Sergeant. Mr. Sergeant Walmesley, afterwards Sir Thomas, and ultimately one of the Judges of the Common Pleas, was of a reputable gentleman's family in Lancashire, being the eldest son of Thomas Walmesley of Showley, by Margaret, daughter of —— Livesay of Livesay. He raised a considerable fortune by the practice of the law in the reign of Elizabeth, and purchased the site of the dissolved abbey of Selby, co. York,

as well as many valuable estates in his native county; the principal of which latter, Dunkenhalgh, was the residence of his posterity till the beginning of the present century, when his line ended in an heiress, Catharine Walmesley, successively married to Lords Petre and Stourton. She died in 1785, and her descendant, the present Lord Petre, hath the estates above mentioned. Sir Thomas married Anne, daughter and heir of [R.] Shuttleworth of Hacking co. Lancaster, his children by whom were bred in the Roman Catholic persuasion, which the family never quitted. He was buried (see *Dugd. Visit. Lanc.*) in the chancel of the church of Blackburn, under a fair, noble, monument, which was destroyed by the rebels in 1644. The following epitaph will probably impart more of his history than is to be met with elsewhere (*From MSS. of John Smyth Esq. of Heath, co. York*): —

Tombs have their periods, monuments decay,
And rust and age wear epitaphs away;
But neither rust nor age nor time shall wear
Judge Walmesley's name that lies entombèd here,
Who never did, for favour nor for awe
Of great men's frowns, quit or forsake the law.
His inside was his outside: he ne'er sought
To make fair shows of what he never thought
For well appear'd it by his bold opinion
In that great case, styled of the Union,
Deliver'd openly in parliament,
How free his heart and tongue together went;
When against all the judges, he alone
Stood singular in his opinion.
And well King James's bounty likewise there,
His justice, greatness, goodness, did appear;
For tho' that his opinion seem'd to bring
Some crosses to th' Union wish'd for by th' king,
Yet (as he thought he freely spoke his mind,
Neither with favour nor with fear inclin'd,)
He did withdraw no grace he show'd before,
But rather of his bounty added more;
For, when as old age, creeping on apace,
Made him unable to supply his place,
Yet he continu'd, by the king's permission,
A judge until his death, still in commission;
And still receivèd, by his special grace,
His fee, as full as when he served the place.

[The epitaph, as continued in prose, and preserved in Dodsworth's MSS. in the Bodleian Library, Oxford, will be found, at least so far as relates to himself, in Appendix I. p. 265 ante.] In the Accounts, in 1587, was received of Mr. Sergeant Walmesley, by the hands of his man, £50; probably a loan returned. For other persons named Walmsley, see Index.

WALNUTS. (Anglo-Saxon *walh*, foreign, and *hnuta*, nut; Dutch *walnoot*; German *wälsche nuss*, i.e. Welsh nut, foreign or Celtic nut.) A tree and its fruit, of the genus *Juglans*. (*Webs.*) The tree is called in English walnut tree, and of some walsh-nut tree, and the nut beareth both names. The nut is called *nux juglans*, q. d. *Jovis glans*, Jupiter's acorn, or *juvans glans*, the helping acorn. The green tender nuts, boiled in sugar and eaten as succade, are a most pleasant and delectable meat, comfort the stomach, and expel poison. The oil of walnuts, made as oil of almonds, maketh smooth the hands and face. Milk made of the kernels, as almond milk, cooleth and pleaseth the appetite of the languishing sick body. With onions, salt, and honey, they are good against the biting of a mad dog or man, if laid upon the wound. (*Ger.*) They entered into English cookery in 1390, as a recipe for crustards [pies] of herbs on fish-day, directs that good herbs be ground small with "wallenotes" picked clean, &c. (*Cury*). The tree has long existed in England. Near Welwyn, co. Hertford, was the largest walnut-tree on record. It was felled in 1627, and from it were cut nineteen loads of planks, and as much was sold to a London gunsmith as cost £10 carriage; besides which there were thirty loads of roots and branches. When standing it covered 76 poles of ground, and consequently covered an area of 2299 square yards statute measure. The black walnut tree (*juglans nigra*) was brought hither from North America before 1629. (*Haydn*). In the Accounts, while the family were in London, in October 1608, a dozen walnuts and hazel nuts cost 3d.; and walnuts for Mr. Ashton 2d.

WANTOE, WANTON, WANTY. Wantoe is *wame-tow*, i.e. belly-band, the girth from shaft to shaft. Wanton is a corruption of the same word. Wanty, in like manner, is the *wame-tie*, or in some cases *wain-tie*, a leathern tie or rope; a short waggon rope, a surcingle, or large girth for a packhorse. (*Halli.*; *B. Gloss*, *&c.*) *Tusser* in his list of husbandly fare has the line, "A pannell and *wanty*, pack-saddle and ped." The *wanty* is a leather tie for pannel or pad indifferently. In July 1532, was paid for two "wayne-towe-shafts" 4d. (*Durham Burs. Mem.*) In the Accounts, in March 1603, for four wantto-shafts, bought at Clitheroe, 11d.; March 1612, four wanton-shafts and a pair of traces 18d.; December 1617, four wantoe shafts 12d.;

July 1621, three wantoe shafts and three bothomes [bottoms] 18d.; December 1612, wanton bothomes 10d.

Wapentake. (Anglo-Saxon *weapen*, a weapon, and *tac*, touch, take.) Used in the north as identical with hundred, and said to be of Danish origin. He who was chief of the wapentake or hundred (now termed high constable) as soon as he entered on his office appeared in the field on a certain day on horseback with a pike in his hand, and all the chief men of his hundred met him there with their lances, and touched his pike, a sign of their being firmly united to each other. (*Hoveden*; *Fleta*; &c.) Anciently, musters were made of the armour and weapons of the inhabitants of every wapentake, and from those that could not find sufficient pledges for their good bearing, their weapons were taken away and given to others. (*Sir T. Smith.*) In later times, the court of the hundred, or wapentake, issuing summons to call persons before it, these summonses took the name of the court; and such is the meaning of the entry in the Accounts. In March 1583, for leyinge of a wape [an information, on which the summons issued] unto William Duckworth of Tingreave, 8d. Nothing is more common at the present day in Lancashire, in the progress of that agreeable occupation, dunning for debts, than to hear a genuine Lancashire man say to another, "Ah'll tell thee whot, Tum, if thou dunno' pay me to-morrow, ah'll fot a wap [fetch a summons] for thee."

Wardens. (*Dr. Th. H.* derives it of *weardan*, Anglo-Saxon, to defend, because it keeps a long time without rotting. A large sort of delicious baking-pear. (*B. Dic.*) The warden-tree and winter-pear will challenge the pre-eminence (amongst fruit-trees) for stature. (*Lawson's New Orchard and Garden.*) In 1531, 250 "wardons" cost 3s. 4d. at Hemmingborough, near Selby, Yorkshire, and the carriage thence to Finchale Priory, 20d. (*Finchale.*) They were used as dishes for the table, both cooked at dinner and in various forms at dessert. The following is an old recipe for "Wardens in syrup:" Pare wardens clean, seethe them in red wine with mulberries or sanders, till they be tender, then take them up and cut them and put them in a pot; and put thereto wine Crete, or vernage [i.e. wine of Crete, or of Verona, sweet wines], or other good sweet wine, and blanche powder of sugar and powder of ginger, and let them boil awhile, and then serve forth. (*Arundel MS.*, *15th century.*) *Mark.* gives a recipe of later times for "A warden pie." Bake your wardens in an earthen pot, with a little claret, some spice, lemon-peel, and sugar. (*Price.*) In *C. C. Dic.* are recipes to stew wardens and to make warden pie. In Sir

Kenelm Digby's "Closet Opened" are also recipes for stewing and for preserving wardens; and as to the latter he says: "The whole secret of making them red consisteth in doing them in pewter, which spoileth other preserves; and in any other metal these will not be red." Wardens are several times named in the Accounts.

Ware Land. (? weared, or ware; worn, spent.) Land lying fallow. In 1585 was received £18 for straw and oats to sow at Forcet, and for 9 acres arable and 15 acres ware land.

Warrens, of Poynton. This family, as we learn from the Accounts, kept, or, at all events, allowed their names to be used by, a band of travelling minstrels or musicians; and the Mr. Warren of that day sent various presents of stags, &c., to Sir Richard Shuttleworth. Mr. Watson, in his history of the House of Warren, derives the Warrens of Poynton, co. Chester, from Reginald, a younger son of William, second Earl of Warren and Surrey, who died in 1138. This Reginald married a daughter of William de Mowbray. This branch of the Warrens settled in Cheshire in the reign of Edward III. (1369), having married Cecilia, daughter and heiress of Sir Nicholas Eton, Lord of Southport and Poynton. This ancient family became extinct in 1801, by the death of Sir George Warren K.B., whose only daughter married Lord Viscount Bulkeley. In the Accounts, we have the following entries: December 1611, given to the musicians, Mr. Warren's men, 12d. This would be at Gawthorpe. But in September 1590, Mr. Warren's man, who brought a stag to Smithills, had a fee of 5s.; in September 1593, ditto 6s. 8d.; September 1594, Mr. Warren's man, for his pains in bringing a stag hither [to Smithills] 6s.; September 1597, Mr. Warren of Poynton, to his man for a stag of this season, 10s. The park of Poynton must therefore have been stocked at that period with the red deer, and not with the more common fallow deer. See Index.

Warrington. A market town, parish, and township in the hundred of West Derby, eighteen miles west from Manchester. The site of the Roman *Veratinum*, and subsequently named Walingtune and Weringtun. It gave the name to the hundred (now West Derby) in Domesday Book. It is situated on the north bank of the Mersey, which was passed there by a ford till 1496, when the first Earl of Derby built a bridge, a mile to the east of the ford, to accommodate Henry VII. on his visit to Lathom House. For an interesting picture of Warrington in the fifteenth century (1465) see vol. xvii. of the Chetham Society, edited by William Beamont Esq. Besides a fair every Wednesday fortnight for cattle, Warrington has two

annual fares of ten days each, one beginning July 18th, and the other November 30th, for horses, horned cattle, and cloth. Warrington is a town where malting is brought to as great perfection as at Derby or elsewhere; the liquors brewed from it being no ways inferior to the most noted ales in England. (*C. Leigh.*) In the Accounts, in 1583, fish was bought at Warrington; November 1586, "towell" for sacks and sheets was bought there at the fair; August 1592, a "diall" [? a sun-dial or a watch] was brought thence; October 1598, some travelling expenses were incurred there. See Index.

WASWALL OR WISWALL. In the Accounts, there was paid in "Waswall" 4s. 4d. for bread and drink to seventeen men that came with the "careringe" that came forth of Pendle forest. Its name is really Wiswall; the origin being probably Wiga's Wealla, i.e. Wiga's (or the hero's) well. It is a township in the manor of and immediately contiguous to Whalley, and about three miles south of Clitheroe, with an area of 1410 acres. The manor belonged to the Sherburnes, and more recently to their descendants the Welds.

WASHING. The cleansing of linen, anciently by the use of fuller's earth, or by plants giving out a strong alkali, and by bleaching on the grass, must have received a great improvement on the manufacture of soap, which is stated to have been introduced into London about 1524, and it would greatly tend to promote personal cleanliness. (See SOAP.) We see by the Accounts that early in the seventeenth century washing for hire was an occupation of women. In April 1610, Birchall's wife, for washing for [two youths] Henry Southworth and Lawrence Shuttleworth, for three quarters, was paid 4s. (8d. each per quarter.) May, a quarter's washing to Roger Isherwood cost 6d. October, the cowman's wife, a quarter's washing to Leigh, 6d. April 1611, a quarter's washing to Henry Shuttleworth, Lawrence and John Legh, 2s. July 1613, for washing the cook boy's clothes, 9d. In November 1608, a cooler and washing tub cost 8s.

WASSAIL BOWL. The word wassail is said to be derived from Anglo-Saxon "*Wæs hæl*," i.e. "health to you." The wassail-bowl, filled with spiced ale, was formerly carried about by young women on New Year's Eve, who went from door to door, singing a few couplets of homely verses composed for the purpose, and presented the liquor to be tasted by the inhabitants of each house where they called, of course expecting a small gratuity in return. *Selden*, in his "Table Talk," refers to the custom:— "The Pope, in sending reliques to princes, does as wenches do by their

wassails at New Year's tide; they present you with a cup, and you must drink of a shabby stuff: but the meaning is, you must give them moneys, ten times more than it is worth." Ben Jonson has the following direction in one of his plays — "Enter Wassail, like a neat sempster and songster, her page bearing a brown bowl dressed with ribbons and rosemary before her." Warton says the wassail bowl is Shakspere's "gossips' bowl," in the *Midsummer Night's Dream.* The composition was ale, nutmeg, sugar, toast, and roasted crabs or apples; and this mixture was also called "lambs' wool." (See *Brand*, who gives wassail songs; *Strutt*, &c.) That the custom prevailed at the beginning of the seventeenth century we have evidence in the Accounts, for in January 1609, was "given to the maids who came with the wassail bowl 12d.

Watchet, (of *Wæced*, Anglo Saxon weak, says Skinner, q.d. a weak or pale colour), a kind of pale blue. (*B. Dic.*) Most probably from wad or woad, Anglo Saxon *watchet*, i.e. the colour of the dye of woad, or pale blue. (*Nares.*) "Here we see *watchet* deepened with a blue." (*Browne.*) In the Accounts, in August 1609, are named four watchet cotton hose cloths; June 1609, four yards watchet-coloured ribbon and a skein of silk cost 9d.

Water. This prime necessary of life had to be purchased at Islington in 1608-9. August 1608, was paid for water 22d. April 1609, given to a neighbour for leave to fetch water at his well 12d.

Watermen of the Thames. In September 1608, was spent when I went with Mr. Walmesley [? was this Sergeant, afterwards Sir Thomas the Judge] to see a house, and to the watermen, 7d.; a pair of oars when my mistress and Mistress Elenor went to Thames, 2s.; ditto when my mistress, Mistress Anne, and Mistress Elizabeth went to Thames, 18d.; by water to Lambeth and back again 3d.

Waters. The extent to which medicinal waters were distilled from herbs and other things, and prescribed by regular medical practitioners, in all diseases, would scarcely be credited; but an old black-letter volume, printed by Peter Treveris in London, originally in 1516, next in 1526, and again in 1529, enables us to convey some idea of the number and variety of these waters. The volume includes two works, "The grete Herball . . . . . translated out of the French into English," and "The Vertuous book of the distillacion of all maner of waters . . . . . first made in High Almaine [German] by me Jerom [of] Brunswick. Translated by Lawrence Andrew, 1525." In the following list we omit the word "water," which must be understood in connection with every substance named, and the Latin

names of plants, &c., are placed in parentheses: — *Flowers:* Mallow, borage, blue flower-de-luce, bean flowers, blue violets, May-flowers (lilium convallium), white lily, white rose, wild rose, nenufar, poppy-flower, camomile, centaury, archangel, dill, yellow violets, wild tansy, lavender, rosemary, marjoram, sage, St. John's wort, wild periwinkle, quince flowers, tilu, peach, sloe, &c. *Leaves;* birch, wild pink, beech, oak, ivy, ash, elm, vine, fusamus, thamariscus [tamarisk], savin. *Fruits or berries:* holme (viscus), wild bramble, green beans, bean shells, great plaintain seed, strawberries, plums or damsons, gourds, black and red cherries, duck's-meat (lenticula), green walnut shells, campernoils or toad stools, wild or tame apples, wild pears, &c. *Herbs of common heat:* sorel, endive, benestele, borage, cress, prunella, barba hyrcina, arthemisia, rubea, centum morbia, scatum celle, or pennywort, threyfels, apium domesticum, Aaron, yacea (herba clavellata), lady-thistle, cinquefoil, fennel, herb Robert, yarrow, ground ivy, fumitory, consolida media, liver wort, chervil, cards, loveage (levisticum), cauda equina [mare's tail], lettuce, May-dew, nightshade, parsley, parsneps, dandelion, ditto stalk, tansy, herba paralysis, saxifrage, scabious, celandine, centum nodia, marigolds. *Cooling herbs:* mandrake, henquale, porcelain [purslain], house leek, duck's meat eppy [*sic*], crassula minor, hemlock (sicuta). *Hot and dry herbs:* horehound (marubium), scabwort (enula campana, horse mint (mentastrum), agrimony, pulegrum, basilicon, cardo benedicta [holy thistle], centaury, camomile, archangel, dill, burning-nettles, veronica, gamander, tanaceta agreste, hops, harts-tongue, mirica, verbena, hyssop, lavender, mayolane, menta, apium, melissa, sage (salvia), smearwort (aristologia longa), wild thyme or our Lady bedstraw, wild trefoil, rue (ruta), St. John's wort, rosemary, saponaria, daisy (consolida minor), pyrola. *Moisty roots:* borage, parsneps, cardo benedictus, fennel, parsley, hermodactylus, radish, rapes, wallwort, white lilies, Solomon's seal. *Hot roots:* enula campana, angelica, pimpernel, blue flower-de-luce, valerian, nettles, low lilies, asparagus, asara alba or assa dulcis. *Distilled waters of beasts, fowl, vermin, or worms:* pyes, ducks, geese blood, goat buck's blood, blood of an ape, yolks of eggs, whites of eggs, ants' or pismire eggs, frogs, hens, hens' maws, capons, cow cream, cow dung, calves' blood, flies, man's dung, ox blood, swine's blood, storks, snails, &c. The learned Jerome dwells on the potent efficacy of these waters, of which he says that "the substance of their corpses be not ministered in the body, but only through a lovely and fair manner, well pleasing to the patient;" meaning that instead of eating the various substances named in the solid, the patient has only to swallow

water distilled from the substances. According to a table of the diseases to be "cured or holpen" by these waters, there would seem to be none of the ills that flesh is heir to, that may not be healed or removed by these delectable drinks. Recipes are given for waters to make the hair yellow, against partenets or other lice, against white or black webs of the eyes, red or swollen eyes, come of heat or smoke [probably before the luxury of chimneys was universal], against slimy eyen baken together in the morning, to make the face fair and amiable, against the hycke or yesking, named in Latin *singultus*, against wepsyng and parbraking [vomiting]; against incantations: if a body had eaten a spinner [spider], how he should be holpen; to strengthen and comfort the milt [spleen], against the whitlow or vyte in the fingers, leprousness, a broken leg or rib, burning with hot water, oil, or fire, for them that have swallowed a gnat, stinging of a spinner, &c. Towards the end are some miscellaneous recipes, "with what water ye shall temper iron and make it as hard as steel," to make troublous wine clear, and, harder still,

> To make unity and peace between man and wife,
> That be at the baton's strife,

with what water they should be appeased. The end of this curious volume (the first English Herbal and the first book in English treating of distillation, with rude woodcuts of the different kinds of stills) is wanting. We do not find in it any directions for distilling alcoholic drinks; nowhere is there any mention of a water distilled from grapes, sugar, or from barley, or anything that would give an alcoholic, or spirituous liquor, such as brandy, rum, geneva, or whisky, a corruption of the Erse word usquebaugh. Waters were classed as simple and compound, as sweet (perfumed), cosmetic and cordial, no less than medicinal. *Tusser* gives a list of seventeen herbs "to still in summer," the last being "woodroffe, for sweet waters and cakes." *Mavor* in a note adds that the art of distilling simples was not unknown at an early period, and was regularly practised by careful matrons, for family purposes, as occasional medicines, or agreeable drams. We have now, however, discarded the greatest part of Tusser's list as useless, and found more beneficial or pleasant substitutes for others. In "The English Housewife," many recipes are given for medicinal waters and drinks, as one for a pearl in the eye, a red water for any kind of cancer, a water to wash a sore or ulcer with, another to heal wounds, another to heal any green wound, cut or sore. Dr. Stephens's water, "a sovereign water first invented by him, the receipt for which the Doctor, a little before his death, delivered to the

Archbishop of Canterbury." "With this water Dr. Stephens preserved his own life to such extreme age that he could neither go nor ride, and he continued his life, being bedrid, five years, when other physicians did judge he could not live one year; when he did confess, a little before his death, saying, that if he were sick at any time, he never used anything but this water only. The Archbishop of Canterbury used it, and found such goodness in it that he lived till he was not able to drink out of a cup, but sucked his drink through a hollow pipe of silver." [We dare not withhold this "sovereign" recipe from the reader]:—A gallon of Gascon wine; of ginger, galingale, cinnamon, nutmegs, grains [of Paradise], cloves bruised, fennel-seeds, carraway-seeds, origanum, of each a dram. Of sage, wild marjoram, pennyroyal, mint, red roses, thyme, pellitory, rosemary, wild thyme, camomile, lavender, of each a handful. Bray the spices small, bruise the herbs, put all into the wine, and let it stand so twelve hours, only stir it divers times; then distil it by a limbeck, and keep the first water by itself, for that is the best; then the second water, for that is good; and for the last, neglect it not, for it is very wholesome, though the worst of the three. This water will be much the better if it be set in the sun.—Then the housewife is to furnish herself of very good stills, tin or sweet earth, in which to distil all sorts of waters, meet for the health of her household, as sage water, good for all rheums and cholics; radish water, for the stone; angelica water, against infection; celandine, for sore eyes; vine, for itchings; rose-water and eyebright-water, for dim sights; rosemary for fistulas; treacle water, for mouth cankers; water of cloves, for pain in the stomach; saxifrage, for gravel and hard urine; alum water, for old ulcers; and a world of others. The best waters for the smoothing of the skin and keeping the face delicate and amiable, are those distilled from bean flowers, from strawberries, from vine leaves, from goats' milk, asses' milk, whites of eggs, flowers of lilies, dragons, calves' feet, bran, yolks of eggs, &c. Recipes follow for aqua vitæ [made of herbs, four gallons of strong ale (in another recipe, of strong wine) and one gallon of sack lees, &c., with a pottle of rosa solis, sugar, fruit and spices]; aqua composita, a very principal ditto, imperial water, cinnamon water, "six most precious waters, which Hippocrates made and sent to a queen sometime living in England." Of the first of these six waters "you shall give to the rich for gold, to meaner for silver, and to poor men for balm." The water of chervile is good for a sore mouth, of calamint for the stomach, of plantain for the flux and hot dropsy, of fennel to make a fat body small and also for the eyes, of violets for the

reins and liver, of endive for dropsy, jaundice, and the stomach, of borage for the stomach, iliac passio, and many other sicknesses, of sage for the palsy, of betony for old age and all inward sicknesses, of rosemary for a fair and clear countenance and to prevent falling off of the hair, of rue against griping, &c., of sorrel for all burning and pestilent fevers, all other hot sicknesses, and jaundice, and of angelica for the head, inward infection of plague or pestilence, gout, &c. As to the period of most strength, and greatest virtue in simples, that of herbs and leaves is from the 8th of the kalends of April till the 8th of the kalends of July; that of the stalks, stems, and hard branches, from the 8th of the kalends of July to the 8th of the kalends of October; and that of the roots from the last date to the 8th of the kalends of April. An excellent water for perfume is made of various sweet smelling herbs, of spices, musk, civet, and ambergris, &c., with rose-water. The musk, &c., steeped in the water and burned upon a hot pan, or boiled in perfuming pans with cloves, bayleaves and lemon peels, will make the most delicate perfume that may be, without any offence, and will last the longest of all perfumes, as hath been found by experience. Next come recipes for a sweet water, a very rare and pleasant damask water, &c. (*Mark.*) The simple waters now commonly made, says *Mrs. Elizabeth Price*, in her "Whole Art of Confectionery," are orange flower water, cinnamon, fennel, peppermint, spearmint, balm, pennyroyal, Jamaica pepper, castor, and simple water of orange peel, and of dill seed. The sweet waters are damask rose, lavender, and spike, of blossoms of lemons or oranges, of myrtle blossoms, of blossoms of jessamine, and of marjoram, storax, calaminta, and Benjamin (benzoin) and musk: these distilled and kept in a glass vessel fifteen days in the sun. The same work has a recipe for Lady Hewett's water, which has seventy-eight ingredients — herbs, roots, spices, &c., with cordial bezoar, flour of coral, flour of amber, flour of pearl, four leaves of gold, white sugar candy and sherry sack. "There never was a better cordial in cases of the greatest illness: two or three spoonfuls almost revive from death." A "surfeit water" contains brandy, white sugar candy, raisins, dates, and various herbs and spices. "Cardamum water" is distilled from warm spices with three gallons of proof spirits, sugar, and water. (*Price.*) Gradually these sweet waters became strong waters, and were not the less relished; ladies of title giving their names to those brews which best suited their ailment, or their taste.

Wax. In the Accounts, in October 1610, soft wax [? bees] cost 2d.; November 1612, 2 lb. yellow wax to my mistress, 2s. 8d.; February 1620, red wax, 2d. Probably only the last was sealing wax.

WEAVING. To weave (Anglo-Saxon *wefan*) is to unite threads of any kind in such a manner as to form cloth by crossing the threads by means of a shuttle; those threads first laid in length being called the warp, and those which cross them in the direction of the breadth, the weft or woof. Weaving is the making cloth of threads by means of a loom. (*Webs.*) Two weavers from Brabant [William de Brabant and Hanckin de Brabant] settled at York, where they manufactured woollens, which, says Edward III. in 1336, "may prove of great benefit to us and our subjects." Flemish weavers, silk throwsters, &c., settled at Canterbury, Norwich, Colchester, Southampton, and other places, on account of the Duke of Alva's persecution, in 1567. (*Haydn.*) *Rapin* states that in 1331 the art of weaving woollen cloth was brought from Flanders by John Kemp, to whom the King (Edward III.) granted his protection, and at the same time invited over fullers, dyers, &c.. (The letters of protection to Kemp may be found in *Rymer's Fœd.* tom. iv. p. 496.) But it is a mistake to suppose that this was the first weaving of woollen cloth in England. The statute of 9th Henry III. cap. 25 (1224) proves that cloth was made in England a century earlier; for it fixes that one breadth of dyed cloth, russets and haberjects, shall be two yards within the lists. This is 107 years sooner than by most writers the introduction of the weaving of woollen cloth in England is dated. All that was done in 1331 and 1336 was to improve the art by the introduction of Flemish weavers, &c. Lord Chief Justice Coke, remarking on the statute of 1224, says that the first beginning of the woollen manufacture in England was then ancient, and beyond remembrance or notice of history. Amongst the petitions moved at the parliament at York, 8th Edward III. (1334) was one, that remedy may be had for the true making of woollen cloths according to the assize; to which the answer was that the king would provide for the execution of the statute. (*Pryn.*) It is clear from this that the woollen manufacture was not new in England even two years before the arrival of the above-named Flemish weavers in York. (See WOOL, LINEN, COTTON, SILK, &c.) In the Accounts, the entries of weaving are very numerous, and relate chiefly to the weaving of blankets and cloth from wool, and of linen, flaxen and hempen cloth, canvas, napkins, &c. from flax and hemp. In January 1630, 12s. was paid for "12 yards of loom-work." Some entries relate to the "webster," the old name of weaver, as the piece woven was called the web, and still retains the old name in many parts of Lancashire; and various public-houses still have the sign of the "Websters' Arms." In September 1590, 10s. 6d. was paid un-

to the webster for weaving of cloth; August 1591, the webster, for weaving forty yards of cloth (at 1½d.), 5s.; October 1597, Giles Edge's wife, for weaving and walking [fulling] seven yards kersey, and thirty-five yards plain [woollen] cloth, 9s. August 1620, to the webster, for weaving twenty-four yards of linen, (at 2d.), for napkins, 4s. *Woollen Cloth:* November 1591, for weaving forty yards (at 12d. the score), 2s.; June 1611, weaving forty-two yards (at 1d.), 3s. 6d. September, weaving twenty-four yards, 2s. *Blankets:* July 1587, to Alexander Cantell, for weaving two pieces of blankets (at ¾d. per yard), forty-four yards, 2s. 9d.; July 1617, for weaving two stone of spun wool into blankets, 7s. 6d. *Canvas:* March 1583, mending canvas, 2s. 10d.; February 1584, ditto four score and four yards, 5s.; October, forty-two yards, 3s. 4d.; April 1589, thirty yards (at ½d.) 15d.; June, John Morris wife, for weaving forty yards canvas cloth, 20d.; August, to ditto, forty yards (at ¾d.) 2s. 6d; September, thirty-two yards (at 2d.) 5s. 4d.; December 1594, thirty-one yards (at 1½d.) 3s. 10d.; January 1587, one hundred and five yards, 5s. 10d.; one hundred and ten yards of great canvas (at 12d. the score) and twenty-five yards, 15d. March 1603, eight yards lacking half quarter, 7d.; May 1605, weaving twenty yards of canvas of the hemp that came from Hoole (at 1¼d.) [total lost]. September 1610, forty yards (at 1d.) 3s.; October 1618, paid by my mistress for weaving sixty-five yards (1d.) 5s. 5d.· December 1597, weaving forty-seven yards of the tere of canvas (1d.) 3s. 11d. *Hempen Cloth:* October 1591, weaving eighty-two yards (at 12d. the score) 4s. *Flaxen Cloth:* May 1596, weaving eight score eight [168] yards flaxen and hempen cloth, 11s.; January 1597, thirty-eight yards, 4s. 4d.; May 1605, sixteen yards of line cloth of the tithe flax from Hoole (2d.) 2s. 8d. *Linen Cloth:* December 1590, Thomas Pendlebury, for weaving two hundred and one yards, 16s. 8d.; September 1591, thirty yards, 2s.; December 1593, Thomas Pendlebury, for weaving linen cloth this year, 13s.; October 1594, eighteen yards and twenty yards of fine linen, to be my master shirts, 9s.; September 1598, thirty-seven yards for ditto (4d.) saving one yard, 12s.; May 1605, sixteen and a half yards, made of the flax of Hoole (2d.) 2s. 8d.; August 1617, weaving thirty yards fine linen cloth (8d.) 20s. *Napkins:* January 1587, to Thomas Pendlebury, for weaving . . . . eleven yards table napkin, 9d.; May 1617, weaving table cloths at Barton, 8s.; July 1620, thirty-four yards for napkins (1½d.) 4s. 3d. August, twenty-four yards linen for napkins (2d.) 4s.; fifteen yards canvas, for [coarse] napkins (1½d.) 2s. 6d.

WEEDING. (Anglo-Saxon *weod*, a noxious plant; *weodian*, to weed or remove such plants). In the later end of May and the beginning of June, is time to weed thy corn. There be divers maner of weeds as thistles, kedlocks [charlocks], docks, cockle, drake [darnel grass], darnold [darnel], golds [corn-marigolds], haudods [?], dog-fennel, mathes [the great ox-eyed daisy], tere [tares, or tar-grass, wild vetches], and divers other small weeds; but these be they that grow most. The thistle is an ill weed, rough and sharp to handle, and fretteth away the corns nigh it, and causeth the shearers or reapers not to shear clean. Kedlocks hath a leaf like rapes, and beareth a yellow flower and is an ill weed, and groweth in all manner of corn, and hath small cods, and groweth like mustard-seed. Docks have a broad leaf, and divers high spires and very small seed in the top. Cockle hath a long, small leaf, and beareth five or six flowers, of purple cob, as broad as a groat, and the seed is round and black, and may well be suffered in breed corn, but not in seed; for therein is much flower. Drake is like unto rye, till it begin to seed, and it hath many seeds like fennel-seeds, and hangeth downward, as it may well be suffered in brede, for there is much flower in the seed; and it is an opinion that it cometh of rye, &c. Darnold groweth up straight like a high grass, and hath long seeds on either side the start, and there is much flower in the seed, and [it] groweth much among barley. Golds hath a short jagged leaf, and groweth half a yard high, and hath a yellow flower as broad as a groat, and is an ill weed, and groweth commonly in barley and peas. Hawdod hath a blue flower, and a few little leaves, and hath five or six branches flowered in the top, and groweth commonly in rye upon lean ground, and doth little hurt. Dog-fennel and mathes is both one, and in the coming up is like fennel, and beareth many white flowers, with a yellow seed, and it is the worst weed that is, except terre, and it cometh most commonly when great wheat cometh shortly after the corn is sown. Terre is the worst weed, and it never doth appear till June, and specially when there is great wet in the moon, or a little before; it groweth most in rye, and it groweth like fitches, but it is much smaller and it will grow as high as the corn, and with the weight thereof it pulleth the corn flat to the earth, and fretteth the ears away. Wherefore I have seen husbands mow down the corn and it together; and also with sharp hooks to reap it, as they do peas, and make it dry, and then it will be good fodder. There be other weeds not spoken of, as dee nettles [dead or blind nettles], dodder [a long fibrous grassy weed, parasitic on nettles, &c.], and such others, that do much harm. This writer gives full direction how to weed

corn, the chief instrument being a pair of tongs made of wood, nicked in the farther end to hold the weed faster. Also, a weeding hook, with a socket set upon a little staff a yard long, and this hook well steeled and ground sharp both behind and before. A forked stick for the weeder to put the weed from him. But dog-fennel, golds, maths and kedlocks must be weeded by hand; and as for terre, there will no remedy serve. (*Fitz.*) For various entries in the Accounts of wages for weeding, see Index.

WEIGHTS. The least of all weights is a grain, which is the weight either of a barleycorn or of a peppercorn, and his character is G. or Gr. Siligna is 4 grains, and his character is f. An English halfpenny (silver) is 5 grains, and his character is *ob.* A scruple is 10 grains, and his character is ℈. A dram is 3 scruples, or the eighth of an ounce, and his character is ʒ. A Roman penny is the same that a dram is, and his character is X. An ounce is the twelfth part of a lb. which is 24 scruples, and 480 grains, and his character is ℥. The character of half an ounce is fs. A lb. in medicinal recipes is 12 ounces, and his character is ℔. The handful is $6\frac{2}{3}$ ounces, and his character is M. The character of as much as you can hold betwixt your fingers is ℞. The character for a drop is *Gut.*; for three drops, *Gut.* iij. lb. fs is half a pound. ℥ fs is half an ounce. ʒ j fs is half a dram. ℈ fs is half a scruple. ℥ fs is an ounce and a half. Mj fs is a handful and a half. Pj is half a handful, which is $3\frac{1}{3}$ ounces. *Ana* or *an* is alike, or of each alike. (*Mark.*) To the general rule of 14 lb. to the stone, meat was an exception, 8 lb. of meat being a stone. As to hay and straw, 56 lb. of old, or 60 lb. of new hay was a truss; of straw, 40 lb. was a truss. 36 trusses made the load. Of wool, 7 lb. (avoirdupois) was a clove; 14 lb. or 2 cloves=a stone; 2 stones=a tod; $6\frac{1}{2}$ tods, or 13 stone=a wey or weigh; 2 weys a sack, and 12 sacks, or 436 lb.=1 last. (*Crabbe.*) But temp. Edward I. a wey of wool=2 sacks, and a wey of salt 25 quarters. (*Edw. I.*) As to the equivalents between weight and measure of capacity, in the beginning of the fifteenth century, at Durham, 3 lb.=1 quart, and 12 lb. "aver de pays" 1 *lagena* or gallon of Durham measure. (*Finchale.*) See Index, and notes on MEASURES, WOOL, &c.

WESTCLOSE. A farm so called, still belonging to the Shuttleworths, and lying on the south of the village of Higham; indeed Higham Booth, with Westclose, forms a township in the parish of Whalley, three miles north-west of Burnley, and at the edge of the forest of Pendle. The township has an area of 1,400 acres. In a list of the estates, that of Westclose (copyhold) appears to include Parrock and Parrock or Park Meadow, and

Battery Ache. [Is this last a corruption of Buttery hatch?] In the Accounts, in December 1598, Sir Richard Shuttleworth paid the quarter's rent, tithe-corn rent, and a relief for Westclose; also the serving of the grave of Pendle, being "a third part of the graveship of Pendle, for my land in Westclose." February 1600, to the grave of Pendle for your land in Westclose, laid after 22d. in the pound, for Ireland soldiers, 22½d. Ditto, ox-lay for your part in Westclose, 6½d. In 1597, the tenants of Westclose and Hunterholme paid for Whitsunday rent, £8 13s. 4d.; in 1597, the half year's rent received for the Westclose was £10 6s. 8d.

WETHERS. (*Weder*, Anglo-Saxon.) A cut male sheep. (*B. Dic.*) For entries of prices, &c., in the Accounts, see Index.

WHALEBONE. A firm, elastic substance taken from the upper jaw of the whale. The whalebone was imported into England prior to 1611, when the first ships were sent from this country to the fishery. *Anderson* says that whalebone was not known at the early period named; but that this name was given by the ancients to ivory. This will explain Shakspere's simile in *Love's Labour Lost*, "To show his teeth as white as whale his bone." Many of our older poets and writers use the same image (see *Nares*), clearly meaning ivory; for whalebone is nearer black than white. Amongst the presents to Queen Elizabeth was "a ryding-wand of whale's-fin." This elastic substance was used to stiffen and support articles of female attire, as the ruff, the stomacher, &c. About the middle of Elizabeth's reign the body was imprisoned in whalebone to the hips. (*Planché.*) In the Accounts in April 1613, eight yards of whalebone cost 18d., and with it were bought white Jens or jean fustian and a pasteboard. In February 1619, three oz. of whalebone cost 6d., and with it were bought buckram and fustian, showing that in both cases it was used to give stiffness to female attire; as in more modern times it is used in stays.

WHALLEY. A parish and township six miles north-east from Blackburn. The parish formerly comprised almost the whole of "Blackburnshire" hundred, including the modern parishes of Blackburn, Chipping, Ribchester, with part of Rochdale in Salford hundred, and Slaidburn and Mitton in Yorkshire. It still has an area of nearly 200 square miles, containing no fewer than forty-nine chapelries and townships, amongst which those most connected with the Accounts are Burnley, Clayton-le-Moors, Clitheroe, Habergham Eaves, Hapton, Higham Booth, Huncote, Ightenhill Park, Little Mitton, Oswaldtwisle, Padiham, Read, Simonstone, Twiston, Whalley and Wiswall. The village of Whalley is pleasantly seated on the

Calder: its church is ancient; and the remains of the Cistercian abbey, founded in 1296 by Henry Lacy, Earl of Lincoln, and dissolved in 1536, form a picturesque and interesting ruin. By the great inquisition, after the death of Henry de Lacy, the last Earl of Lincoln, in 1311 (which is much more exact than most similar records, because of the Crown having the reversion of the estates), the following are ascertained to be the extent and ancient tenures of the manors named: —

Manor.	*Measure.*	*Ancient tenure.*
Whalley	2 carucates	Frank almoigne.
Huncote	2 do.	Never granted out.
Little Mitton	1 do.	Knight's service.
Wiswall	2 do.	do.
Clitheroe	1 do.	In demesne.
Merlay mag	2 do.	Knight's service.
Merlay parv	1 do.	do.
Alvetham, with Clayton	1 do.	do.
Brunley, with	1 do.	One manor, never
Habergham Eaves	½ do.	granted out.
Townley, with Brunshawe	½ do.	Knight's service.
Hapton, with	1 do.	Two manors in
Bridtwisle	½ do.	Knight's service.

Others Dr. Whitaker regards as having a baser origin, their tenure being thanage. Of these are Read, containing 7 oxgangs; Simonstone (7) and Padiham (4) he conceives to have been originally one township, forming a carucate; Padiham was never granted out; Twisleton 1 carucate; Oswaldtwisle 2; Henthorn ½ a carucate. (See *Whalley.*) Of the *vicars* of Whalley during the period, it may suffice to say that George Dobson, rural dean of Blackburn, held the vicarage from 1558 till his death in 1583, when he was succeeded by Robert Osbaldeston, who (in what year is uncertain) was succeeded by Peter Ormerod, who died in 1631. In the Accounts, various articles, as girthweb, &c., were bought there; the Whalley saddler was in request at Gawthorpe; and timber was got there from Mr. Braddyll's wood, for the erection of the new hall, Gawthorpe. In June 1602, was paid to "Dick of the shop," for ten timber trees bought of him in Mr. Braddyll's wood at Whalley, £7 10s. [The woods of Whalley, at the time of the Domesday survey, covered 640 acres of the 1,560 acres which then constituted the manor. They were still extensive

at the beginning of the seventeenth century.] In June 1605, a Latin Accidence was bought for 4d. at Whalley; and in March 1619 a muster was held there. See Index. The estates of Whalley Abbey were purchased of the Crown (twenty days before the death of Edward VI.) by John Braddyll of Braddyll and Brockholes, and Richard Assheton, a younger son of the house of Lever. In the partition betwixt the two grantees, Assheton obtained exclusive possession of the house, but Braddyll retained much the larger portion of the demesnes. In 1618, the house of Whalley was the residence of the Sir Ralphe Assheton of Great Lever and Whalley, who however did not obtain his baronetcy till 1620. He was born in 1579, and, as Mr. Ralph Assheton, married Elenor, second daughter of Mr. Thomas Shuttleworth in March 1610. In September 1618 Colonel Richard Shuttleworth (her eldest brother) or some of his family were visiting at Whalley Abbey, and gave to the housekeepers there 3s. 4d. as their fee. See Index.

WHEAT. (Anglo-Saxon *hwæte*, Gothic *hwit*, Swedish *hvete*, Danish *hveete*.) This is stated to be, next to rice, the grain most generally used as food by the human race. The varieties are numerous, as red, white, bald, bearded, winter and summer wheat, &c. (*Webs.*) *Ger.* describes and figures the white, bearded, double-eared, flat, bright, and other varieties of wheat. In England we call the white wheat, also flaxen wheat. The red is called in Kent duckbill wheat and Normandy wheat. Of course both the wheat itself, the flour, the bran and bread, are described by the old physician and herbalist as full of medicinal virtues. The fine flour, mixed with the yoke of an egg, honey and a little saffron, doth draw and heal biles [boils] and such like sores in children and in old people, very well and quickly. (*Ger.*) What we now call maize or Indian corn was then called Turkey wheat; and *Ger.* says we have as yet no certain proof or experience concerning the virtues of this kind of corn, although the barbarous Indians, who know no better, are constrained to make a virtue of necessity and think it a good food; whereas we may easily judge that it nourisheth but little, and is of hard and evil digestion, — a more convenient food for swine than for men. [Brother Jonathan would say that the old herbalist knew not the virtues of hominy and green maize.] Before noticing the entries in the Accounts, we may briefly cite some of the old measures for corn. Two quarts = a pottle; 2 pottles (8 pints) = a gallon; 2 gallons = a peck; 2 pecks (4 gallons) = a tovet; 2 tovets, 4 pecks, or 8 gallons = a bushel; 4 bushels = a sack or coomb; 2 sacks or 8 bushels = a seam or quarter;

5 qrs. = a wey or load; 2 weys, or 10 qrs., a last of corn. A mett is usually a bushel; a strike is 2 bushels, a chaldron is 32 bushels or 4 qrs., and a cart load of corn is 40 bushels. Some of these, however, seem to have had different capacities in different parts of the country, or at different periods. Thus a mett, usually a bushel, is by some writers said to contain two bushels. A strike is usually equivalent to a bushel, elsewhere one bushel said to contain two strikes. A skep is a bushel. A windle is 210 to 220 lb., or 3 bushels. An aghendole (*aghtand* Anglo-Saxon, an 8th part) is in some places the 8th of a coomb, i.e. half a bushel; in others probably 8 lb. of meal. (See note thereon p. 399.) In the prices of wheat, there is a great difference in the same year between the Lady Day price (March 25) and the Michaelmas price (September 29), when the new wheat is got; and this should be borne in mind in looking at the prices quoted in all old accounts. In 1583 a load of wheat cost 10s., three pecks 6s. In September 1583, 9 metts sown at Hoole (6s. 2d.) 55s. 6d.; February 1584, a windle 8s. 6d.; March, 6 metts (4s. 5¼d.) 26s. 8d.; June 1586, half a qr. 2s. 6d.; May 1591, 4 metts at Preston, 19s. 6d. (nearly 5s. the mett); February 1592, 4 metts and a peck at Preston (3s. 11¼d.) 23s. 8d.; 1586, 4 metts sold at Hoole [for seed?] (at 5s.) 20s.; 10 metts and a peck sold at Preston (7s. 7d.) £3 15s. 11d.; 1 mett 6s. 4d.; 5 metts and a peck sold at Hoole (7s. 6d.) 41s. 3d.; 2 metts and 3 "akendoule" (? 24 lb.) 15s. 1d.; a peck 3s. 2d.; 1587, 4 metts and 1½ peck, sold at Eccleston (12s.) 57s.; 1593, received for 8½ metts (at 8 groats the mett, i.e. 2s. 8d.) 22s. 8d.; 1595, received for 30 metts sold at Hoole (6s. 4d.) £9 10s.; 1597, received for wheat sold at Gawthorpe, £14 4s.; September 1600, 1 peck for the house use at Gawthorpe, 3s. 6d.; in 1602 the wheat of all sorts grown about Whitaker measured 24 metts. In 1604 half a peck cost 15d.; 1605, received for 1½ peck, 3s. 9d.; 1 peck, 2s. 6d.; 1 "aghendole," 7½d.; 1 mett, 5s.; sold 1 peck, 2s. 6d.; 1 mett, 5s.; another, 5s. 4d.; 1 peck, 2s. 8d.; 4 metts, 10s.; 1617, received for 4 score and 15 (i.e. 95) metts and 3 "aighendole" (at 8s.) £38 3s.; September 1618, 2 loads of wheat bought at Halifax (with carriage 19s.) 38s.; October, received for 22 metts and a peck (at 8s.) £9; 20 metts, (9s.) £9; 1619, for wheat sold to divers persons (8s. the mett) £25 15s., [about 64½ metts]; 1620, received for 3 metts 1½ peck (at 8s.) 30s.; 58 metts 1 peck (at 7s.) £20 9s. 8½d.; 20 metts (at 6s. 8d.) £6 13s. 4d.; 28 metts and a peck (at 6s.) £8 11s.; 1621, October, 7 score and 18 (i.e. 158) metts and an aighendole (at 5s.) £39 9s. 9d. *Seed Wheat:* November 1592, 4

metts, sown at Eccleston, 12s. 4d.; September 1601, 12 strike, bought at Halifax (2s. 8d. and 6d. more) 32s. 6d.; September 16, to a man threshing seed wheat five days (at 3d.) 15d. *Washing Wheat:* April 1619, a wisket, to wash wheat, at Tingreave and a third hoppet there, 9d. *Fallowing for Wheat:* April 1591, tabling of a man a week at Hoole when he fallowed for wheat, 22d. [To fallow is to prepare land for sowing, by ploughing it long before the ploughing for sowing.]

Wheat Cakes. These cakes, in which butter was an ingredient, were a delicacy so much sought after, that they were forbidden to be made, sold, or eaten, by various sumptuary enactments and especially by orders or by-laws of the local courts leet. In April 1610 (on the occasion of the marriage of Eleanor Shuttleworth to Richard Assheton) 3s. 4d. was paid for butter-and-wheat-cakes, and the same month the widow Soncky was paid 3s. for three dozen wheat-cakes. In June, wheat cakes bought at Bolton cost 9d.

Wheat-ears. (*Saxicola Œnanthe.*) Called also in provincial English the fallow-finch, fallow-chat, white-tail, stone-chacker, &c. A bird of passage, making its appearance in England early in March; and in the downs and open lands of Kent and Sussex, in August and September, vast numbers collect previously to their departure. At this season multitudes are caught for the table, their flesh being esteemed a great delicacy. (*Mus. An. Nat.*) In the Accounts, in December 1591, three "whek-eres" cost 16d.

Wheels and Wheelwrights. (Anglo-Saxon *hweol*, *hweogul*; *wryhta*, from the root of *weorcan*, to *work*; which makes its preterite and past participle, *wrought.*) For entries in the Accounts as to wheels and wheelwrights, and their wages, see Index. In June 1600, a wheelwright, 3½ days cutting and cleaving the great ash into wheel timber [3d.] 10½d.; January 1612, two wheelwrights, making wains, cleaving ash-wood for axletrees, and other uses (1s. 6d. week each) 6s.

Whimbrel. This bird is not much more than half the size of the curlew, which it very nearly resembles in shape, in the colour of its plumage, and manner of living. It is about seventeen inches long, twenty-nine broad, and weighs about fourteen ounces. The legs and feet are of the same shape and colour as those of the curlew. It is not so commonly seen on the seashores of this country as the curlew; it is also more retired and wild. (*Bewick.*) If *hilp*, *whilp*, or *whelp* mean a younger or smaller bird of the same kind, may not this be the "curlew-hilp" of the Accounts?

(See note on CURLEW.) *Ray* says the sanderling is called "curwillet" about Penzance, Cornwall.

WHINBERRIES. Sometimes called wine-berries and wind-berries. The bilberry, or whortleberry. (*B. Dic.*) See note on FRUIT, as to wild fruit. July 1610, given to a wench that brought winberries from Burnley Wood, 4d.; winberries, 2d.; July 1612, ditto, 2d.; July 1618, ditto, 2d.

WHIP, WHIPSTOCK AND WHIPCORD. Whipping at the cart's tail (and also at the whippingpost) is a punishment descending from Anglo-Saxon times almost to the present day. The horsewhip probably originated in the switch. Queen Elizabeth had a riding-whip of whale's fin. The driving-whip is seen in a wood-cut in one of the books printed by Caxton. (*Fosb.*) An old superstitious custom, is whipping the apple-trees, that they may bear abundantly. It is still observed at Warkingham, Surrey, early in the spring. (*Pulleyn.*) Whipstock is the stock or handle of a whip, frequently put for the whip itself, particularly a carter's whip. "For Malvolio's nose is no whipstock." (*Twelfth Night.*) A carter was sometimes called "a base whipstock." (*Nares.*) But the whippingpost was also called the whipstock. "Beggars fear him more than the justice and as much as the whipstock." (*Earl's Micro.*) In the Accounts, August 1601, whipcords for the carters cost 1d., and in October the same; August 1620, 7½d. was paid towards a fifteenth, levied at Habergham Eaves, towards the duck-stool and whipstock at Burnley.

WHIP SAWE. A saw set in a frame and worked by two persons, for dividing timber lengthwise. In 1582, one cost 4s. 4d.

WHITAKER OLD HALL, AND HIGH WHITAKER. In the township of Padiham are the remains of the house of High Whitaker, consisting only of one wing, strongly and respectably built, and apparently of the era of Henry VIII., the seat of a branch of the Whitakers from 1333 or earlier. (*Whalley.*) A portion of it is still in existence on the High Whitaker farm, showing by the style of its architecture that it is the remains of a small family mansion. Amongst the traditions of the neighbourhood is one to the effect that in the old hall of Whitaker was a very skilfully devised "priest's hole," in which, during the times of the persecution of the Catholics, in the days of Elizabeth and James I., the priests of the family, and others temporarily there, were hidden during the search made for them. The "priest's hole of High Whitaker" is spoken of amongst the people of the neighbourhood to this day. High Whitaker is a farm on the borders of High Whitaker Clough, immediately on the north side of Gawthorpe Hall, and on the

north bank of the river Calder. Whitaker Ises, Eases, Ings, or Holms — for all these names are applied to the alluvial flats close to rivers — denote a flat close to Whitaker Brook. (See p. 140.) It was found by inquisition that the estate of High Whitaker consisted of 100 acres of land, 100 of pasture, 20 of meadow, 100 of moor and morass, in High Whitaker, Simondstone and Padiham. Dr. Whitaker adds that the estate was afterwards sold to the Shuttleworths of Gawthorpe, but at what period he could not ascertain. (*Whalley.*) In the Accounts, in May 1602, a slater, for taking the slate off the old hall at Whitaker, and rigging the barn, two days, had 8d. In 1588 was spent, when I went to Speke with Mr. Martone concerning High Whitaker, 8d.; spent in Preston by [two men] when the estate was taken of Mr. Marten and his son, Whitakers, 4s. 4d.; paid Mr. Marten upon the said estate, £100; April 1589, paid for searching the rolls for High Whitaker, 3s. 4d; April 1603, two men, for ditching the over spring at Whitaker, and setting it with quicksand and hedging the same, at their own charges (9d. the roud), 15s.; making twenty-three rouds of hedge about the lower spring there (1d.) 2s.; to John Pettey, clerk of Whalley, for two years' wages for High Whitaker (2d. year), 4d.; 1605, nineteen weeks' grass in Whitaker Wood for two kine (6d. each weekly), 19s.

Whitaker, Mr., of Burnley. February 1618, paid him in lent money £40, and for the use of it half a year 40s. [10 per cent. per annum.]

Whichford or Wichford. A small place (near Ascot), co. Warwick; the living, a rectory, held by the Rev. Lawrence Shuttleworth, B.D., from November 1582 till his death February 1608; and there he was buried, (See p. 292.) In June 1586 he sent thence a present to his sister-in-law, Lady Shuttleworth. In 1592 was paid to the use of Sir Richard Shuttleworth, for money laid out by him for the next voidance of the parsonage of Whichford, £30. In October 1602 some fustian was sent thither to be the young gentlemen's clothes; November 1602, the carriage from thence to London of a box and bundle of linen and letters was 23d.

Whye. (Also Quey.) A young cow, or heifer. (*B. Gloss.*) In February 1620 was paid for a young whye and calf, 58s.

Wicks for Candles. Paid in 1530 for wicks for white candles, thirteen hundred weight, 13d. Cuts are the quantities or portion of thread into which a pound of flax or cotton is spun or subdivided. The monks occasionally made their own candles from the lard &c. of their kitchen. (*Finchale.*) See note on Candles.

Widgeon. (*Anas ferina* of *Linn.*) Called also the pochard, poker,

dunbird, and great-headed widgeon, nineteen inches in length, two and a half feet in breadth, and weighs about one pound thirteen ounces. Considerable numbers are caught in the fens of Lincolnshire in winter, and sold in London market, where they and the female widgeons, called dunbirds, are estimated excellent eating. (*Bewick.*) See note on WILD FOWL. In the *Northumberland Household Book* widgeon cost 1½d. each.

WIGAN. An ancient market town, borough, parish and township, twelve miles north of Warrington. It was first incorporated by Henry I., and it possesses a charter from Elizabeth and a later one. Wigan sent members to parliament temp. Edward I., but resigned the privilege till the 27th Elizabeth (1585). Leland describes Wigan as a paved town, as big as Warrington, better builded, and having some merchants, some artizans, and some farmers. Fuller, in his "Worthies," relates that about Wigan and elsewhere in this county men go a fishing with spades and mathooks [mattocks]; more likely, one would think, to catch moles than fishes. First, they pierce the turf-ground, and under it meet with a black and deadish water, and in it small fishes do swim. Spearing for eels is still continued at the bottom of peaty ditches. Dr. John Wootton, nephew of Dean Nowell, and afterwards Bishop of Exeter, was born at Wigan in 1535, and Dr. John Leland, author of the "View of Deistical Writers" in 1691. The fairs are the day before Holy Thursday (Ascension Eve), for horses, horned cattle and cloth; June 27th and October 28th, for horses and horned cattle. At the fair in 1592, on Ascension Eve, two heifers were bought; in October of that year two steers were sold, and in April 1594 a young bull was bought. In January 1584 was spent on a man and horse, at the muster at Wigan, 18d.; in November 1587, spent when the show of horses was made in Wigan before the lieutenant, 13d. In June 1590 there was another muster and show of horses there. In October 1617 a certificate upon a statute for the mayor of Wigan cost 13s. 6d.

WILBRAHAM, MR. Of Spotwick Park, Cheshire. He was a frequent donor of deer to Sir Richard Shuttleworth. In June 1592, he sent a fat buck to Smithills, the man's fee 5s.; for other entries see Index. These entries exhibit a regular scale of fees; — a doe, 4s.; a buck, 5s., afterwards raised to 6s. 8d.; a brace of does, 10s.; a brace of bucks, 13s. 4d.; the two last named sums being, in the colloquial phraseology of the time, called a noble and a mark.

WILD DUCKS. In "The Natural History of Lancashire," amongst wild fowl are named the curlew and curlew hilp, woodcock, waterhen, rail,

quail, rasorbill, water-wagtail, the greater and lesser gull, sea-pie, redshank, purre, wild geese, wild ducks, and teal; and the author adds that the most remarkable thing of the wild ducks is their way of feeding them at Bold in Lancashire. Great quantities of these birds breed in the summer season in pits and ponds within the demesne, which probably may entice them to make their visits in winter. They oftentimes adventure to come into the moat near the hall; which a person accustomed to feed them perceiving, he beats with a stone on a hollow wood vessel. The ducks answer to the sound and come quite round him upon a hill adjoining to the water; he scatters corn amongst them, which they take with as much quickness and familiarity as tame ones. When fed, they take their flight to rivers, meres and salt marshes. (*C. Leigh.*)

Wild Fowl. Fowls of the forest, &c., or untamed, and used as food. There is no nation under the sun which hath already in the time of the year more plenty of wild fowl than we, for so many kinds as our isle doth bring forth. . . . . . Of such as are bred in our land we have the crane, bitter, wild and tame swan, bustard, heron, curlew, snite, wild-goose, wend or doffrel, brant lark, plover of both sorts [green and grey], lapwing, teal, wigeon, mallard, sheldrake, shoveller, pewet [starling], sea mew, barnacle, quail, notte [knot], the oliet or olife, the dunbird [red-necked diving duck or female widgeon], woodcock, partrich and pheasant, besides divers others. . . . . . As for egrets, pawpers and such like, they are daily brought unto us from beyond sea. (*Harri.*) It is not easy to enumerate all the birds coming under this denomination. In the Accounts, the kinds are sometimes specified, sometimes not. In 1583, some wild fowl cost 15d.; April 1586, 14d., August, 13d. April 1587, wild fowl and chickens from Hoole, 2s. 9d.; July, wild fowl and chickens, ten groats [3s. 4d.]; July 1588, wild fowl, 20d.; November, ditto, 3s. 6d; April 1595, for wild fowl, viz., two teal, three lapwings, a curlew-hilp, two redshanks and a snipe-knave, 15d.; two grey plovers, 5d.; a snipe, a snipe-knave and two purres, 2d.; two lapwings 2d.; December 1597, wild fowl at two several times, viz., twenty snipes, 20d.; three woodcocks, 12d.; four teals, 14d.; a woodcock, 10d.; three ditto, 12.; four teals, 16d.; nine snipes and three snipe-knaves, 16d.; four skergries, 4d.; two blackbirds, 1d.; June 1598, six teals and a woodcock, 2s, 4d.; fifteen snipes and two knaves, 2s.; two skergryees, 2d.; seven thrushes, two larks and an ouzel, 12d. — For most of these birds see Notes on their names, and Index.

WILKINSON, HENRY. He was bailiff of the Forcet estates of the Shuttleworths from January 1592 to 1617. See Index.

WILKINSON, ANTHONY. Steward for about a year (from November 15, 1608, to 7th December 1609) to Col. Richard Shuttleworth. See Index.

WILLS. The will of Thomas Shuttleworth is given p. 981. For the following, since received, the Editor is indebted to the Rev. J. Raine, jun., through the Rev. Canon Raines. They have been extracted from testamentary records at York: — 1592, October 6. Administration of the effects of Dame Margaret Shuttleworth, *alias* Barton, county of Lancaster, granted to James Leigh, gent., her brother. — 1596–7, March 20. Prob. test. Ric'i Shuttleworth de Galethorpe, and Adm. granted to George Barrowe. [This is not Sir Richard the Judge, whom the Accounts show to have gone his circuit in 1599, but his uncle Richard, mentioned in the Accounts p. 15.] 1668, June 11, — Richard Shuttleworth of Gawthroppe Esq. [eldest son of Thomas, and successor of his uncle Lawrence in the Gawthorpe and other estates] being somewhat by reason of old age, weake and infirme [he was then 81] &c. To my late servant and clerke Lawrance Osbaldeston £5. To my now servant and soliciter, Jno. Crooke, £5, if hee dwell with me at the tyme of my death. Servant Richard Radclyffe 50s. To my son Barton Shuttleworth, all my plate as well gilded graven as plaine. Mr. Clayton of Blackburne to preach at my funerall and to have 20s. All to be divided into two partes — the one to my foure naturall sonnes Nicholas, Barton, John and Edward, and my three naturall dau'rs Anne, Margaret and Ellinor, — saving a fifth part to go to my grandsonne and granddau. Nich. and Fleetwood Shuttleworth, children of my late sonne Richard S. deceased. My old servant Roger Barton, Son Barton sole ex^ors. — 1668, June 11. Will of Rd. Shuttleworth of Gawthroppe Esq. and Admin. granted to Barton S. ex^r. [The testator died in June 1669, a year after making this will, aged 82. His eldest son Richard, having died in 1648, testator's eldest grandson, Richard, born in 1644, succeeded to the estates at his death. See Appendix I. p. 274, et seq.] 1678, May 6. Will of Nicholas Shuttleworth of Clitheroe Esq. Thomas Cowcroft, Master or Bachelor of Arts, and Leonard Nowell, gent., ex^ors; Judith the widow overseer. [The will of Col. Richard Shuttleworth names both a natural son Nicholas and a legitimate grandson Nicholas. This will is doubtless of the former, as the latter was of Durham and died in 1684.] 1680–81, January 15. — Richard Shuttleworth of Forcett Esq., — to be buried in the church of Forcett. To the children of my brother

Nicholas Shuttleworth, i.e. to his son Richard £100, — to his dau. Eliz. £300, — to his son Thomas £200, — to his dau. Fleetwood £200. To his son Nicholas £200 out of my lands in Yorkshire, Lancashire and Westmorland. To my sister Fleetwood Lambton, an annuity of £30, besides what I have formerly made by deed to her husband William Lambton. To my sister Heath Tempest £200. To my brother Mr. Rowland Tempest £30. To my cozen Barbara Lambton, an annuity of £20. To Mr. John Walker, clarke, for preaching my funerall sermon, £5. To William Sudell and his wife £10 to buy mourneing. The timber in my parks at Barbon in Westmorland is to be cut down to pay these legacies. To the poor of the towne of Forcett £10 a yeare for ever out of my lands in Forcett and Epleby, or in lieu thereof £160. To Margaret my wife and Richard my sonne, all my plate, rings, and jewells. My wife to have my now dwelling house at Forcett, &c., and £20 per annum for her life. To my brother Nicholas Shuttleworth £50. My wife, my father-in-law John Tempest, of the Isle, co. Durham, Eq., and my brother Corn. Tempest his sonne and heire apparent, and my servant William Sudell of Forcett, gent., to be guardians of my sonne Richard. My wife and sonne executors. Witness Nicholas Shuttleworth, &c. — 1680–81, Jan. 15. Will of Richard Shuttleworth of Forcett Esq. Wife and son, Ex'ors. — [The testator was the fourth Richard, born 1644. He married 1664, Margaret, daughter of John Tempest of the Isle, co. Durham, and was buried at Forcet, March 5, 1680–81, leaving an only son, Richard, the second knight of that name in the family.]

WIMBLES. (*Wimple*, Belgic, of *Wimilen*, German, to pierce), a piercer to bore holes with. (*B. Dic.*) An auger. In the Accounts, in May 1583, for two "brost wyemblye bits and a nale percel bitte, 2d." That is, two breast-auger bits (centre-bits) and a nail-piercer (awl or gimlet). April 1621, paid for laying [i.e. edging with steel] three wimbles, 6d.

WINDLE. (Anglo-Saxon *windel*,) anything twined; a basket. This term for a measure is still in use in Lancashire, but is not to be found in the Northern glossaries. *Halli.* gives it as meaning in the North a bushel. But this must be a mistake. Some are of opinion that the old windle was equivalent to three bushels or 210 lb. In the Accounts, in February 1584 a windle of wheat cost 8s. 6d.; in the following month wheat was 4s. $5\frac{1}{4}$d. the mett or bushel. In 1583, 4 "wyandeles" of pechies [leather patches] cost 8d. The measure seems to have been variable. By a parliamentary paper, issued in April 1858, to show the dif-

ferent measures by which corn is bought and sold, it appears that the Lancashire *windle* or load of wheat is 470 lb., which is the same quantity by which wheat is sold in the Manchester Corn Exchange. At Preston, barley is sold by the *windle* or load of 134 lb.; at Manchester by a quantity of 404 lb. At Preston and Manchester alike, oats are sold by the *windle* of 313 lb. The name (which is found in Anglo-Saxon, German and Danish) is *Windel*, from *windan*, to wind, twist or twine; and a windle was originally a basket of twisted oziers (the willow being named the *windel-treow*) holding a certain quantity of corn. Windle-straw is straw for platting.

WINDOWS. Of old time our country houses instead of glass, did use much lattice, and that made either of wicker or fine rifts [laths] of oak, in checquer wise. But as horn in windows is now quite laid down in every place, so our lattices are also grown into less use, because glass is come to be so plentiful, and within a very little so good cheap if not better than the other. . . . . Only the clearest glass is most esteemed; for we have divers sorts, some brought out of Burgundy, some out of Normandy, much out of Flanders, besides that which is made in England, which would be as good as the best, if we were diligent and careful to bestow more cost upon it; and yet as it is, each one that may will have it for his building. (*Harri.*) See GLASS, GLAZIER and GLAZING.

WINES. (Anglo-Saxon *win*, German *wein*, Dutch *wyn*, Swedish and Danish *vin*, Welch *gwin*, Latin *vinum*, Italian and Spanish *vino*, French *vin*, Irish *fion.*) The fermented juice of grapes; also, the juice of certain fruits, prepared with sugar and sometimes with spirits. (*Webs.*) Purposely omitting all notice of the wines of the ancients, we may note that about 120 B.C. Cæsar mentions the wines of Provence, Dauphiny, Languedoc and D'Auvergne. Under the first race of French kings, wines were made of mulberries, quinces, pomegranates, &c. During the third race, wines, sweet and aromatic, were made of spices, &c., including Hippocras, &c. The first ratafie mentioned in French history is the rossoli [rosa solis] communicated by the Italians who accompanied Catherine de Medicis into France about 1533. Probus permitted the Gauls, Spaniards and Britons to have vines and make wine. Good wine was known to the Britons; and the wine-press (*win-wringa*) is engraved in Strutt's Horda. Vineyards became common in England (see note thereon.) The traffic for wines with Bourdeaux commenced about 1154, through the marriage of Henry II. with Eleanor of Aquitaine. The Normans were the great carriers, and Guienne

the place from whence most of our wines came. The wines enumerated are Muscadell, a rich wine; Malmsey, Rhenish; Dele wine, a sort of Rhenish; Sturn, strong new wine, supplied to give strength to that which was vapid; Wormwood wine; Gascony wine; Alicant, a Spanish wine and made of mulberries; Canary wine, or sweet sack, (the grape of which was brought from the Canaries); Sherry, the original sack, not sweet; Rumney, a sort of Spanish wine. Sack was a term loosely applied at first to all white wines. [*Herbert* says it was probably these kinds of wine that Fitzstephen (temp. Henry II.) mentions to have been sold in the shops, and in wine-cellars near the public place of cookery on the bank of the Thames.] In the reign of Henry VII. no sweet wines were imported but Malmayes. The sweet wines from Malaga were called Canary Sack, but Sack was undoubtedly Sherry. Verden wine, so called from an Italian white grape of that name, and sold principally at Florence; and Bastard, a sweet Spanish wine, white and brown, — were reckoned among the hot and strong liquors. The art of making raisin wine was introduced from abroad in 1635. Before the heavy duties, French wines were always deemed inferior to the Spanish. The importation of Port wine is modern. The custom of drinking it began about 1703, the date of the Methuen treaty; it being deemed impolitic to encourage the vintage of France. *Howell* in his "Letters" says broadly "Portugal affords no wines worth transporting." (*Anderson*, *Gage*, *Nares*, *Fosb.*) Wine was sold in England by apothecaries as a cordial in 1300, and for some time afterwards. "Wine for the King" is named as early as 1249. In 1400, the price was 12s. the pipe. In 1427, 50 butts and pipes of sweet wines, for being adulterated by the Lombards, were condemned by Rainwell, mayor of London, to be staved and emptied into the channels of the streets. (*Stowe*) Claret was first imported into England in June 1490. The first act for licensing sellers of wine in England passed April 1661. (*Haydn*) The vintners (one of the twelve incorporated livery companies of London) were anciently denominated "Wine-tonners of Gascoyne;" and in July 1365, they had a charter from Edward III. incorporating them and granting to them the exclusive privilege of importing wines from Gascony. The fraternity were of two sorts of dealers, the *vinetarii* or merchant importers, and the *tabernarii* or retailers, who kept taverns or wine-cellars. But traces of the wine trade are still earlier. The contentions between the citizens of London and the Gascony wine merchants, respecting the sale by the citizens of Gascon wines in the city, (see Rolls of Parliament, 21st Edward I., 1393,) imply that the

vintners were then and had long been a fraternity. Indeed the grant of Botolph wharf (10th Edward I. 1282) "for the use of the Co." establishes their collective existence. *Stowe* names four vintners who were mayors of London in the reign of Edward III., one of whom, Henry Picard, feasted the kings of England, France, Scotland, and Cyprus; and yet (adds the old chronicler) Gascoyne wines were then sold in London not above 4d., nor Rhenish wine above 6d. the gallon. In the 50th Edward III. (1376) John Pecche, fishmonger, having procured a license for the sole sale of sweet wines in London, was imprisoned and fined for the monopoly. *Stowe* adds that the successors of those vintners and wine-drawers, that retailed by the gallon, pottle, quart and pint, were all incorporated by the name of wine tunners. In the 2nd Henry VI. (1423-4) a petition to parliament respecting measures, especially those for wine, prays the commons in their wise discretions, tenderly to consider how of old time ordained and truly used, tuns, pipes, tertians [tierces], hogsheads of wine of Gascoign, coming by way of merchandise into this land out of strange countries, and also in this land made, should be of certain measure. But by subtelty and imagination they were made of less measure, in deceit of the people, and to the notable damage of the roialme of England. In the 10th of the same king (1431-2) a similar petition complains of the adulteration of the Gascon wines, arising in great part from the bad measure. Of old time, when the wines of Gascoigne and Guyen were well and truly made, then were they fair, fine, well drinking, and lasting of four or five leves [? lives], &c. In the sixteenth century, fifty-six different kinds of French wines and thirty-six of other sorts (of which the strongest were the best liked) were said to have been imported into England, at the rate of 30,000 tuns a year; besides which the nobility were allowed to import a certain quantity free of duty. These, for use, were generally concocted with sugar, lemon, eggs and spices; and compound wines were in great demand, as well as distilled liquors, especially rosa solis and aqua vitæ. (*Eccleston.*) A writer of the period, probably the original authority for the above, states that there is no kind of wine to be had (neither anywhere more store of all sorts than in England, although we have none growing with us but yearly to the proportion of 20,000 or 30,000 tun and upwards, notwithstanding the daily restraints of the same brought over unto us), whereof at great meetings there is not some store to be had. Neither do I mean this of small wines only, as claret, white, red, French, &c., which amount to about fifty-six sorts, according to the number of regions from which they come; but also of the thirty kind of Italian, Grecian,

Spanish, Canarian, &c., whereof Vernage, Cate pument, Raspies, Muscadell, Romnie, Bastard, Tire, Oseie, Caprike, Clareie and Malmeseie, are not least of all accounted, because of their strength and valure. . . . . Further, when these have had their course, which nature yieldeth, sundry sorts of artificial stuff, as ypocras and wormwood wine, must in like manner succeed in their turns, beside stale ale and strong beer, which nevertheless bear the greatest brunt in drinking, and are of so many sorts and ages as it pleaseth the brewer to make them. (*Harri.*) Sack was not sold by vintners till the 33rd Hen. VIII. 1543. Florio's "First Fruits" (published in 1578) informs us that twenty years before this play, "claret wine, white and red, is sold for 5d. the quart, and sack for 6d.; muscadel and malmsey for 8d." Malone conjectures that in twenty years sack had risen to 8d. or 8½d. the quart, and that Shakspere in his *Hen. IV.* (1st part, act 3 scene 3) gave the price correctly, when he made one item in a tavern bill "sack, two gallons, 5s. 8d." The unfortunate Robert Devereux, Earl of Essex, enjoyed the farm of sweet wines for a time, and in 1600, when the term of his gainful monopoly was almost expired, sought, but in vain, for its renewal. It is stated that all wines were then called "sweet wines," save French and Rhenish wines. (*Camden's Eliz.*) As to the varieties of wines, the names and prices, the following extracts are curious: —

> The namys of sweete wynes I wold that ye them knewe,
> Vernage, Vernagill, vine kute, pyment, pasquse, muscadell of grewe,
> Romeny of Modon, bastard, tyre, assey, tentyn of Ebrwe,
> Greece, Malmesay, capericke, and claray when it is newe.

Vernage was a kind of white and sweet wine. In the *Gower MSS.* are the lines

> That never piment ne vernage
> Was half so swete for to drynke.

Vernagill and vine-cute are unknown. Piment [pigment] was a compound vinous drink, made, according to a manuscript of the fifteenth century, of cloves, cubebs, mace, canel, galingale, tempered with good wine and the third part honey, and cleansed through a clean cloth. (*Halli.*) "Piment and claré" are named in "Arthour and Merlin;" "pyement, claré and Reynysch wyn" in another old manuscript, and Lydgate repeatedly mentions piment. Pasquse is not known. Romney of Modon, a city of Greece. Bastard is a kind of sweet Spanish wine, of which there were two sorts, white and brown. (*Nares.*) Spain bringeth forth wines of a white colour, but much hotter and stronger; as Sacke, Rumney, and Bastard. (*Cogan's Haven of*

Health.) Bastard was a common wine in taverns in Shakspere's time. "We shall have all the world drink brown and white bastard. (*Measure for Measure.*) "Score a pint of bastard;" and again, "Why, then, your brown bastard is your only drink." (*First Part of Henry IV.*) Tyre we cannot trace; Assey is probably the same as Oseie and Osney. Tentyn may be Tent, a kind of Alicante, though not so good as pure Alicante. It is also a general name for all wines in Spain, except white. (*Blount.*) Greece was doubtless a wine from the Levant. Malmsey, sometimes called Malvesie, or Mauvoisie (of Malvasia, says *B. Dic.*, the place whence it comes) is a luscious sort of wine. "Morte Arthur" names "malvesye and muskadelle." Capericke or capryck is unknown. Claray, clarry, or claret, was originally a sweet wine made with grapes, honey and aromatic spices. But other wine, mixed with honey and spices, and afterwards strained, was called *clarré*, or cleared. Various old manuscripts and authors name this wine; and Forby states that any sort of foreign red wine is called claret in the east of England. Amongst the wines named in the *Wardrobe Account of Edward I.*, and sold in 1300, were the "Vinum clarum" (cleared, clared, claret or fine wine), and the "Vinum expensabile" or common wine. In the *Northumberland Household Book* claret is said to be a pale red wine, as distinguished from the deeper red, *vin clairet*, the product of a district near Bourdeaux, called Graves, whence the English in ancient times fetched the wine they called claret. Whitaker observes that port was usually called claret in the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries, as it is yet by the common people. He adds, however, that claret, and not port, was in general use so late as 1691. (*Whalley.*) In an old undated manuscript, "The Interlude of the Four Elements" are the following lines:—

> Ye shall have Spaynesh wyne and Gascoyne,
> Rose colour, whyte, claret, rampyon,
> Tyre, capryck, and malvesyne
> Sak, raspyce, alycaunt, rumney,
> Greke, ipocrase, new-made clary.

And in another old manuscript (*Rawl.* C. 86) is the following enumeration of wines then in favour:—

> Red wyn, the claret and the white,
> With tent and Alicante, in whom I delight;
> Wine rivers, and some sack also,
> Wine of Langdoke and of Orliaunce thereto.

* * * *

> Malmasyes, Tires and Rumneys,
> With Caperikis, Campletes and Osneys,
> Vernage, Cute, and Raspays also,
> Whippet, and Pyngmedo, that ben lawyers thereto;
> And I will also have wyne de Ryne,
> With new-made Clarye, that is good and fyne,
> Muscadell, Terantyne, and Bastard,
> With Ypocras and Pyment coming afterward.

Raspyce is probably raspberry wine. It were good to keep some of the juice of the raspis-berries in some wooden vessel, and to make it, as it were, raspis wine. (*Langh. Garden of Health.*) Alicant was a Spanish wine made at Alicante in Valencia. *Nares* says it was made of mulberries. Languedoc and Orleans were wine provinces in those days. Campletes and Osneys (elsewhere named as one and the same "Osney Complete,") are unknown; so are Whippet and Pingmeadow. Ping was the name of a kind of sweet wine. Terantyne is also unknown. Canary, or wine from the Canary Islands, was by some called sweet sack; sherry, the original sack, not being sweet; whence Howell, in his Letters, says that "Sherries and Malagas, well mingled, pass for Canaries in most taverns." In a curious work, Dr. Venner's "Via recta ad Vitam longam," (4to, 1622) it is said that Canary is of some termed a sweet sack, yet improperly, for it differeth not only from sack in sweetness and pleasantness of taste, but also in colour and consistence; for it is not so white nor so thin as sack; wherefore it is more nutritive than sack and less penetrative. The following are named as all black wines, over-hot, compound, strong thick drinks, as muscadine, malmsey, Alegant, rumney [a Spanish white wine], brown-bastard [a sweet Spanish wine], metheglin, and the like. (*Burton's Anat. of Mel.*) For the ports near to the Straits' mouth, as Malaga, &c., we have some store of shipping, as about thirty sail, that begin in June to set forth, some for Ireland, to lade pipe-staves in their way to Malaga, they returning Malaga wines. . . . For Malaga itself, the inhabitants there having through our plentiful resort thither, planted more store of vines, so that, on our recourse thither, our merchants have withdrawn themselves very much from Cherris [Xeres, the sherry district.] For Andalusia, Quantada, Lisbon and Portugal, our trade, which is but mean, consisteth in sack, sugar, fruit, and West India drugs, which may employ some twenty ships. Among these Cherris sacks are likewise brought into England, especially in Flemish bottoms. (*Trade's Increase, London*, 1615.) An old writer, treating of

"the English Housewife's Skill in Wines," says first of the election of sweet wines, she must be careful that the malmseys be full wines, pleasant, well hued and fine; that bastard be fat and strong; if it be tawny it skills not, for the tawny bastards be always the sweetest. Muskadine must be great, pleasant and strong, with a sweet scent, and with amber colour. Sack, if it be Seres [Xeres, Sherry], as it should be, you shall know it by the mark of a cork burned on one side of the bung, and they be even full gage, and so are other sacks; and the longer they lie, the better they be. Then follows a recipe to make muskadine and give it a flavour. This seems to be a mixture of malmsey and bastard: — to a butt of the former (less forty gallons) put thirty gallons of the latter and four gallons of new milk! Other recipes follow: — how to flavour muskadine (with spices and damask rose-water); "to apparel muskadine, when it comes new, to be fined in twenty-four hours;" to make white bastard [of brown] — draw out of a pipe of bastard ten gallons, and put to it five gallons of new milk, eight whites of eggs, a handful of bay salt, and a pint of Conduit water, and it will be white and fine in the morning; how to help bastard being eager [hard and sharp]; to make bastard white, and to rid away laggs; a remedy for bastard if it prick; to shift malmsey and to rid away ill wines; if sack want his colour [how to give it]; for sack that is savoury; for sack that doth rape and is brown; to colour sack or any white wine that hath lost its colour; if alligant be grown hard; for alligant that is sour; how to order Rhenish wines: there are two sorts, Elstertune and Barabant. The Elstertune are the best. You shall know it by the vat, for it is double barred and double pinned. The Barabant is nothing so good, and there is not so much good to be done with them as with the other. The wines that be made in Bourdeaux are called Gascoyne wines, and you shall know them by their hazel hoops, and they must be full gage and sound wines. The wines of the high countries, called "high country wines," are made some thirty or forty miles beyond Bourdeaux, and they come not down so soon as the other, for if they do they are all forfeited; and you shall know them even by their hazel hoops and the length-gage lacks. Then have you wines that be called Galloway, both in pipes and hogsheads, and be long, and lack two cesternes [the sestern is three gallons] in gage and a half [i.e. two and a half sesterns in gage], and the wines themselves are high coloured. Then there are other wines, which are called white wine of Angulle [? Angouleme], very good wine and lacks little of gage; and that is also in pipes for the most part, and is quarter bound. Then there are Rochelle wines, which

are also in pipes long and slender: they are very small hedge wines, sharp in taste, and of a pallid complexion. Your best sacks are of Seres [Xeres] in Spain; your smaller of Gallicia and Portugal; your strong sacks are of the islands of the Canaries and of Malligo [Malaga]; and your muskadine and malmseys are of many parts of Italy, Greece, and some special islands [as Chios, &c.] The writer gives diagrams of the notches or gage-marks outside casks denoting the various aliquot parts of the liquor within, as to tierces, hogsheads, puncheons, sack-butts, &c. A butt of malmsey, if it be full gage, is 126 gallons, and the tun 252 gallons. Every sestern is three gallons. If you sell for 12d. a gallon, the tun is £12 12s. Malmsey and Rhenish wine, at 10d. the gallon, is £10 the tun [and so down to 4d. the gallon, each penny per gallon being £1 per tun]. For Gascoyne wine there goeth four hogsheads to a tun, and every hogshead is 63 gallons, the two hogsheads 126 gallons, and four hogsheads 252; and if you sell for 8d. the gallon, you shall make of the tun £8. Bastard is at the same rate, but it lacketh of gage two and a half or three sesterns at a pipe; and then you must abate six gallons of the price, and so on all other wines. See that in your choice of Gascoyne wines your claret be fair coloured, and bright as a mulberry, not deep as an amethyst; for though it may show strength yet it wanteth neatness; also let it be sweet as a rose or a violet, and in any case let it be short, for if it be long, then in no case meddle with it. For your white wines, see that they be sweet and pleasant at the nose, very short, clear and bright, and quicker in the taste. For your red wines, provide that they be deep-coloured, and pleasant, long and sweet; and if in them or claret wine be any default of colour, there are remedies enough to amend or repair them. Then follow recipes. To remedy claret wine that hath lost his colour [by turnsole, damsons, or bullaces]; a remedy for white wine that hath lost his colour [new milk, a handful of rice and a little salt]; another way [milk and two pounds of roch alum]; a remedy for claret that drinks foul [a dozen new pippins, or a handful of the oak of Jerusalem]; for red wine that drinks faint or lacks colour [three or four gallons of Alicant]; and so for malmsey, bastard, cute, and "Osley complete." Various directions are given to apparel or parel wines, i.e. whites of eggs, bay salt, milk, and pump water, beaten together, and poured into the vessel of wine to prevent its fretting. (*Mark.*) Of your ordinary grapes you may make a good white wine; of the red a good claret; a sort of Muscadel grapes produce a curious sweet wine, little inferior to Canary. (*Price.*) As to prices of wine in England, see Appendix II., to which a few instances may be added here:—

Wines were sold in 1300 from £2 10s. and £2 13s. 4d. to £3 and £4 per hogshead; £2 6s. 8d. per pipe. (*Edw. I.*) In 1528, 152 tuns of Gascoigne wine was bought at Bourdeaux for Henry VIII. at the following prices per tun: — White wine, 40 francs 5 sous; claret, 50 francs, also at 42 francs 10 sous, and 40 francs; wines of Surk, 50 franks 10 sous; wines of Gravys [Graves], 50 francs 10 sous; red wine, 42 francs 10 sous; clarets, at 50 francs 10 sous, 48 francs, 45 francs 5 sous, and 36 francs; red wine, 45 francs 5 sous. The total cost of the 152 tuns, 7,135fr. 8s. 9d.; costs and charges at Bourdeaux for customs, carriage, &c., 293fr. 2s. 6d.; total 7,428fr. 11s. 3d., or £618 19s. 6d. sterling. Charges at London, £58 19s. 11d.; costs and charges of the ships, mariners, &c., £206 13s. Sum total, £884 12s. 5d. Henry VIII. therefore, by this account, drank his wine at the rate of about £5 16s. 4¾d. per tun, which, reckoning each tun to contain 252 gallons English measure, will give rather more than 5½d. as the price per gallon. (*Princess Mary.*) In 1531, a hogshead of red wine cost 30s.; one of claret, 33s. 4d. (*Durham Burs. Mem.*) In 1613, the mayor of Chester sized the wines: muscadine at 7d. the quart, sack at 10d.; other wines at 6d. (*Ormerod's Chesh.*) In the Accounts are numerous entries. In 1583, a quart of wine cost 6d. The three principal sorts bought were white, sack, and claret; there are but few purchases of deep red wine. — *White:* April 1586, three quarts at Manchester, 18d.; June, two hogsheads, white and clered [i.e. claret], £8 5s.; June 1588, seventeen gallons (2s.) 34s.; April 1590, two hogsheads, one of clered, the other of white, £10; April 1591, a hogshead of clered and another of white, at Chester, £10; May 1592, to Mr. Richard Bavine, Chester, a hogshead of clared and a tierce of white (at £20 a tun), £8 6s. 8d.; September, a pint on Friday morning at York, 4d.; July 1594, six gallons (2s.) at Manchester, 12s.; 1588, received for seventeen gallons and a pottle (5d. quart), 29s.; April 1596, twelve quarts and a pint of clared and white (8d.) 8s. 4d.; July, clared and white wine, five gallons and three quarts (8d.) 15s. 4d.; April 1610, three gallons and a quart clarett and white wine, 8s. 8d. [for the marriage feast of Eleanor Shuttleworth.] May 1612, five gallons (6d. quart), 10s.; August, nine and a half gallons white and clarett (6d.) 19s.; June 1620, a quart, 10d.; July, two quarts, 16d. — *Sack:* 1583, three quarts, 2s.; 1584, forty-four quarts, 22s.; six quarts and a pint, 3s. 9d.; March 1585, thirty-two quarts, 31s. 4d.; June 1586, eighteen gallons (2s. 8d.) saving 16d., 46s. 8d.; July 1587, nineteen gallons and odd measure (3s. 3d.) £3 16s.; June 1588, eight gallons and a quart (3s. 2d.) 32s.;

August 1589, thirteen gallons (3s. 3d.) 42s. 3d.; April 1590, eight gallons, 25s.; September 1591, five gallons and a pottle (7d. quart), 18s. 4d.; May 1592, eleven pottles and a quart (10d. quart), 19s. 2d.; thirty-three gallons (3s. 2d.) of Mrs. Clapoune, at Chester, £5 4s. 6d.; April 1596, ten quarts, 10s.; December 1598, four gallons (14d.) at Manchester, 18s. 8d.; July 1608, a pint (at London), 4d.; September 1609, a quart to Mr. Dr. Deane and other gentlemen at York, 12d.; March 1610, a rundlet containing twenty-three quarts (about 10d.) 18s. 6d.; April, twenty-five quarts, 25s. [Eleanor Shuttleworth's marriage feast]; July, a rundlet from Preston, twenty-seven quarts (12d.) 27s.; October 1611, two quarts, 2s.; March 1612, a rundlet at Halifax, twenty-three quarts and a pint (10d. quart), 22s. 3d.; May, six gallons (10d. quart), 20s.; August, six and a half gallons (10d. quart), at Halifax, 21s. 8d.; September 1617, a pottle to Sir Richard Fleetwood, 2s. — *Claret:* We have already seen how "clered" became clared, and then claret. In 1583, ten gallons three quarts, 14s. 4d.; 1584, four score and five (eighty-five) quarts, 28s. 4d.; March 1585, ten gallons and a pottle of clared, lacking a pennyworth, 13s. 11d.; June 1588, a tierce, £3 12s. 6d.; August, a hogshead of claried, £4 8s.; July 1594, nine gallons and a quart, at 2s. gallon; 1585, seven gallons and a pint, sold from Smithills for Bolton communion, 9s. 6d. [This attests the use of claret for the communion, noticed by some writers.] July 1608 (at London), a quart, 8d.; May 1612, four and three-quarter gallons (at 6d. quart), 9s. 6d.; October 1613, six gallons (6d. quart), 12s.; November 1617, three quarts, 18d.; December, nine gallons, abating some, (6d. quart), 23s. 6d. — *Red:* October 1608 (at Islington), a pint, 5d.; May 1610, two and a half quarts (16d.) 3s. 4d.; October, a bottle of red wine, 20d.; September 1611, a quart and a pint of red wine to my mistress, 2s.—*Alicant:* October 1608 (Islington), a pint of Alegant, 6d.—*Canary:* November 1617, a rundlet, containing six gallons one pottle (4s.) 26s. — *Malaga:* August 1608 (London), a pint of Maligo sack to Mr. Lever and Mr. Johnes, 6d.; a pint of Maligo sack to Mr. Leigh, 6d.; May 1610, three quarts Mallinga sack, 3s. — *Muscadine:* December 1616, carriage of a rundlet from London, 3s. 4d. — *Rhenish:* August 1608 (at London), a pint of Renish wine, 5d. — *Sherry:* November 1617, one rundlet, containing six gallons three pints (at 3s.) 19s. 1d. — *Wormwood:* August 1608 (London), a pint, 5d. — For other wines, see names in Index.

WIRE. *Ray* describes "the manner of the wire-work at Tintern in Monmouthshire," where they take little square bars, which they call "Os-

born-iron," wrought on purpose, and draw them at a furnace with a hammer moved by water, into square rods about the bigness of one's little finger, and bow them round. Then, after twelve hours' annealing, they lay them in water for a month or two, (the longer the better,) and then the Rippers draw them into wire through two or three holes. They are again annealed for six hours, watered about a week, and the rippers then draw them to a two-bond wire, as big as a great packthread. After a third annealing and watering as before, they are delivered to the small wire drawers, called overhouse men, perhaps because they work in an upper room. They anoint the wire with train-oil, to make it run the easier. The plate wherein the holes are, is on the outside iron, on the inside steel. The holes are bigger on the iron side, because the wire finds more resistance from the steel, and is strengthened by degrees. There is another mill, where the small wire is drawn, which with one wheel moves three axes, that run the length of the house, on three floors, one above another. (*Ray.*) In the Accounts in 1584 ½ lb. wire cost 5d.; January 1587, wire to ring swine 3d., (and several other entries of the same kind.) October 1618, 4½ lb. at Chester (at 12d.) 4s. 4d. (*sic.*) See Index.

WISKETS. Sometimes Whisket. A basket or scuttle. (*Ray.*) A straw basket in which provender is given to cattle. (*Halli.*) In Yorkshire, a small clothes basket. (*B. Gloss.*) For entries see Index. In March 1590, two seed-hoppets and one toved wisket cost 15d. A tovet was a measure of two gallons (*Suss. Gloss.*); elsewhere of two pecks or half a bushel. (*Kersey.*)

WITCHES. For many interesting particulars relative to witches in general and Lancashire witches in particular, see "Potts's Discovery of Witches," one of the Chetham Society's works, ably edited by its president, James Crossley Esq., F.S.A. The sole entry in the Accounts is on May 26, 1620, when there was paid to the constable of Padiham half a fifteenth, "towards the watching of the *supposed* witches," the quota of Col. Richard Shuttleworth to the levy being 2½d. for Padiham.

WOAD. (*Glastum* Latin, *wad* Anglo-Saxon, *wedde* Belgium, *waid* German.) A herb much used in dyeing cloth of a blue colour. (*B. Dic.*) The tame or garden woad groweth in fertile fields, where it is sown; the wild kind groweth where the tame kind hath been sown. It is called in Greek *ισατις*, in Latin *isatis* and *glastum*; in French *glastum* and *guadum*; in Dutch *weete*, in English woad and wade. Cesar saith (lib. I. of the French wars) that all the Britons do colour themselves with woad, which giveth a

blue colour. Pliny also (lib. 22, cap. 1,) testifieth the same. It serveth well to dye and colour cloth; profitable to some few and hurtful to many. (*Ger.*) A proclamation was set forth (1585) to restrain the covetousness of certain private men in England, who converted arable lands and the richest pasture grounds to the sowing of the herb ***Isatis***, commonly called woad, for the use of dyers, not within the danger of clothiers, and husbandmen who feed on white meat. Whereupon they were forbidden to sow that herb within eight miles of any of the queen's houses, and within four miles of cities, market towns, and other towns, wheresoever clothing is used. (*Camden.*) See also note on WOOL DYEING.

WOOD FOR FUEL. In November 1608, at Islington, 1000 billets [*billot* French, a stick or log of wood, cut for fuel] 18s. 8d.; December, three loads of wood 29s.; January 1609, a load of wood 9s. 4d.

WOODS AND FORESTS. We have in these days (says an Elizabethan writer) divers forests in England and Wales, of which some belong to the king and some to his subjects; as Waltham Forest, Windlesor [Windsor], Pickering, Feeknam [Fakenham], Delamore [Delamere], Gillingham, Kingswood, Wencedale [Wensleydale], Clun, Rath, Bredon, Weire, Charlie, Leicester, Lee, Rockingham, Selwood, New Forest, Wychwood, Hatfield, Savernake, Westbury, Blackamoor Peak, Deane, Pentise, and many others, now clean out of my remembrance [such as Sherwood, Pendle, Bolland, &c.] which, although they are far greater in circuit than many parks and warrens, yet are they in this our time, less devourers of the people than these latter, sith, beside much tillage, many towns are found in each of them; whereas in parks and warrens we have nothing else than either the keeper's and warrener's lodge, or at least the manor-place of the chief lord and owner of the soil. . . . . . In the Celtic tongue, huge woods and forests were called walds, and the Druids walie or waldie, because they frequented the woods, and made sacrifice among the oaks and thickets. . . . . . I could say more of our forests and the aforesaid enclosures, and therein to prove, by the Book of Forest Law, that the whole county of Lancashire hath likewise been forest heretofore . . . . . . It should seem by ancient records, and the testimony of sundry authors that the whole of England and Wales have sometime been very well replenished with great woods and groves; although at this time the said commodity be not a little decayed in both, and in such wise that a man should oft ride 10 or 20 miles in each of them, and find very little, or rather none at all, except it be near unto towns, gentlemen's houses, and villages, where the inhabitants have planted a few

elms, oaks, hazels, or ashes, about their dwellings, for their defence from the rough winds, and keeping of the stormy weather from annoyance of the same. (*Harri.*) See notes on TIMBER, TREES, and Index.

WOODCOCKS. (*Scolopax rusticola,*) the Bécasse of the French. The first flights of woodcocks from the North to our island generally occur about the end of September or beginning of October, but these flocks in a short time wing their way to more southern regions; a few stragglers only remaining who are joined by other arrivals late in October, and in November and December. The woodcock is highly celebrated for the exquisite flavour of its flesh; but when the spring change of plumage commences it loses its delicacy and becomes rank and worthless. The female is somewhat larger than the male. (*Mus. An. Nat.*) The woodcock is cooked with the entrails in, which, being pounded with what they contain, form its own and best seasoning. (*Sonnini.*) The flesh, for the delicacy of its taste, is in high esteem. The leg especially is commended, in respect whereof the woodcock is preferred before the partridge itself, according to the English rhyme —

> If the partridge had the woodcock's thigh,
> 'Twould be the best bird that ever did fly.

Woodcocks should be roasted with their heads and necks on, and their legs thrust into their bodies and shoulders. (*Mark.*) *C. C. Dic.* contains recipes to boil woodcocks, to dress them as a ragout, to roast them the English and French ways, to make sauce for them, to make a surtout of them, and lastly a recipe for woodcock pie: — Parboil your birds, lard them in large lardons, seasoned with salt, pepper, spices, savoury herbs shred, cives and parsley. Pound their livers in a mortar with scraped bacon, truffles, cives and parsley, seasoned with salt, pepper, spices and savoury herbs. With these farce the bodies of your woodcocks. Roll out a sheet of your paste about an inch thick; lay it upon a buttered sheet of paper; make your pie, lay pounded bacon over the bottom, seasoned as before; then lay in your woodcocks; season them above as beneath and lay over them thin slices of veal and thin bards of bacon and a bit of butter. Close your pie and let it bake for three hours. Meantime make a ragout of truffles with veal gravy moistened with a cullis of veal and ham and a little essence of ham. When your pie comes out of the oven, pull off the paper, cut open the lid, take out the veal and bacon, skim off the fat; pour your ragout of truffles into the pie and serve it up for a first course. Or you may serve it with a ragout of oysters instead of truffles. *Woodcock Pie.* — Broiled, pounded bacon and the

livers mixed, with two or three leaves of sweet bazil; the entrails minced for farce; some at the bottom of the raised pie, the rest in the birds. Lay pounded bacon between the birds and veal cutlets, and then slices of bacon and bake several hours. Serve cold. (*Dolby.*) In the Accounts woodcocks appear from various entries to have cost from 2d. to 4d. each. In October 1583, a dozen, which were sent to London, cost 2s.; January 1584, two cost 4d.; October 1586, one 3d.; October 1588, carriage of a woodcock pie to London 18d.; October 1590, ten cost 22d.; November, thirteen 2s. 5d.; September 1591, two 7d.; October, five 11d.; November, thirteen at 2d.; December, two 6d.; January 1593, eight 2s. 9d.; November, ten 20d.; December 1594, a woodcock and a teal 6d.; two woodcocks 10d.; December 1595, four 16d.; December 1596, four 16d.; December 1597, three 12d.; December 1609, two 8d.; January 1610, two 9d.; October 1611, six 20d.; November 1612, three 9d.; January 1613, two 7d.; October, six 2s. For various other entries, see Index.

WOOL, SHEEP'S. — MANUFACTURE AND DYEING OF WOOLLEN CLOTH. (Anglo-Saxon *wul*, German *wolle*, Dutch *wol*, Swedish *ull*, Danish *uld*, Greek *ουλος*, soft, *ιουλος* down, Latin *vellus*, from *vello*, to pull off), the soft fleecy coat of sheep. (*Webs.*) — From the earliest times down to the reign of Queen Elizabeth, the wool of Great Britain was not only superior to that of Spain, but accounted the finest in the universe; and even in the times of the Romans a manufacture of woollen cloth was established at Winchester for the use of the emperors. (*Dr. Anderson.*) In later times, wool was manufactured in England, and is mentioned in 1185, but not in any great quantity till 1331, when the weaving of it was introduced (?) by John Kempe and other artizans from Flanders. This was the real origin of our now unrivalled manufacture, 6th Edward III. 1331. (*Rymer's Fœd.*) The exportation was prohibited in 1337. Staples of wool were established in Ireland at Dublin, Waterford, Cork, and Drogheda, 18th Edward III. 1343. Sheep were first permitted to be sent to Spain in 1467, which has since injured our manufacture. (*Stowe.*) The first legislative prohibition of the export of wool from Ireland was in 1521. (*Haydn.*) The manufacture of woollen cloth was known, it is supposed, in all civilised countries, and in very remote ages. Woollen cloths were made an article of commerce in the time of Julius Cæsar, and are familiarly alluded to by him. They were made in England before 1200, and the manufacture became extensive in the reign of Edward III. 1331. They were then called Kendal cloth and Halifax cloth. Blankets were made in England about 1340. (*Camden.*)

No cloth but of Wales or Ireland to be imported into England, 1463. The art of dyeing brought to England 1608 (?). Medleys or mixed cloth first made, 1614. (*Chalmers; Haydn.*) The journeymen wool-combers, in several parts of England [especially at Bradford, Yorkshire] have a grand procession (February 3rd) in commemoration of the renowned Bishop Blaize, who is reported to have discovered the art of combing wool, and to have visited England; St. Blazy, a village in Cornwall, being said to be his landing place, and thence deriving its name. (*Haydn.*) [Mrs. Jameson denies the bishop's invention of wool-combing, and says that his name is associated with wool, because in his martyrdom his flesh was torn by wool-combs.] Opinions are various as to the antiquity of the cloth manufacture in England. Pennant and others who only trace it to Edward III. are decidedly in error. Woollen cloth of some sort or other was always made in this nation, ever since the Romans taught the Britons to wear cloth instead of skins, if, indeed, the latter were not previously familiar with its use. The Saxons also had the art of cloth-making, though they used it sparingly, and all that was made in their times was probably a very coarse sort for domestic wear. The wool grower contented himself with selling the raw material at his own door, or at the next town, whence it travelled to the Netherlands, and returned back, manufactured into a fine cloth, that could only be purchased by the great. As early as 967, King Ethelred exacted from the Easterlings [a commercial confederacy, formed on the east shores of the Baltic in the eighth century] coming with their ships to Belings-gate, London, a toll at Christmas of two gray cloths and one brown one, &c., and the same at Easter. The only factors in those early days were a sort of middle-men between the grower and the foreign cloth-makers, who, from being established for the sale of their wools in some certain city, commodious for intercourse, were called "staplers," from selling the staple wares of the kingdom, which were then wool and skins, lead and tin. De Witt, in his "True Interest of Holland," says that before the removal of the cloth trade to England, the Netherlanders could deal well enough with the English, "they being only shepherds and merchants." The establishment of the weavers' guild by Henry I., within forty years of the Conquest, is proof that a considerable cloth manufacture in London, as well as in other parts of England (where similar guilds were formed), must have existed at that time. Not many years later, two merchant ships of England, bound for Dublin with "English cloths," &c., were taken near that port by an Orkney pirate named Swein, who, on his return home,

covered his sails with scarlet cloths, and thence called it his "scarlet cruise." The weavers being only makers of cloth, the drapers or sellers of cloth arose. They are mentioned in the reign of Henry II. as settled at Bedford, Beverley and other towns in Yorkshire, Norwich, Huntingdon, Northampton, Gloucester, Nottingham, Newcastle-on-Tyne, Lincoln, Stamford, Grimsby, Burton-on-Trent, St. Albans, Baldock, Berkhampstead, and Chesterfield, and paid fines to the king that they might freely buy and sell *dyed* cloths. From some of the licenses containing a permission to sell cloths of any breadths, it is inferred that the cloths sold by such woollen drapers, were the fine, coloured cloths made in Flanders, and that of the same manufacture were the red, scarlet, and green cloths enumerated amongst the articles in the wardrobe of Henry II. Woollen cloth is mentioned in Magna Charta, which, under the head "Weights and Measures," specifically ordains that there shall be only one breadth of dyed cloth "russets and haberjects, throughout England." [Russets or russetings were coarse woollen cloths, of a dingy brown colour; and haberjects were also a coarse woollen cloth.] English cloths made of Spanish wool are named earlier, in an ordinance of Henry II. "Cloth of Candlewick Street" was common in the reign of Edward I. In the wardrobe accounts of that king a variety of cloths and stuffs were enumerated, which must have been sold by the drapers; including "*pannis radiatus*," rayed or striped cloth; *de bluetto*, blue cloth; *de colore*, of one colour; *ad aurum*, cloth of gold; *lanatus*, with the wool on, and others; and in the allowance for pontage duties to London bridge, in 1305, there is mentioned — serge stuff, gray cloth and dyed cloth, gold cloth, and cloths worked with gold, fustian, woven cloth (coming from parts beyond seas), Flanders cloth, bound and embroidered; Estaford (a species of cloth made at Seaford); barrel or coarse cloth (coming from Normandy); monks' cloth, black and white, thin or summer cloth, coming from Stamford or Northampton and other places in England. Edward III., observing a continued decrease of woollen weavers in England, on account of the encouragement given to foreigners, prohibited by statute the exportation of English wool, and all importation of cloth from abroad. He released the native weaver from the restriction in Magna Charta, that home made cloth should be two yards wide within the lists; and he invited artizans from the Netherlands to settle here, by a promise of all needful liberties, in order that they might improve his own subjects. In 1330 the king granted a letter of protection to John Kemp of Flanders, a woollen weaver, then coming to England to exercise his art, "and to teach

it to such of our people as shall be inclined to learn it." The king in this document takes Kemp and all his servants, apprentices, goods and chattels, into his protection, and promises the same likewise to all dyers and fullers who shall settle in England. The same year seventy families of Walloons arrived and stationed themselves in the ward of Candlewick. They consisted of Flemings and Brabanters, "weavers of drapery, tapery and napery," (*Stowe*); i.e. woollen and linen weavers. In 1567, a new species of cloth manufacture was introduced — the making of bayes, serges, and other light woollen goods. It began at Norwich, and acquired the name of "the new drapery," as being introduced into England so much later than the old drapery of broadcloth, kerseys, &c. (*Strype's Stowe.*) In 1593 a proclamation of Elizabeth, in consequence of the plague then raging, prohibits the keeping of Bartholomew fair, especially its cloth fair, then the great metropolitan mart for woollen cloth, which in consequence of the plague was to be held in "the open place of Smithfield," for the vent of woollen cloth to be sold in gross, and not by retail. The same to be all brought within the "close-yard of St. Bartholomew," where shops are there continued, and have gates to shut the same place in the night time. (*Herbert; Fœd.: Stowe, &c.*) Much valuable information on the early history of the English wool trade and the woollen manufacture may be found in the "Chronicon Rusticum-Commerciale; or Memoirs of Wool, &c., by John Smith, LL.B." (2 vols. 8vo, London, 1747.) A few points we select as note-worthy. In reference to the statute of 9th Henry III. (1224) requiring one breadth of dyed cloth throughout the kingdom, viz. two yards within the lists, *Coke* observes that broad-cloths were made, though in small numbers, at that time and long before. Yet 1224 is 107 years earlier than most writers assign to the introduction of the woollen manufacture; though to make broad cloth is the very perfection of that manufacture. The office of *aulnager* [French *auneur*, from *aulne*, French, *ulna*, Latin, an ell], an officer whose business it was to look to the assize of woollen cloth, is very ancient. The duties of aulnager are set forth in the 25th Edward III. (1351). The 3rd Henry VIII. (1511) prescribes the several duties of a breaker, kember [comber], carder, spinner, weaver, fuller, dyer, clothier, and aulnager, concerning true making, drawing and sealing of woollen cloths. By an act of 1513, no worsteds are to be dry calendered. In 1523 are named cloths made in Suffolk, called "vesses, or set cloths." An act of that year recites that since 1467 the making of worsteds [see note thereon] sayes [a kind of very light serge, all of wool; some monks wore shirts of say; they were

also used for linings and furniture hangings] and stammins, had greatly increased in Norwich and Norfolk; and was now busily practised at Yarmouth and Lynn. An act 34th and 35th Henry VIII. (1543-4) "for making coverlets at York," recites that the city of York before this time hath been upholden principally by making and weaving of coverlets, and the poor thereof daily set on work in spinning, carding, dyeing, weaving, &c., concerning the making of them; and the manufacture having spread into other parts of the county, it enacts that none shall make coverlets in Yorkshire but inhabitants of the city of York. Another statute of the same year fixes what the king's aulnager in Wales shall have for sealing each kind of cloth, whether frize, cotton, lining, broadcloth, kersey, &c. An act of 5th and 6th Edward VI. cap. 6 (1552) "for the true making of woollen cloth," in 53 sections, shows the vast extent of the woollen manufacture, its improvements and its abuses. It was then flourishing in Kent, Sussex, and Reading; at Coventry and Worcester; in Suffolk, Norfolk, and Essex, Wilts, Gloucestershire, and Somerset; Devon, Taunton, Bridgewater, Wales; and the manufacture of "Northern cloths" existed at Manchester and other places in Lancashire and Cheshire. Another act about the same time is "for making hats, dornecks and coverlets in Norwich and Norfolk." Dornecks or Darnex (in Flemish *Dornick*, in Cunningham's Revels *Darnep*) was a sort of coarse damask, used for carpets, curtains, &c., originally manufactured at Tournay. It was of different kinds of material, sometimes of worsted, silk, wool, or thread; and in the North *durnick* was a name given to linsey-wolsey. (*Halli.*) We may add that amongst the narrow, light, and low-priced woollen stuffs, were tammies and camletins. Flannel was formerly exported from France to England. Crape was made with only two "marches," and all of wool. (*Herbert.*) In 1554 (1 and 2 Philip and Mary) an act was passed for making of russets, satins, satins-reverses, and fustians of Naples, in Norwich. For prices of woollen cloth of various colours for the robes of sergeants-at-law, see note on those officers. The act of 2 and 3 Philip and Mary, cap. 13 (1555-6), for the inhabitants of Halifax to buy wools (said to be the first mention in the statute book of a woollen manufacture there), recites that the inhabitants of that parish and other places thereto adjoining did live altogether by cloth making, and that above five hundred households were thereby increased within forty years then past. This act permitted, under limitations, the merchants of Halifax to buy wool and retail it out for the benefit of poor craftsmen there, who could not purchase it in larger quantities. An act of 4 and 5 Philip and

Mary (1557-8), touching the making of woollen cloth, first enacts that it shall only be made in a market town where it had been made for ten years past, or in a city, borough, or town corporate, with exceptions in favour of all persons who dwell (amongst other places) in Cheshire and Lancashire, where cloths have usually been made; and there they may use the mystery, &c., out of a city, borough, or market town. During Elizabeth's reign many acts were passed relating to wool, cloth, its makers and manufacture, and exportation. Camden notices the courteous reception given by the Queen to French and Flemish refugees who settled at Norwich, Colchester, Sandwich, Maidstone and Southampton, and erroneously attributes to them the introduction of "those slight stuffs called bays and says, and other linen and woollen cloths of the same kind." Bays were prohibited export in 1564, and says were part of the manufacture of Yarmouth in 1523-4. The refugees were great makers of these stuffs, but what they introduced were some kinds of silk, worsted and linen fabrics, and stocking frame-weaving. A curious tract, entitled "A Compendium or brief examination of certain complaints of divers of our countrymen," &c., "by W. S. Gent. 1581," (erroneously attributed to Shakspere, and more correctly to a William Stafford,) is in dialogue form; the interlocutors being a knight, a doctor, a capper, a merchant, and husbandmen. It is chiefly a complaint of the high price of all kinds of provisions and manufactured goods, and the Dr. asks "If they now sell a yard of velvet for 20s. or 22s. and pay that for a tod of wool, were it not as good for them [the merchants] to sell their velvet for a mark [13s. 4d.] so they had a tod of wool for a mark?" In a note *Smith* says the advanced price of all commodities was only a consequence of the increase of trade and the greater plenty of money; and adds that the price of wool, before the general dearth then complained of, was 13s. 4d. per tod, and that in 1581 it sold for 20s. to 22s. per tod. In 1585, an act relates to the making of woollen cloths in Devon and Cornwall, called "plain white straights," and "primed white straights"; and another of 1593 is touching the breadths of plunkets, azures, and blues, and other coloured cloths made in Somerset, &c. Plunkets were a coarse woollen cloth, but whether of some particular colour does not appear. In another act of that year are named "Devonshire kerseys or Dozens." In "A Treatise of Commerce," &c., by John Wheeler, secretary to the Society of Merchants Adventurers, (printed at Middleburgh, Flanders, 1601,) is a sketch of the history of that society, originally the Brotherhood of St. Thomas à Becket, which, as early as 1248, obtained trading privileges of John, Duke of Brabant, afterwards

confirmed to them by Edward III. He states their numbers in 1601 at 1500 wealthy and well experimented merchants, dwelling in divers great cities, maritime towns, and other parts of the realm, as London, York, Norwich, Exeter, Ipswich, Newcastle, Hull, &c., trading in cloth, kersey, and other. There is shipped out yearly by this company at least 60,000 white cloths (besides coloured cloths of all sorts, kerseys short and long, bayes, cottons [of woollen], Northern dozens); worth not less than £600,000 sterling. The coloured cloths of all sorts, bayes, kerseys, &c., I reckon at 40,000 cloths at least, worth £400,000. The next work that affords information on the subject is "A Declaration of the Estate of Clothing now used within this realm of England," &c., by John May, a deputy aulnager, 1613. He states that the aulnager's office existed, as to foreign cloths, before any cloth was made within this land. He describes in great detail the abuses and deceits in the mingling of different kinds of wool (fleece, fells and lambs') together; in the weaving, by using fine yarn as far as the piece can be examined, and the rest of coarse yarn; in the mill, by thicking cloth made with flox [flocks] or thrums and very little wool, by means of tallow, pigs' dung and urine; or by oatmeal, &c., which make the cloth seem fast and thick in the hand, till it come to the dressing, where all that stopping vanisheth, leaving it to shame by the true sight of his substance; in overstretching, by tenter-hooks; in dyeing, by using logwood instead of woad; in the hands of merchants and drapers, especially those that deal in stuffs termed "new drapery," especially in perpetuanas [a kind of glossy cloth, generally called everlasting], which are now grown to great use and traffic; but not like to continue long, by their falsehood since their making, which brought them into estimation. For where at first their pitch in the loom was 1,200, but now brought to 800, yet [they] keep their breadth and length. There are also bastard perpetuanas, made of says milled, "Manchester or Lancashire plains," dressed and dyed in the form of kerseys, to the discredit of those sort of goods. Fustians, another species of new drapery, are so deceivably made, for want of good government, that the trade is wholly discredited, and like to be entirely lost. What maketh those to refuse our cloth, being brought to their own doors, which aforetime earnestly sought it at ours? Falsehood. What makes the gentleman complain of his wool that lyeth on his hands? the clothier of his dead sales? the merchant of his loss? All, but falsehood. How thick are certificates of falsehood returned upon our merchants from beyond the seas? . . . . In our own country the falsehood of clothing is so common,

that every one striveth to wear anything rather than cloth. If a gentleman make a livery for his man, in the first shower of rain it may fit his page for bigness. To remedy all these evils, the writer suggests that there must be more pains in the aulnager, more care and truth in the workman, and more trouble to the clothier; but all to a good and profitable end. In a pamphlet of 1615, by Sir Dudley Digges, "The Defence of Trade," it is stated that the then youthful East India Company [founded in 1600] had carried out in 1614 bayes, kerseys, and most broad cloths, dyed and dressed, to the value of £14,000. In a letter to King James, "Touching Manufactory," — being part of a tract erroneously attributed to Sir Walter Raleigh, and even printed in his "Remains," 1702; being probably the production of Alderman Cockayne (whom the King knighted), and written, if not printed, before 1616, — it is stated that about four score thousand undressed and undyed cloths were then yearly transported, by which the kingdom had been yearly deprived of about £400,000 for fifty-five years, or in the whole nearly twenty millions sterling. In that time there had been yearly transported bayes, Northern and Devonshire kerseys, white, 50,000 cloths, (counting three kerseys to a cloth), whereby had been lost about five millions [by export in the white, instead of dyed]. The next publication on this subject was entitled "Free Trade; or the means to make trade flourish," &c. By E. Misselden of Hackney, merchant. (London, 1622.) The consideration of the draperies of this kingdom (says our author) is of high consequence. They are termed old and new. By the old are understood broad cloths, bayes and kerseys; by the new perpetuanas, serges, sayes, and other manufactures of wool. He quotes a clothier's proverb: "A man cannot cast a cloth in a mould," said to excuse deficiencies in length, breadth, &c. He enlarges on abuses in the manufacture, and mentions ten cloths bought by a merchant of a Wiltshire clothier, and sealed there by the searchers as good and true; but tried afterwards by the merchant and the sworn measurer of the city of London, they were so defective in length, breadth, and weight, that the faults came to near £20, one-third of the whole value of the cloth. A messenger of the privy council was sent into Wilts, and brought up both clothier and searchers, who worthily underwent the condign censure of the lords of the privy council. He notices the seats of different manufactures of cloth, as Worcester for Worcester cloths, Colchester for bayes, and Canterbury for says. He concludes in words which show that free-trade principles were broached more than two centuries ago: — "Let all monopolies, properly such, be rooted out." This tract

called forth "An Answer," &c., by Gerard Malynes, merchant, London, 1622. He was a Dutchman, and the author of a larger book of trade, entitled, "Lex Mercatoria," also of "A Treatise of the Canker of England's Commonwealth," (1601). He complains that the merchant adventurers had engrossed into their own hands the sole power of exporting all white cloths, coloured cloths, kerseys, bayes, sayes, serges, perpetuanas, and all other new draperies, into Holland, Zealand, Brabant, and other parts of Lower and Higher Germany; that all the trade of the merchants of the staple, the merchant strangers, and all other English merchants, for exporting all commodities of British wool into those countries, was then in the power of the merchants adventurers only, and managed by 40 or 50 persons of that company of 3000 or 4000. Nay, one man alone has compassed into his hands the whole trade of coloured cloths and kerseys, for these parts, by means of exchanges, and money taken up at interest. He notices a recent proclamation (of July 20th 1622) prohibiting the exportation of wool, woolfells, wool yarn, fullers' earth, and wood ashes. He notices also that the price of wool had fallen from 33s. to less than 18s. per tod. To this tract came forth a reply by E. Malynes, entitled "The Circle of Commerce," (1623,) which ridicules the idea that foreigners could not do without British wool; and gives the balance of trade in 1622, as showing an increase of imports over exports to the amount of £298,878. Most of the tracts cited are rare, but notices of their contents will be found in "Smith's Memoirs of Wool." To those who would learn the obstacles in the way of introducing the art of dyeing woollens in England, is recommended the perusal of a very curious tract on the dyeing of wool, entitled "The Request and Suit of a true-hearted Englishman; written by William Cholmeley, Londoner, in 1553;" which is printed from the original manuscript in the second volume of "The Camden Miscellany." Incidentally to the general subject, we have noticed the woollen manufacture of Lancashire, and especially of Manchester. As to the latter, we may add that in 1541 the preamble to an act (33rd Henry VIII. — 1531), recites that Manchester had a long time been well inhabited; and the inhabitants well set to work in making of cloths, as well of linen as of woollen; whereby the inhabitants of the said town have gotten and come into riches and wealthy livings; and by reason of great occupying, good order, strict and true dealings of the inhabitants of the said town, many strangers, as well of Ireland as of other places, had resorted thither." — We have noticed the early history of the Tellarii or woollen weavers, the drapers, &c.; but another of the twelve

livery companies of London, the cloth-workers, has not been named. In the 19th Edward IV. (1479) they were separated from the drapers and tailors, and incorporated under the name of shermen or shearmen the following year. A shearman, or cloth-shearer, is one who turns the cloth and levels the nap. The burrellers, another mystery of the period, were for inspecting as well as making and measuring cloths, and derived their name from the old constitutions respecting the width of cloths, which were to be two ells wide from list to list, which were termed "burrells." The first efforts to convert an individual handicraft into a larger manufacture, are apparent in an act of 2nd Philip and Mary (1554-5), which declares that the rich clothiers do oppress the weavers, some by setting up and keeping in their houses divers looms, and maintaining them by journeymen and persons unskilful; some by engrossing looms into their hands, and letting them out at such unreasonable rents as the poor artificers are not able to maintain themselves by, much less their wives and families; some again, by giving much less wages for the workmanship of cloths than in times past, whereby they are forced utterly to forsake their occupation, &c. It enacts that no clothier living out of a city, borough or market town, shall keep more than two looms or two apprentices; confines the weavers themselves to their own trade; and forbids any thentofore a cloth maker or worker, to weave any broad white woollen cloth in future, except in cities, &c., where cloths had been woven for ten years past. Elkanah Settle writes (1694) that the grandeur of England is to be attributed to its golden fleece; the wealth of the loom making England a second Peru, and the back of the sheep, and not the entrails of the earth, being its chief mine of riches. The silkworm is no spinster of ours; our wheel and web are wholly the cloth-workers. 'Tis their shuttle nerves Britannia's arm, and their woof that enrobes her glory. (*Herbert.*) As to the domestic woollen manufacture, its operations fill a considerable space in "The English Housewife," (1683). It is the office of a husbandman at the shearing of his sheep, to bestow upon the housewife such a competent proportion of wool as shall be convenient for the clothing of his family; which wool, as soon as she hath received it, she shall open, and with a pair of shears cut away all the coarse locks, pitch, brands, tarred locks, and other feltrings, and lay them by themselves for coarse coverlets and the like. The rest she is to break in pieces and tease, lock by lock, with her hands open, and so divide the wool as not any part may be feltered or close together, but all open and loose. Then such of the wool as she intends to spin white she shall put by itself, and the rest

(to be put into colours) she shall weigh up and divide into several quantities, according to the proportion of the web she intends to make, and put every one of them into particular bags of netting, with tallies of wood fixed unto them, with privy marks thereon, for the weight, colour and knowledge of the wool, when the first colour is altered. Then she shall, if she please, send them unto the dyers, to be dyed after her own fancy; yet . . . . . I will show her how she shall dye her own wool herself into any colour meet for her use. For *Black:* Two lb. galls, one lb. best green copperas, boiled together in two gallons of running water. *Bright hair colour:* Boil the wool in alum and water, and when cold boil it again in a mixture of chamber-lye and chimney-soot. *Red:* Into wheat-bran water a week old, put a lb. of alum, and in this liquor boil ten lb. of wool an hour. Afterwards one lb. of madder to be added, a lb. of "saradine buck," [?] and the wool to be dipped a short time. *Blue:* Good store of old chamber-lye, half a lb. blue neal, byse or indico [indigo]. *Puke* [*Puce*] *:* Galls and copperas. *Cinder colour:* Dip red wool into puke-liquor. *Green or yellow:* Boil your woodward [? wood-wex, the plant *genista tinctoria*] in fair water; white wool put in will become yellow; and that put in blue will be green, provided that each be first boiled in alum. *Medleys, or mixed colours:* The best is of two colours only, and ever take two parts of the darker colour, and but a third part of the light. If your web contain twelve lb., and the colours are red and green, take eight lb. of the green wool, and but four lb. of the red. If you would have your cloth of three colours, say crimson, yellow and puke, take of the crimson and yellow each two lb., of the puke eight lb. (two light colours to one dark). If you would have a puke, a green and an orange tawny (two dark and one light), take of each the like quantity of four lb. [Then follow directions for mixing the wools.] It is the greatest art in housewifery to mix these wools aright, and to make the cloth without blemish. Then the wool is to be oiled and greased with the best rape oil, or (lacking that) well clarified goose or swine's grease. Three lb. of grease or oil will sufficiently anoint ten lb. of wool. Then the wool is to be tummed or carded, and the cardings stricken off, called "tummings," are laid by for spinning. The wool is then spun upon great wool wheels, according to the order of good housewifery, the actions whereof must be gotten by practice, not relation. Warp is spun close, round, and hard-twisted; being strong and well smoothed, because it runs through the sleighs, and also endureth the fretting and beating of the beam. The weft is spun open, loose, hollow, and but half twisted; neither smoothed in the

hand, nor made of any great strength, because it only crosseth the warp, without any violent straining, and by reason of the softness thereof beddeth closer, and covereth the warp so well, that a very little beating in the mill bringeth it to a perfect cloth; and though some hold it less substantial than the web, which is all of twisted yarn, yet experience finds they are deceived, and that this open weft keeps the cloth longer from fretting and wearing. He gives directions for the winding of woollen yarn, warping cloth, weaving, walking [fulling], and dressing it. The weaver should weave close, strong and true; the walker or fuller should mill it carefully, and look well to his scouring earth, for fear of beating holes in the cloth; and the cloth-worker, or shearman, burle [take out the knots] and dress it sufficiently, neither cutting the wool too unreasonable high, whereby the cloth may not wear rough, nor too low, lest it appear threadbare ere it come out of the hands of the tailor. (*Mark.*) As to the prices of wool, the following ancient prices are reduced to about the quantity of silver in the present coin: — In 1198, wool was 15s. per tod [that is, thirteen stones or 172 lb.]; from 1337-8 to 1339 it ranged, according to place, from 21s. to 39s. 2d.; in 1353, on an average, it was 30s. 4d.; in 1390 it was forbidden to be carried, except to certain places, and so fell to 8s.; in 1425 pure Leicester wool was 15s. 6d. to 19s. 4½d.; in 1533 the best clothing wool, 13s. 4d.; in 1581 it rose to 20s. and 22s.; and in 1622 it had fallen from 33s. to 18s. the tod. (*Smith.*) In the reign of Henry VI. (1422-61) was paid to a London draper for one web of "blankett fyn", containing 24 yards, for the use of my lord, (at 10s.) £12. (*Bishop's Accounts, Hen. VI.*) In the Accounts, in 1587, 4s. was received for a stone of wool [14lb. avoirdupois]; 1589, for a stone wanting 1½ lb. 3s. 9d.; 15 stone (10s.) £7 10s.; 1590, received of James Sudall, for 50 stone (10s.) £25; for 12 stone £6; 36 stone £18; four score stone £40; 1592, for 2 stone 26s.; 1595, 4 score and 19 (99) stone (13s. 4d.), £20 paid and now received and the bond delivered £45 19s. 1d.; 1597, wool was sold at the mark (13s. 4d.) per stone; 1604, a stone of coarse wool of last year's growth cost 7s. 6d.; 1605, was received for the last year's wool of Gawthorpe £8 15s.; and in 1606, £9 9s.; May 1611, 2 lb. bought to weave into cloth for Leigh and Lee's clothes 12d.; January 1621, 1¼ stone of dressed wool, for the gentlemen's coats, 18s.; 1617, March, received for 22½ stone (15s.) £16 16s.; June, for 6 stone 8 lb. (15s. 4d.) £5.; 1618, May, for 4½ stone (13s. 6d.) £3 5s. 6d.; September, 2 lb. fustion wool for my mistress, 2s. *Preparation and manufacture of woollen cloth*: 1596, September, to Giles Morrice's

wife, for blending and spinning $5\frac{1}{2}$ stone 13s. 9d.; weaving and colouring part of it, 3s. 8d.; walking and dighting it, 4s. 10d; October 1597, to Giles Edge's wife, for dighting and dressing 4 stone 4 lb. wool, 12s.; weaving and walking 7 yards kersey, 35 yards plain, 9s.; colouring 14 lb. of the said wool black, and 2 lb. blue, 16d.; July 1617, to John Roe, for spinning 7 stone of wool for blanketing (2s.) 14s.; for oil to the same, 8s.; weaving it into blankets, 7s. 6d.; to James Hill, for dighting and frising the same, 7s. 6d.; for litting [dyeing] 4 lb. blue listings to the same 16d.; spinning and weaving, dighting and frizing 7 yards of coarser wool and blankets for servants, 4s.; November, James Pollard, for dressing so much wool, and spinning, dyeing and weaving it, as made 14 yards red cloth, 25s.; January 1619, greasing 3 stone, 4s.; getting it spun (2s. 10d.) 8s. 6d.; weaving 24 yards (3d.) 5s. 10d.; milning and dressing it, 5s.; dyeing 6 yards orange, 3s.; $7\frac{1}{2}$ yards green (8d.) 4s. 8d.; five yards red (8d.) 3s. 4d.; January 1621, to James Pollard, $1\frac{1}{4}$ stone dressed wool for the gentlemen's coats, 18s.; for greasing it 2s.; spinning it 6s.; weaving it ($15\frac{1}{2}$ yards) 4s.; dighting and milling it, 2s. 8d.; dyeing $15\frac{1}{2}$ yards (6d.) 7s. 9d. This brings the total cost to 40s. 5d., or about 2s. $7\frac{1}{2}$d. a yard. These details of the manufacture of small parcels of wool are believed to be the only particulars extant respecting it, as practised more than two centuries ago.

Working Classes. — The fourth and last sort of people in England are day labourers, poor husbandmen and some retailers (who have no free land) copyholders and all artificers, as tailors, shoemakers, carpenters, brickmakers, masons, &c. As for slaves and bondmen we have none. This sort of people have neither voice nor authority in the commonwealth, but are to be ruled and not to rule other; yet they are not altogether neglected, for in cities and corporate towns, for default of yeomen, they are fain to make up their ingredients of such manner of people. And in villages they are commonly made churchwardens, sidesmen, ale-conners, and now and then constables, and many times enjoy the name of headboroughs. Unto this sort also may our great swarms of idle serving men be referred, of whom there runneth a proverb — "Young, serving men; old, beggars: because service is none heritage." These men are profitable to none, for if their condition be well perused, they are enemies to their masters, their friends, and themselves; for by them oftentimes their masters are encouraged into unlawful exactions of their tenants, their friends brought unto poverty by their rents enhanced, and they themselves brought to confusion by their own prodiga-

lity and errors, as men that having not wherewith of their own to maintain their excesses, do search in highways, budgets, coffers, mails and stables, which way to supply their wants . . . . Our husbandmen and artificers were never so excellent in their trades as at this present. But as the workmanship of the latter sort was never more fine and curious to the eye, so was it never less strong and substantial for continuance and benefit of the buyers. Neither is there anything that hurteth the common sort of our artificers more than haste, and a barbarous and slavish desire to turn the penny, and by ridding their work, to make speedy utterance of their wares: which enforceth them to bungle up and dispatch many things they care not how, so they be out of their hands, whereby the buyer is often sore defrauded, and findeth to his cost that "haste maketh waste," according to the proverb. (*Harri.*) See also notes on Labour, Husbandry, Servants, Wages, &c., and Index.

Worsleys, The. It is not clear whether the Mr. Worsley mentioned in the Accounts at various periods from 1594 to 1598, is the same with Mr. Thomas Worsley, named in 1597; but from the fact that suits instituted by the Shuttleworths are named under both, it is most probable that the person is identical. In 1584 was spent in Manchester, when the rent of Horwood was paid to Mr. Worsley, 4d.; January 1596, paid for searching the statute for Mr. Worsley, 3s. 6d.; January 1597, charges of the suit against Mr. Thomas Worsley, £4; July 1598, paid money laid out by my master in suits against Mr. Worsley, £4 14s. 8d.; and £3 8s. 10d. more, disbursed in suits against Mr. Worsley at the assizes at Lancaster. A Thomas Worsley, the first of Hovingham, co. York, was the son and heir of Robert Worsley of Booths and his wife Elizabeth, daughter of Sir Thomas Gerard of Bryn; and grandson of Sir Robert Worsley, knt. Thomas Worsley married the daughter and heiress of Henry Kighley of Inskip. (*Yorkshire Visit.* 1665.)

Worsted. (Supposed to be derived from a town so named in England or Flanders.) Yarn made of wool drawn out into long filaments, by passing it, when oiled, through heated combs. It is used for stockings and other fine fabrics. (*Dr. Ure; Webs.*) There is no doubt that the stuff derived its name from the town of Worsted, co. Norfolk, anciently spelled *Wurthestede*, (i.e. the place of a court or a farm,) and it was so written temp. Edw. III., as is shown in a petition from the testers and workers of "cloths of wurthestede" of that place, to the King in council, in the second year of his reign (1328). It seems they had been accustomed to make worsteds of

eight or nine ells, more or less, without restraint; but one Robert de Poleye had of late come with a commission from the King, who commanded them to make the cloths of a certain assise or length, as twenty-four, thirty, forty, and fifty ells, and nothing of less length, such cloths to be sealed or otherwise forfeited. The merchants refused to buy cloths of the prescribed lengths, so the testers and workers prayed to be allowed to exercise their mystery as in the time of former kings, without tax, and as it was before there was any assize of cloth ordered in England. The petitions were referred to the Bishop of Norwich and others in commission with him to examine and report thereon. (*Rot. Parl.*) In May 1502, worsted yarn was 16d. the piece. In 1503 a piece of worsted cost 33s. 4d.; and a piece of blue worsted of the least size, 13s. 4d. (*Eliz. York.*) See Wool, Hose, Stockings, &c.

Worthing; — ? Yearthing or Yearding, — stuff for earth and soil; dung, "muck," or manure. The word is not given in any of the usual glossaries. *Bos. Anglo-Saxon Dic.* has *Wyrthing*, a harrow. The entries in the Accounts show its use. In May 1605, twenty-one loads, for barley in the Church Hill, cost 5s.; fifteen loads, with good store of lime in it, 5s.; May 1606, a labourer six days yearding [? harrowing] and helping to fill worthing, 18d.; twenty-one wain-loads of worthing for Church Hill (3d.) 5s. 3d.; lime for worthing, viz. eight loads of lime to lay in the midding (8d. a load), 4s. 8d.; June 1613, two hundred loads of worthing and ashes (worthing 3d., ashes 2d.) 43s. 3d.

Wrights. (Anglo-Saxon *wryhta*, of wrycan, to work to labour), an artificer, as wheelwright, shipwrights. (*B. Dic.*) When used uncompounded, it implies a worker in wood, a carpenter. Various entries of their work and wages appear in the Accounts, for which see Index. The wrights' work at the erection of Gawthorpe Hall commenced in March 1600, when two wrights (six days at 4d.) received 4s.; June, a wright four days at Mytton wood (4d.) 16d.; October, a wright six days making scaffolds in that wood, 2s.; January 1601, a wright three and a half days sawing of boards at Gawthorpe, 10½d, &c. See also Timber, Joiners, and for wages Appendix II.

Writs. (Latin *Breve;* from *writan*, Anglo-Saxon to write). The king's precept in writing under seal, issuing out of some Court to the sheriff or other person, and commanding something to be done, touching a suit or action, or giving commission to have it done. (*Terms de ley.*) Also a formal letter of the king's, in parchment, sealed with a seal, directed to some

judge, officer, minister, &c., at the suit or plaint of a subject, requiring to have a thing done, for the cause *briefly* expressed, which is to be discussed in the proper court according to law. (*Old Nat. Br.*) Of writs there are divers kinds, in many respects; some are grounded on rights of action, some are in the nature of commissions; some are mandatory and extra-judicial, and others remedial; some are patent, or open, others close or sealed up; some issue at the suit of parties, some are of office, some ordinary, and others of privilege; some writs are directed to the sheriff, others, in special cases, to the party. Amongst others are writs of assurance, delivery, entry, inquiry of damages, rebellion, &c. (*Jacob.*) In the Accounts, in July 1587, a writ of quorum nominâ cost 2s. 6d.; another in September 1589, 2s. 6d.; September 1590, for serving a writ for the execution of the cattle recovered at Lancaster, £4.; 1592, July, to the sheriff's man for execution of a writ of James Horrocks and George Yate, 40s.; 1590, a quorum nominâ, 2s. 6d; 1598, August, for the diet of the sheriff when he did execute the writ of *liberate*, 33s. 9d.; 1618, December, paid to Mr. Holt, undersheriff, for the remainder of Mr. Hancock's writ, 26s. In the reign of Henry VI. the king's collectors, and other accountants, were much perplexed in passing their accounts, by new extorted fees, and were forced to procure a then late invented writ of quorum nominâ, for allowing and suing out their quietus at their own charge, without allowance of the king. (*Chron. Angl.*) Liberate is a writ to the sheriff of a county, for the delivery and possession of lands and goods extended, or taken upon the forfeiture of a recognizance. (*Jacob.*)

WYCHE, THE. A name given to the natural salt springs, as North-wich, Nant-wich, Middle-wich and Droit-wich. (See note on SALT.) In the Accounts, in 1590, July, the toll in the Wyche [probably North-wich, as the nearest] on two crincokes of salt [costing 31s.] 4d.; 1591, June, toll at the Wyche for three and a half crynokes of salt [costing 54s.] 8d.; 1600, August, four metts of Wych salt for the house use at Gawthorpe (3s. 4d.) 13s. 4d.

WYLLYSELL, INGRAM. The Schole or School Bank Estates seem to have been bought of him, for a certain sum in hand and an annuity for a term or for life. In the Accounts, in June 1856, was paid to him in part payment of the purchase of Scholebanck, as appeareth by a particular under his own hand, £77 5s. 4d.; in August 1589, to him, in part payment of his annuity, £3 6s. 8d.; March 1590, to him, of his annuity, 40s.; July 1591, his annuity due at Pentecost, £3 6s. 8d.

YALDE OR GALDE. These are north country forms of the Anglo-Saxon *geld*,

money, tribute, fine, tax. It is derived from *gildan* to pay; geld, the thing paid; and hence the were or wehr-geld was the price or value of a man slave; the orf-geld, that of a beast. As to tribute, it will suffice to name Dane-geld and horn-geld, a tax for horned beasts within a forest. Sometimes the penalty was the value of a thing, and then it was called an-geld (one-geld); if of double the value, twy-geld. So any land or property liable to be taxed to the king was called "geldable." The word is still retained in the north in "nout-geld" or "neat-geld," the rate paid for the agistment of cattle. (*B. Gloss.*) One variety of the word is *guild*, a corporation on the principle of the members contributing money payments to the common fund; and, as g and y are convertible, the "guild-houses" or "geld-houses," have come to be named "yield" or "yeild-houses," of which the boundaries in Withington are described in a deed of 11th Edward II. (1317-18), and "the yeld-house ditch" is named in various documents. In the time of our Accounts, yald or gald seems to have been in Lancashire the general and popular name for any local rate or tax, levied either by the church-wardens or church-master, or by the constable or other local authority. In itself it did not imply any fixed amount or rate, but simply a compulsory tax. In this respect it differed from the tenths, fifteenths, and subsidies (see notes thereon). The entries in the Accounts of galds are so numerous and various, and they are so often "galds of fifteenths," and so have been noticed under the head of FIFTEENTHS, that it would be tedious to specify them fully here. Indeed the copious and discriminative Index renders this unnecessary, as will be seen by reference to the word Yalde or Galde, where those for various purposes are classified under 22 separate heads.

YARN. (Anglo-Saxon *gearn*, Icelandic and Swedish *garn.*) Spun wool; woollen, linen, or cotton thread. (*Webs.*) In the Accounts, in November 1589, a quarter of a peke [? pack] of Irish yarn and a lb. more, bought at Manchester, cost £4 14s. 9d. In February 1618, seven score of linen yarn (22d.) 12s. 10d.; August 1592, paid for winding yarn at Smithills 16d.; August 1593, ditto 20d.

YATE OR YATES, JAMES. This is a form of the word Gate or Gates. He seems to have been a bailiff or upper servant of Sir Richard Shuttleworth from 1596; and probably to have become steward to Colonel Richard Shuttleworth soon after he succeeded his uncle Lawrence; but a volume of the Accounts from June 1606 to July 1608 being wanting, the time of his appointment cannot be ascertained. His name first occurs in the Accounts in December 1596. In May 1799, his whole year's wages were only 40s.

From June 28th to November 14th 1608, he signed the accounts of expenditure in London and Islington, and accounted and balanced with Col. Richard Shuttleworth. See Index.

YATE OR YATES, THOMAS. Another servant of the family for many years. In Padiham church a brass plate in the floor of the centre aisle, near the communion rails, thus records the birth, death and virtues of this faithful servant of the family in a few lines of doggrel: —

> "Here lies interr'd within this earth,
> Whom cruel death deprived of breath,
> Who, living threescore years and odd,
> Resigns again his soul to God.
> He was born in Coventry,
> In the county of Warwicke,
> in anno domini 1581,
> and servant to the right Worshipful
> Richard Shuttleworth 34 years,
> and died at Gawthropp 30 May
> Ano D'ni 1643. — Thomas Yate."

It may be doubted whether the name at the end is that of the deceased or his surviving relative, perhaps the composer of the epitaph and the placer of the stone. The name of Thomas Yate first occurs in the Accounts of December 1609, when they were kept by James Yate. The entry is, to Thomas Yate for the exchange of his horse for a mare at Cowcill, 17s. He seems to have made periodical journeys on horseback, to London, when sums of money were delivered to him to make payments and purchases. In July 1620, was spent by Thomas Yates and his horse in his London journey, 36s. He also went to Manchester, Wigan, York, Stourbridge Fair, &c. In July 1613, and January 1617, amongst the quarter's wages paid to "serving men," Thomas Yate and James Yate received each 16s. 8d.; or at the rate of £3 6s. 8d. (5 marks) yearly. For the entries see Index.

YATE, MR., OF GRAY'S INN LANE. This was a third and distinct person, for he is named when James keeps the accounts, and is always named as "Mr." and in the same month with "Thomas Yate." In December 1609, he appears to have received 30s. for diet, and it is likely that until the Shuttleworths took a house at Islington, they stayed in that of Mr. Yate in Gray's Inn Lane. See Index. By a memorandum of March 12th 1833, in the hand writing of Paul Tickle, agent to Miss (now Lady Kay-) Shuttleworth, of certain leases expired and running, it would seem that a family of Yate or Yates, described as yeomen (except Robert, a clerk or clergyman),

lived at Pickup Bank in 1711, and in 1735, William, Lawrence and Robert all resided at Yate Bank. They also held a farm of Davy-field, in Eccleshill, of the Shuttleworths, for three lives, at a yearly rent of 21s., it being 48 acres.

YELLINGE WOOD. Probably the wood of Yealand Conyers, eight miles north of Lancaster. In August 1618, was received of Giles Cockshut, for grass in Yellinge wood, 2s.

YEOMEN. A derivative of the Anglo-Saxon *geman*, i.e. common. *Gemen* among the ancient Teutons, and *Gemein* among the modern, signifies common, and the g becoming y, is written yeman, signifying a commoner. (*Verstegan.*) A yeoman, whom our law calls "legalem hominem," is in the English a free born man, that may dispend of his own free land in yearly revenues to the sum of 40s. sterling. (*Smith's Rep. Angl.*) An Elizabethan writer, quoting this definition, says, 40s. sterling, or £6 as money goeth in our times. This sort of people have a certain pre-eminence and more estimation than labourers and the common sort of artificers, and these (yeomen) commonly live wealthily, keep good houses, and travell [labour] to get riches. They are also for the most part farmers to gentlemen, or at the leastwise artificers, and with grazing, frequenting of markets, and keeping of servants (not idle servants, as the gentlemen do, but such as get both their own and part of their master's living), do come to great wealth, insomuch that many of them are able and do buy the lands of unthrifty gentlemen, and often setting their sons to the schools, to the universities, and to the inns of court, or otherwise leaving them sufficient lands, whereupon they may live without labour, do make them by those means to become gentlemen. And albeit they be not called "master," as gentlemen are, or "sir," as to knights appertaineth, but only John and Thomas, &c.—[subsequently he adds: "they be called 'goodman Smith,' 'goodman Coot,' &c., and in law, 'Edward Mountford, yeoman,'" &c.]—yet have they been found to have done very good service; and the kings of England, in foughten battles, were wont to remain among them (who were their footmen) as the French kings did among their horsemen; the prince thereby showing where his chief strength did consist. (*Harri.*)

YOKE. (*Jugum* Latin; *geoc* Anglo-Saxon.) A piece of timber, hollowed or made curving towards each end and fitted with bows for receiving the necks of oxen, by which means two are connected for drawing or ploughing. (*Webs.*) In February 1590, six yokes were well ironed for 3s.; June 1594, three ox-yokes cost 6d.; in January 1601, four cost 2s. 8d.

YORK. There seems to have been considerable intercourse with York, in law matters, both civil and ecclesiastical; and for purposes of purchase of goods, &c. In April 1590, Thomas Grimshaw spent 6s. 2d., when he went to York to receive £20; November, 20 gallons tar, and carriage from York to the Smithills, 15s.; April 1591, paid to Huete [Huet or Hewitt] the waitt of York [one of the city minstrels] 2s.; September, spent by Robert Aspden, going to and coming from York and being there, his horse and himself, eight days [at the assizes] 13s. 10d.; July 1592, to Henry Shuttleworth, by the appointment of Sir Richard, to go about business of his to York, £5.; on page 76 (September 1592) is a note of the charges of James Leigh and his man, Henry Shuttleworth and myself [Thomas Shuttleworth] from Smithills to York and home again. October, spent by me, Thomas Shuttleworth, in my journey to York from Smithills, with other charges as followeth [see p. 77]; February 1594, two couple of organ [ling, the greatest sort of North sea fish] which came from York, 16s.; July 1605, paid in York, for one ton of iron, of flat bars, £12. The charges of eight horses and three men from Gawthorpe to York and from York home again, in horse meat 9s., men 9s. 3d.; December 1612, paid to Sir Thomas Dawney knt., sheriff then of York, certain arrearages due to his majesty for Forcet, 28s.

YOWLERINGES. The youlring or yellow-ring, was a common name for the yellow-hammer (*Emberiza citrinella*) also called the yellow bunting. Few of our native birds are more delicately and beautifully coloured. During the winter it collects in small flocks, or associates with flocks of the common bunting, and pairs in spring. In the Accounts, in December 1591, larks and yowleringes cost 4d.; December 1595, sixteen sparrows and yowlwringes, two snipes and two snipe-knaves, 16d.

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The End.

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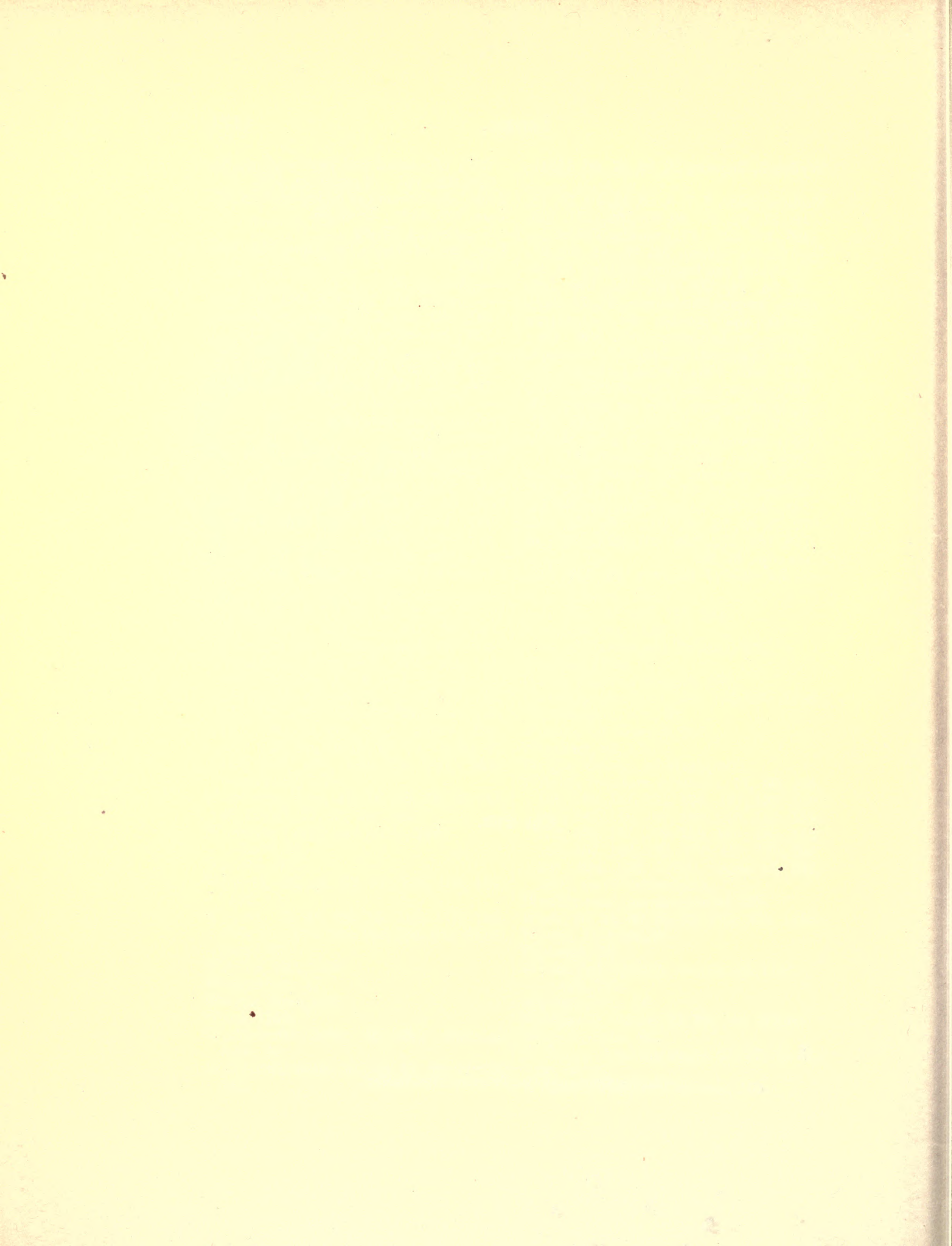

The Fifteenth Report

OF THE

COUNCIL OF THE CHETHAM SOCIETY,

Read at the Annual Meeting of the Society held on the 1st March, 1858.

THE first duty which devolves upon the Council in presenting their report is the very painful one of referring to the loss of their late invaluable coadjutor DR. PARKINSON. He assisted in founding the Society; he had acted as Vice-President from the commencement in 1843; he had ever taken an unflagging interest in its progress and continuance; and in his last letters to two of his friends on the Council, written a few days only before his death, he showed the same zeal for its welfare which had always been conspicuous. With admirable practical sense, extensive various knowledge, and literary power adequate to any occasion, united with social qualities the most kindly and genial, he formed at once a firm support and an inexhaustible ally; and he was ever ready to afford to the Society that assistance which so much contributed to raise its character and ensure its success. Of the numerous works embraced in the now voluminous series of the Chetham publications, there are none assuredly which will be hereafter more frequently referred to than the Diaries of Martindale, Newcome, and Byrom, which appeared under his editorial sanction, and the two last of which would in all probability have been altogether lost to the public if his discerning taste and the high confidence reposed in him by the respected possessors of the MSS. from which they were edited, had not enabled the Chetham Society to include them amongst its materials for publication. Of one so universally appreciated, and whose loss has thrown a gloom over so many circles, it is unnecessary on this occasion to say more than that amongst its friends and promoters, amongst those who have largely contributed to its prosperity and smoothed the difficulties of its progress, the Chetham Society, whatever may be its date of existence, will never be able to point to a name more highly deserving of honour and grateful remembrance than that of RICHARD PARKINSON.

With respect to the Publications for the last year, the Council have to report that the two first, Volumes XLIII. and XLIV. in the Chetham Series, have already been issued to the members, and that Volume XLV. is now ready for binding.

Vol. XLIII. is Part III. of the *Shuttleworth Accounts*, edited by Mr. HARLAND. It continues the Explanatory Notes and elucidations of the subjects touched upon in the Accounts from the head "Bridges" to that of "Lyme," in alphabetical order. The extent of curious, useful and interesting information on a vast variety of topics to be found in this body of Collectanea, can only be understood by a careful examination of the book itself. The remainder of the Alphabet will be contained in Part IV., the greater part of which is now printed, and will form the first Volume for 1858–9. The Council feel assured that every reader of Part III. will be impatient for the appearance of the following one, and which will accordingly be issued with as little delay as possible.

Vol. XLIV. concludes the *Diary and Correspondence of John Byrom*, which its late lamented editor, Dr. PARKINSON, just lived to see completed. It carries on the biography of the accomplished and excellent diarist from 1742 to September 1763, the period of his death. It contains a minute and circumstantial account of the events connected with Prince Charles Edward's stay in Manchester in 1745, in a daily journal written by Elizabeth Byrom, his daughter, and a very extensive correspondence with William Law, Bishop Warburton, Bishop Hildesley, Dr. Hartley, R. Thyer, Pegge the antiquary, and other persons, on various subjects of interest. The Appendix, by CANON RAINES, gives the pedigrees of Byrom of Byrom, Byrom of Salford, and Byrom of Manchester, illustrated with a fulness of information and accuracy of research which render the supplement a very valuable companion to the work itself. Altogether the present will, it is conceived, be found to be a most attractive volume. Concluding, as it does, with the death of John Byrom, with whom every reader will have formed an intimate acquaintance, but whom he can no more accompany in his journeyings or listen to in his conversations, or take a lesson from in his works of kindness and charity, and with the mournful conviction that "the fine Roman hand," which will be at once recognized in the concluding note on "John Shadow," will in future be looked for in vain, this volume will be read with an interest peculiarly its own. It will complete the magnificent present to the members of the Chetham Society announced by Dr. PARKINSON in his opening preface.

Vol. XLV. consists of *Miscellanies: being a selection from the Poems and Correspondence of the Rev. Thos. Wilson B.D., Rector of Claughton, Incumbent of Clitheroe and Downham, and Master of the Grammar School of Clitheroe; with Memoirs of his Life* by CANON RAINES. Mr. Wilson of Clitheroe, a selection of whose remains Mr. RAINES has made in this work, was the author of the "Archæological Dictionary," and though it is now nearly half a century since his decease, his fame in Lancashire as a wit and a scholar can scarcely yet be said to have subsided. His editor has in this most entertaining volume done the fullest justice to the amusing materials which his research has brought together. Combined as the poetry and correspondence now are, a fair idea may be formed of the man who delighted his contemporaries by his playful humour, while he secured their respect by his solid acquirements and transcendant merits as a teacher. The Latin inscription on his monument was written by his friend, Dr. T. D. Whitaker, from whom several excellent letters are given in the correspondence. In the Notes and introductory Memoir, CANON RAINES has made many important additions to Lancashire Biography, and has afforded a picture of Wilson worked out with his usual care, discrimination, and skill. A beautiful engraving from Wilson's portrait and another of his monument have been furnished to accompany the work at the expense of some of his surviving pupils, through the medium of DIXON ROBINSON, Esq.

During the last year the first Portion of *Lancashire and Cheshire Wills and Inventories*, Edited by the Rev. G. J. PICCOPE, to come in the place of the deficient Volume XXXIII., has been issued by the Council. From the abundance of other materials this department of the work originally projected for the Society had been long delayed, and it is satisfactory to have been able to furnish a first instalment towards its completion. Whether considered with reference to family history, the devolution of property, the habits, customs and manners of the people, the developement of character, or the progress of our language, the Ancient Wills and Inventories preserved in our Ecclesiastical Registries are of inestimable value. So suggestive and so full of direct and collateral lights are these documents that there is not a page in Mr. PICCOPE's Volume which might not admit of an ample commentary, and none from which some important point connected with the subjects adverted to may not be either deduced or confirmed. The Wills and the very curious Inventories collected in this Volume range from 1525 to 1560, and are fifty-four in number. Amongst them the Draper takes his place with the Doctor of Canon Law and the head of a County Family,

and the truculent George Wimisley, who condemned to the flames George Marsh the martyr, is seen in close neighbourhood with Edward Janny, the kind hearted Merchant of Manchester, who enjoins his executors " to gather in his debts by gentleness and not by the law." Mr. PICCOPE has well earned the grateful acknowledgements of the Members of the Chetham Society by the elaborate diligence and scrupulous accuracy with which he has edited this portion of the very useful and valuable work which he has undertaken.

The Publications contemplated or in progress are —

1. *The Shuttleworth Accounts*, 4th and concluding Part. Edited by JOHN HARLAND, Esq.

2. *Lancashire and Cheshire Wills*, the second portion. Edited by the Rev. G. J. PICCOPE.

3. *A Selection from Dr. John Byrom's unprinted Remains*, in prose and verse.

4. A new edition of the *Poems* collected and published after his decease, corrected and revised, with notes and a prefatory sketch of his life.

5. *Worthington's Diary and Correspondence*, the concluding Part of the second volume.

6. *Documents relating to the Lancashire Lieutenancy, chiefly from the Gawthorpe MSS.*

7. *Thomas Grelle's charter and early inquisitions, from documents relating to the Lordship and Manor of Manchester.* Edited by JOHN HARLAND, Esq.

8. *A Descriptive Catalogue of the Tracts for and against Popery published in the time of James the Second, now in the Chetham Library.* Edited by THOMAS JONES, Esq., Librarian of the Chetham Library.

9. *Collectanea Anglo-Poetica, or Bibliographical Notices of some of the rarer Poetical Volumes in the Library of a Lancashire Resident.*

10. *Nathan Walworth's Correspondence with Peter Seddon of Outwood, near Manchester, from* 1628 *to* 1654. Edited by ROBERT SCARR SOWLER, Esq.

11. *Heraldic Visitations of Lancashire.* Edited by T. DORNING HIBBERT, Esq.

12. *Birch Chapelry*, by the Rev. JOHN BOOKER.

13. *Miscellanies of the Chetham Society*, Vol. 3.

14. *Hollingworth's Mancuniensis.* A new edition. Edited by CANON RAINES.

DR. *The TREASURER, in account with the Chetham Society, for the year ending 28th February, 1858.* CR.

		L	S.	D.
2	Arrears of 1855-6, reported at the last Meeting.			
2	Collected	2	0	0
23	Arrears of 1856-7, reported at the last Meeting.			
15	Collected	15	0	0
8	in arrear.			
10	Subscriptions for 1857-8, accounted for last year			
246	Subscriptions for 1857-8, collected	246	0	0
49	Ditto ditto now in arrear.			
305				
2	Vacancies of Life Members after 14th year.			
43	Life Members.			
350				
7	Subscriptions for 1858-9, paid in advance	7	0	0
	Received for postage of books	0	13	0
	Books supplied to Members	20	13	8
	Dividend on £200, 3 per cent Consols	7	5	8
	Interest from the Bank	16	8	7
		£315	0	11
	Balance 1st March, 1857	395	3	4
		£710	4	3

1857.		L	S.	D.
Mar. 2.	Hire of room for Meeting	0	7	6
,, 11.	Copy of Vol. 12	0	5	0
,, ,,	Postage	2	0	0
June 1.	Charles Simms and Co. as per account, balance of Vol. 42	51	15	0
,, 9.	Stamps	1	0	0
July 11.	Charles Simms and Co. on account of printing	17	19	6
,, ,,	Ditto balance of Vol. 43	66	2	6
,, ,,	Ditto balance of Vol, 33	26	19	3
Aug. 11.	Draft R. Sims for examination of records	1	0	0
,, 28	George Simms, as per account binding, &c. Vols. 33 and 42	44	16	3
Dec. 14.	Charles Simms and Co., Vol. 44, &c	126	8	6
,, 31.	Stamps and Postage	0	1	0
1858.				
Feb. 6.	Postage	0	0	6
,, 11.	Ditto	1	10	0
,, 20.	George Simms, per account binding, &c. Vols. 43 and 44	41	11	6
,, 23.	Charles Simms and Co., Vol. 45	108	10	0
,, ,,	Ditto printing	3	14	0
,, ,,	Book post	0	15	4
,, 26.	Charles Simms and Co., on account of Vol. 46, &c	105	0	0
,, 27.	Daniel (sundry transcripts)	6	0	0
,, ,,	Carriage of parcel account, Vol, 45	0	3	6
		£605	19	4
	Balance 28th February, 1858	104	4	11
		£710	4	3

Audited by
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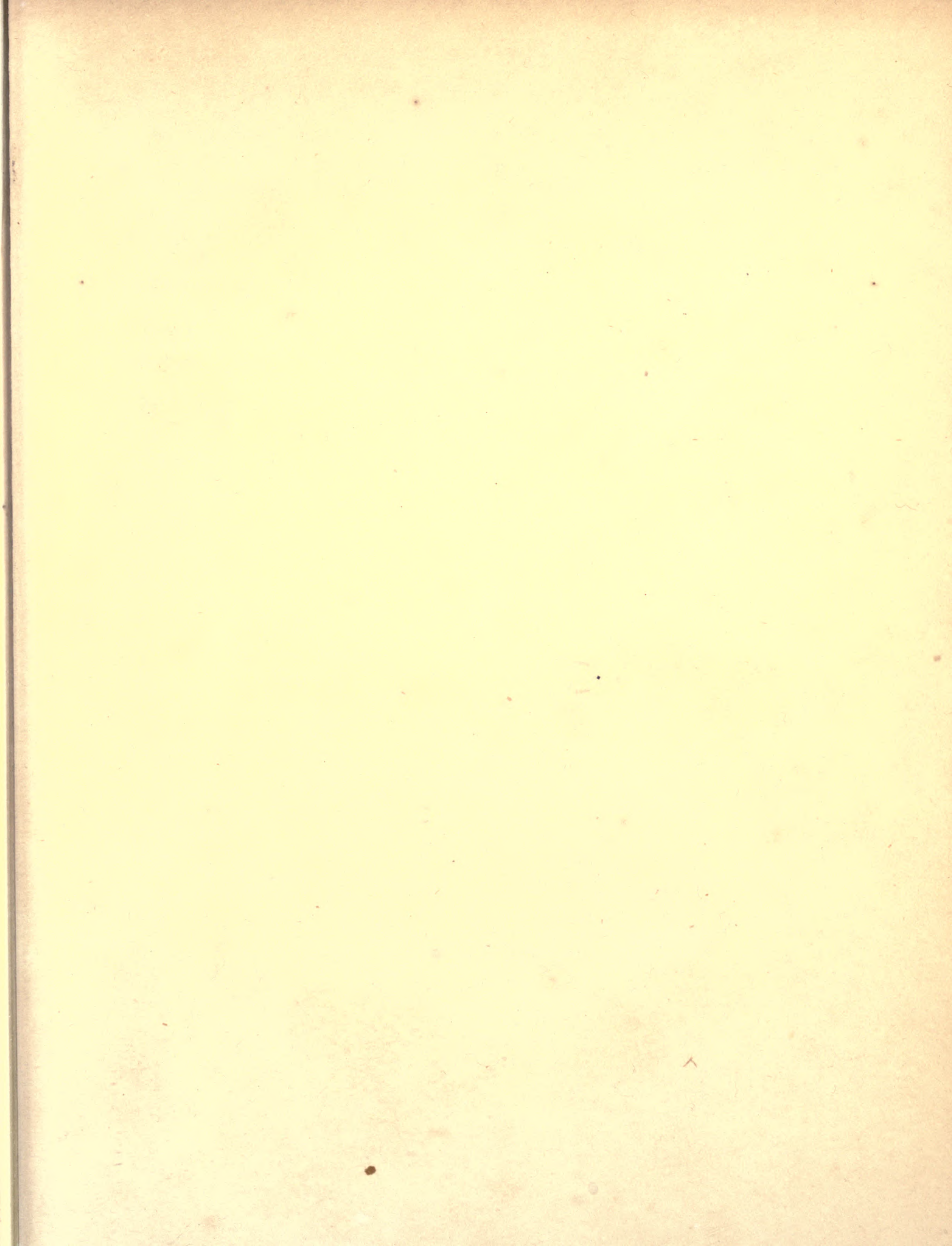

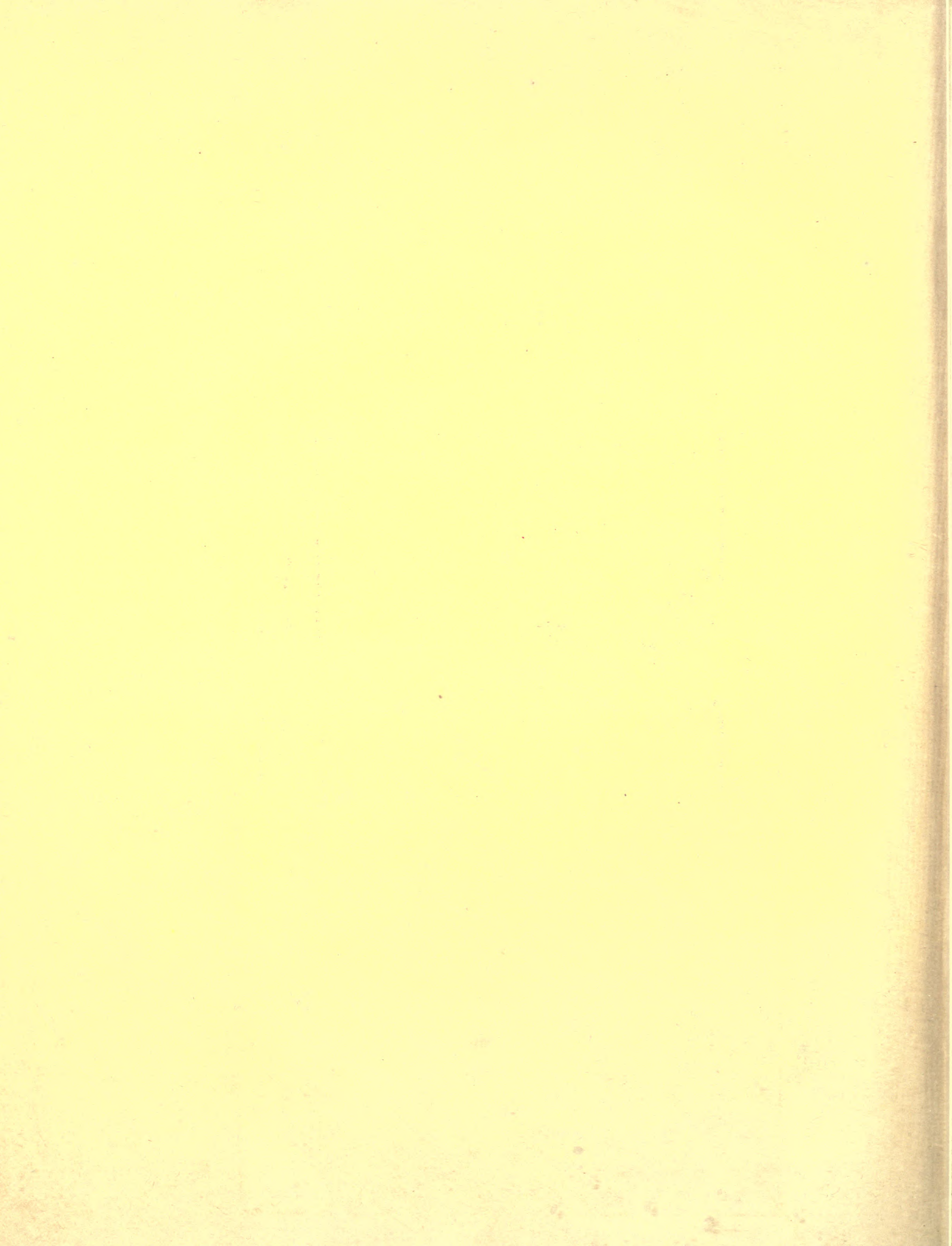

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