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GLASGOW

Its Municipal Organization and Administration

BY

SIR JAMES BELL, BART.
LORD PROVOST OF GLASGOW, 1892-95, 1895-96

AND

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PRESIDENT OF THE MUSEUMS ASSOCIATIONS OF THE UNITED KINGDOM

Glasgow
James MacLehose and Sons
Publishers to the University
1896
PREFATORY NOTE.

My object in the preparation of the following volume is to present to my fellow-citizens, and to those interested in the working of municipal institutions, a comprehensive view of the various means through and by which the complex work of a great corporation is carried on, and the intimate relation in which these and their result stand to the health, happiness, and prosperity of the citizens. The present seems a peculiarly favourable time to undertake such a task. Glasgow has recently been more than doubled in area, has passed through a period of great municipal activity and rapid progress, and this year is naturally marked off from that which is to follow by the re-distribution of the wards and an election involving the entire Council.

During my term of office as Lord Provost I have had prepared an annual survey, necessarily bald and brief, of the outstanding new work of the year; and in doing so I have felt the need of some such work as the present, which would show clearly the evolution by which, in all the departments of corporate action, Glasgow has attained the high position which she now holds among the great municipalities of the world. Such a work, it seems to me, would serve a useful purpose as a history of Glasgow's municipal life up to this present year of grace, alike to the citizens of Glasgow and to the numerous distinguished visitors from all lands who come to study the working of our system of local government. Only the corporate side of city life alone, with all its activities, its problems, and its aspirations, is dealt with; and I place the record before the reader in the hope that its perusal may help to deepen and strengthen civic patriotism, induce a still stronger interest in the important and complex problems of city government,
and show the able and earnest men among us how great and valuable are
the services they can render to the community as members of our local
parliament, where we should deal only with local and practical issues and
supply proved needs, leaving entirely out of consideration all imperial questions.
Being non-political in its election and working is the greatest strength of
our Council.

For the collection of much of the information that is gathered here, I have
to return my warmest thanks to the officers of the various Corporation
departments. To Mr. James Paton, the talented curator of the Corporation
Galleries and Museum, I am indebted for bringing the material into its
present literary form; and I cannot bear too cordial testimony to the care,
zeal, and ability which he has displayed in carrying out a work of consider-
able difficulty and complexity.

JAMES BELL.

15th October, 1896.
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INTRODUCTION.

According to tradition, it was while taking his accustomed walk in Glasgow Green on a pleasant evening in the spring of 1765 that the idea of the separate condenser to the steam-engine flashed across the mind of James Watt. Every circumstance connected with that conception was momentous and memorable. No invention, in any time or country, was fraught with such far-reaching and revolutionary consequences in the economic and social relations of the human race. One of the first and most obvious consequences of Watt's improvements of the steam-engine was the concentration of the industrial population into large communities. The inventions of Arkwright and others in the textile industries had already laid the foundation of the factory system of industry, and had struck the first deadly blow at domestic employments. Had steam-power not promptly followed on textile improvements, the factories of the country would inevitably have been planted along the water-courses great and small, and the industrial population would perforce have been scattered. That such a distribution was actually begun is demonstrated by the fact that ere the significance of steam-power was perceived, the Lanark Mills on the Clyde, the Catrine on the Ayr Water, Deanston near Doune on the Teith, and Stanley on the Tay, and other huge establishments were erected, and all were, in effect, a distribution from Glasgow. Their sites were fixed on account of water-power; but no sooner did the influence of steam manifest itself than they languished, and the drift of population thereupon was steadily towards the towns. It was steam thus that determined the growth of our great industrial towns, that transformed the population of Great Britain, and drew the dwellers from fairly distributed villages and hamlets into densely packed active centres.

In favourable situations towns grew up with phenomenal rapidity, and these vortices of population being established, they drew with ever-accelerating force masses of the rural populace within their boundaries, and the sweep of their influence extended in increasing radius over the country. And so from the later part of the eighteenth century numerous moral and social problems began to take shape, which it became the task of town authorities in the
second half of the nineteenth century to cope with and seek to solve. The many and grave difficulties of a congested population were not apparent in the early stages; the steady infusion of new and healthy blood into town life at first masked some of their more tragic forms; and the symptoms that were observed were looked on as dispensations of Providence which had to be accepted with resignation, rather than as calls to exertion for their amelioration.

Nor, indeed, were those in power in our cities and towns in the early part of the nineteenth century in a position to cope with the difficulties which were afflicting the populace. The Town Councils were close Corporations sitting in secret conclave, and were out of sympathy with the desires and wants of the mass of the population. They were looked on with suspicion and dislike, an unwilling obedience was rendered to their rule, and the taxes they imposed, unequal in their incidence, were grudgingly paid, under the fear that they might not be applied to their legitimate uses. Within the Councils there was little enthusiasm for arduous and long-continued effort; behind these bodies there was no stimulating influence of healthy public support; they were face to face with sullen dislike and suspicion. Whether the people lived or died was not the care of the Town Councils—that might be left to the churches and the charitable organizations; sufficient for them if public order was enforced and external decency maintained.

In the fulness of time the Scottish Burgh Reform Act of 1833 was passed, and with that great instalment of democratic rule civic life and activity assumed new aspects. The people began to perceive that they had a direct interest in their Councils, and some control over their Councillors. Council and community found themselves in touch with each other, and the vague and inarticulate feelings and aspirations of the multitude found coherence, distinctness, and expression in the narrow circle of the Council. And as the experience of the new order of things increased, more close, intimate, and sympathetic became the relations between the Councils and the electors, and the more readily were the feelings and dumb purpose of the community reflected and interpreted in the Council halls. And as the burgh franchise was lowered, and electors from lower and yet lower strata in the social edifice were added to the constituency, in proportion grew the sympathies of the Councils, and enlarged views of their functions and responsibilities more and more possessed their minds.

While thus Councils were being returned well-equipped and ready to discharge their duties, there were no light tasks ready to be grappled with. The central problem—that which in its sweep embraced every other—was the health of the multitudes drawn into the towns. How to enable the working population, and even the poor, to live healthy, decent, comfortable lives, how even to add some enjoyment to these lives, was the momentous question which offered itself for solution.
This vast question was only unrolled by degrees; nay, it is only now in course of opening up, and its portentous issues are by no means yet fully revealed. In its crudest, incipient form it presented itself with the clearness of a trumpet call when the populace were being decimated by the periodical epidemics which scourgèd the cities. At first, thought was given to nothing more than dealing with the individual attack, and that only when the enemy had established a firm hold on the citadel of life. By slow degrees only was it perceived that the true policy is to exclude epidemics, that, according to the pithy proverb, "prevention is better than cure." Hence the formation of permanent Sanitary Departments and Health Committees, and the inception of the vast undertakings of these bodies.

With the progress of the labours of Health Authorities and the opening up of their vast field of operations, there came an entire revolution in the conception of the responsibilities of Town Councils towards the citizens they represent. In the earlier part of the century the duty of the Corporation to the individual was chiefly negative and repressive. He had simply to be kept from being a menace and a trouble to his neighbours; but the zeal which had, at one time, possessed the Council for the spiritual welfare of the people had long died out, and the supervision of schools for the masses had ceased. The health of the City, it was now perceived, involved the health of the individual, and the recognition of this fact opened up hitherto undreamt of spheres of action and usefulness. It was not simply light, air, and water that now were in question; the food of the people and the conditions under which they laboured came under supervision; even their recreations and enjoyments became the care of the Councils. So came the parks, recreation grounds, play-grounds, open spaces, the band performances and concerts, the libraries, and the museums and art galleries—all modern developments of municipal activity.

As regards the health and comfort of dwellers in towns down even to the lowest stratum incalculable good has been effected. Unfortunately the evils attendant on city life neither begin nor end within the cities. They pollute equally the heavens above and the earth beneath. The sky for miles away is darkened with fog-beget ting clouds of smoke, and the water-courses are poisoned with all the burden of pestilent refuse they will carry. Till these two crying evils are remedied as far as current knowledge and practical skill permit, country populations will have just and heavy grievances against the dwellers in towns. Both the sewage and the smoke nuisances are among the problems—let us rather say, they also are a phase in the problem—which all urban communities have to face.

Another phase of municipal work which has emerged with popular election and democratic organization is the supervision and control of what we may term civic monopolies. In this connection it is not necessary to enter into any discussion of the debated question of municipal communism, or to inquire
INTRODUCTION

how far it is the duty of a Council to become a universal provider. The municipal right of control over undertakings which in the case of Glasgow, at least, have been absorbed—the water, the gas, and the tramways—can be defended on quite other considerations. Water, like air, is an indispensable requisite of existence; like air it should be free to all, and so it is: there is no private property in the element, and it is only for its distribution, for bringing it to the door of every citizen, that a rate, on the convenient basis of rent, is levied. Gas, electric light, and tramways are on a different platform. It is open to any citizen to use these conveniences or to supply himself with such illuminants and conveyance as he may elect. He is called on to pay only for the service he receives; and that service is made self-supporting, but it is not a source of profit. It is however obvious that an unlimited range of gas-pipes could not be laid through the public streets and into the premises of consumers, nor could more than one set of tramway rails be tolerated in the thoroughfares. These services belong to the order of natural monopolies; they could not be trusted to the uncontrolled charge of any private body; and certainly the first right, even duty, to administer them rests on the Corporation.

Thus along many paths the later half of the century has seen numerous and vital developments of municipal activity. The energies of Town Councils have not been expended in windy verbosity, but they have been directed to practical issues of the utmost consequence to those who have confided municipal office to them. The qualities which make a good Town Councillor are simply those which belong to the successful business man: method, precision, accurate judgment, and prompt decision, and with these characteristics the elected Councils have been well endowed. So it comes that in many—almost all—the important modifications of social legislation the towns and cities have been pioneers; frequently their proposals have at first been rejected by Imperial Parliament, and in the end passed only with timid hesitation and doubt, and yet these very measures in the end became the general law of the country. So also it comes that municipal rule is now being recognized as coming closer to the every-day interests of the people than the enactments of the Imperial Senate, that the future developments of municipal activity are being looked forward to with lively and personal interest, and that the true significance and value of municipal institutions are being daily better recognized and more widely appreciated.

The power for good or evil of a Corporation such as Glasgow, dealing with the daily life and wants and interpreting the aspirations of three quarters of a million of human beings, is almost inconceivably great. What that power involves gives neither thought nor concern to the man in the street, who, seeing the smooth and monotonous flow of daily life, dreams not of the unresting care, labour, and watchfulness by which the great machine is kept in harmonious action. And yet in the discharge of their duties to
the citizens, the Magistrates and Council find it necessary to employ a body of officials and servants numbering upwards of 10,000; they administer a revenue which exceeds two millions sterling yearly; they hold property worth more than ten millions, and they carry a burden of debt which amounts to the quite respectable total of more than eight millions. The income equals that of a modest kingdom; it is applied to purposes much more directly beneficial to the people, and the servants of Glasgow Corporation certainly earn their pay in a manner far more directly useful than do the armed hosts of the nations. How numerous, how diverse, how far-reaching are the activities of the civic authorities, and how varied are the duties of the cohorts of municipal officials and servants, the following pages will serve to show.

Let it be distinctly understood that in this narrative of municipal development and activity no claim for superiority or special merit is made on behalf of Glasgow. It certainly is the case that the City, in its history, gives the most complete possible illustration of the growth of a Scottish Burgh beginning with the small missionary settlement and its mythical see, passing through the phases of the ecclesiastical domination of the Bishops, the Regality, the Royalty, and capping the edifice in the County of the City. Further, it affords an illustration of commercial and industrial expansion without parallel, we may say, to avoid controversy, in Scotland. And in the train of that expansion came all the complications and difficulties of a congested population; but in Glasgow these came in an aggravated form. In our sore need and straits our municipal activities were stimulated to high and strenuous exertions, and there was so much to do that their record is all the more striking. But while the task was great, let it be acknowledged with profound gratitude that the City was in many respects favourably situated for coping with its difficulties, and in nothing was it more blessed than in the bounteous supply of water our fathers brought to us from the romantic lochs of the Perthshire Highlands.
CHAPTER I.

GROWTH OF GLASGOW: ITS CAUSES.


The County of the City of Glasgow, as established by Act of Parliament in 1893, occupies a situation on the western extremity of the Lower Ward of Lanarkshire, overflowing into the County of Renfrew. It bounds with Dumbartonshire on the north-west side, and to the north the city extends to near the confines of the County of Stirling. The municipal boundary is much more irregular in form than the main area of continuous population. The latter, fairly compact and closely built, measures about five miles from north to south, and as much from east to west, but within that area are included the police burghs of Partick, Govan, and Kinning Park. The municipal area of Glasgow embraces 11,861 acres lying on both banks of the Clyde, which has a course of five and a half miles on the borders of and within the City. As the river approaches and touches the City bounds it flows in an exceedingly tortuous channel, giving a correspondingly sinuous outline to the portion of the boundary which is along the river bed, but after entering the City at the Green it pursues a fairly straight course west by north till it expands into the firth and sea-lochs beyond Dumbarton.

The population within the municipal area, as defined by the City of Glasgow Act, 1891, according to the census of that year, was 656,185. In three contiguous police burghs, which, in every way, except in municipal authority, form part of Glasgow, the dwellers in 1891 numbered 111,581, thus making the total population of the geographical area as at 1st April, 1891, equal to 767,766. But outside these well-compacted and densely-populated boundaries the real population of Glasgow straggles in every
direction into suburban villages, which have been originated, and even into ancient burghs, which have been vitalized, by contiguity to the City. Taking into account only the neighbouring villages and populous areas around the City, the population which Glasgow may claim as its own numbered in 1891 not less than 820,000 persons. Allowing for the normal growth of population during the five years which have elapsed since the census was taken, it is certain that geographical Glasgow has now a population of about 900,000 souls.

The bounds of the ancient Royalty of Glasgow were so narrow that no sooner did the population begin to increase in a marked manner than its limits were overflowed, and therefore in modern times repeated changes and extensions of the municipal boundaries were demanded. The formation of minor burghs and the development of populous areas around the City were the cause of numerous variations in the heads under which census returns were from time to time made up, so that it becomes difficult to obtain a strictly accurate view of the progressive growth of the population. Thus, having regard to the municipality alone, we find the population in 1891 was 656,185, while in 1881 it reached only 511,415, giving an apparent increase, within ten years, of no fewer than 144,770. But the City of Glasgow Act of 1891 added to the municipality the whole population of the Police Burghs of Crosshill, Govanhill, Pollokshields, Pollokshields East, Maryhill, and Hillhead, besides various other populous areas which had not been formed into Burghs; and therefore the real increase of population was not nearly so great as the census returns show. For our present purpose, however, a general view of the progress of the population alone is required, and putting aside minute statistical statements, it may be taken that the population of Glasgow, amounting in 1896 to 900,000, was in the middle of the century 329,000, and that in 1801 the City, with its suburbs, contained only 83,769 persons. Thus, within ninety years the increase has been more than tenfold. For the initial stages of this expansion, unparalleled in the experience of cities in the old world, we have to go back into the eighteenth century. The various periods at which the population of the City was ascertained, with more or less accuracy, previous to the era of the Decennial Census, which dates from 1801, may be thus tabulated:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Period</th>
<th>Population</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Reformation Period, 1560</td>
<td>4,500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Before Union of Crowns, 1610</td>
<td>7,644</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>After Union of Kingdoms, 1708</td>
<td>12,766</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Before Rebellion, 1740</td>
<td>17,034</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Before American War, 1763</td>
<td>28,300</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>After American War, 1780</td>
<td>42,832</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>For Statistical Account, 1791</td>
<td>66,578</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Here it will be observed that the real starting-point of the phenomenal growth of the population of Glasgow may be fixed at or about 1740; and
the entire development of the City is practically comprehended within the century and a half which has elapsed since Prince Charles Edward severely taxed both the endurance and resources of its sturdy Presbyterian inhabitants.

From the small basis of 17,000 inhabitants in 1740 the City multiplied itself tenfold in about sixty-five years, while the tenth part of the present population was reached ninety years ago.

Whence this enormous expansion of population? It is the outcome of many causes, the chief of which we may notice in their historical sequence as they in turn came to bear on the prosperity, wealth, and development of the City.

With the beginnings of Glasgow we have little concern, and of them, we possess but scanty definite knowledge. The Romans erected their great Antonine wall within sight of the position now occupied by the Cathedral; but whether at that period a village nestled on the banks of the Molendinar burn cannot be affirmed; nor are there many grains of truth to be winnowed from the heap of monkish fables which have accumulated around the history of St. Kentigern and the See which, in the middle of the sixth century, he is said to have founded in Glasgow. That such a missionary ecclesiastic settled, laboured, and established a Christian community, at Glasgow there is not any doubt. Though his Episcopal dignity is but shadowy and the limits of his See must have been ill-defined, yet the reverence in which his person is held in the Catholic Church, and the way in which his name and deeds bulk in monkish chronicles, indicate the deep impression his life and service made. It is not till the lapse of more than five centuries from the days of St. Kentigern that Glasgow really emerges into historical light and begins to occupy a distinct place in Scottish records, and again it is in its ecclesiastical relations that the City appears. In, or shortly after, the year 1116 the See of Glasgow was revived or established anew under a deed termed "An Inquisition of David, Prince of Cumbria," during the reign of that Prince's father, Alexander I. This inquisition or memoir of Prince David—"the sair sauncet" for the Scottish Crown—sets forth the foundation of the Church in Glasgow, and the ordination of St. Kentigern as Bishop of Cumbria. It maintains he had many successors in the See, but the revolutions and the troubles in the country destroyed the Church and almost effaced Christianity. The document next narrates the restoration of the Bishopric and the appointment of John Achaius, the Prince's tutor, as first Bishop of Glasgow. It then proceeds to give on the evidence and oath of five juratores a list of the territorial possessions of the See which were both numerous and widespread. Thus were the foundations of Glasgow laid in missionary enterprise. Its primitive activities centred around the spiritual welfare of a widespread district and there was reason for the motto which at a later date was chosen for the City, "Lord, let Glasgow flourish by the preaching of Thy Word."
The spiritual interests of the people being thus cared for, the See grew in power and wealth and more than once it happened that the Bishop of Glasgow was Chancellor of the Kingdom. In a turbulent and unsettled country such a power would attract a peaceful and industrious population around its immediate centre, where some measure of security could be assured, and where also the wealth and ostentation of ecclesiastics would create considerable demand for active service.

Next in order as fostering the growth of the City, and arising out of its ecclesiastical establishment, was the foundation of the University of Glasgow. That Institution the City owes to its Roman Catholic Bishops, the Bull of Pope Nicholas V. having been obtained by James II. at the instigation of Bishop Turnbull. The date of the Papal Decree founding the University is 7th January, 1450-51, and in the document the City is described as “a place well suited and adapted to that purpose on account of the healthiness of the climate, the plenty of victuals and of everything necessary for the use of man.”

But the preaching of the Word and the dissemination of such intellectual light as the Church encouraged notwithstanding, the growth of Glasgow and its industrial and commercial development were, in the fifteenth century, but meagre. The City was planted on the western limits of civilization, beyond it rolled the mysterious ocean through whose virgin wave no keel had ever ploughed. It was remote from the great lines of mediaeval intercourse from which the commercial grandeur of Venice, Antwerp, and other wealthy cities had been acquired. It was a poor little town, planted in a very poor and thinly peopled country, within reach of a small river which, flowing towards a Highland region peopled by wild and lawless races, fell into a trackless and unexplored ocean. Thus, with indifferently fertile land, with a variable and rigorous climate, with no natural wealth nor valuable products calculated at that time to excite the cupidity of commercial communities, and with the simple wants of the people supplied by their own rude industries— with these and many similar conditions, industrial enterprise and commercial expansion were not to be looked for.

In the last decade of the fifteenth century occurred the great event which, more than any external circumstance, affected the fortunes of Glasgow. On the 12th October, 1492, Christopher Columbus, sailing westward, in the hope of thereby reaching the Indies and of tapping by a new route the rich stream of Oriental commerce, came in sight, not of the land he looked for, but of the outposts of a great continent. The discovery of America at once changed the geographical position of Glasgow. Through the ages the tide of civilization and trade had been steadily flowing westward and it had reached its apparently furthest limit, but now it took a leap across the great ocean, and Glasgow, instead of being on the outer rim of human activities, found itself in the track of the great inter-continental traffic which
was bound to grow with the growth of Transatlantic population. The significance of the discovery was not at first obvious to the inhabitants of Glasgow. It was but slowly that the tide of population crossed the great Atlantic to possess the new continent. The current of commerce was at first only meagre and it was in the hands of southern, and at that time, more adventurous nationalities. But the Continent was too vast to form, for any length of time, the dominion and the exclusive customer of any power, and it soon became apparent that the balance of the world was affected by the discovery of America. To it all people could flow, and from its virgin resources all nations could draw.

Something had to be done to prepare Glasgow to seize and to enjoy the advantages of its new position. The Firth of Clyde presented to the North Atlantic the best and most convenient opening and shelter in the north-west of Europe, but between the City and the waters which would carry any sea-going vessel there were about fifteen miles of a comparatively small stream, full of shoals and fords, incapable of bearing boats with more than a few tons of cargo. About the end of the sixteenth century some efforts were made by the citizens to remove the principal obstruction from the bed of the stream at Dumbuck Ford, but the operations undertaken were very inadequate for the necessities of the case. The upper part of the Clyde is rapid-flowing and subject to violent floods which carry down vast quantities of silt which deposit in the sluggish tidal waters of the lower reaches. These conditions necessitate constant dredging, a work hardly possible of adequate accomplishment without the aid of steam and modern appliances. The mercantile spirit of Glasgow demanded outlet in some way, and in their difficulties the citizens, in 1658, approached the Town of Dumbarton, seeking there a harbour. But the rulers of that then decaying and spiritless burgh declined to entertain the proposal on the ground that “the influx of mariners and others would raise the price of provisions.” Ten years later the citizens obtained from Charles II. a charter for the establishment of a port and harbour on the south bank of the river, and under that provision Port-Glasgow, which has long ceased to be the port of Glasgow, grew up. Port-Glasgow was for the City a dismal failure. In the year 1692 a report on the finances, trade, and general condition of the City was prepared, in connection with a general inquisition into the condition of Royal Burghs, ordered by the Convention of Burghs in the previous year. The report on Glasgow is couched in the gloomiest possible terms, but it must be remembered it was the interest of the several burghs to picture their condition in the most dismal hues, with the hope of thereby obtaining the greatest possible measure of relief from public burdens. According to the report, the annual value of the foreign trade of the City was not more than £205,000 Scots (£17,083 sterling). The shipping consisted of fifteen vessels of, in all, 1,182 tons burden. Seven of these were in the harbour and
eight were for the present abroad "uncertain of their home-coming because of the war." "There are," says the report, "some houses and sallaries at Port-Glasgow, but by reason of the great decay of trade there is nothing got for them, yea, not so much as it cost the town in upholding them." It was quickly discovered that to become a trading city a port at Glasgow was a necessity; and in 1688 the Town Council spent £1666\(^1\) on the construction of a quay at the Broomielaw, after which the deepening of the river went on slowly but steadily. Even into the nineteenth century it was no uncommon experience for vessels of shallow draught to be stranded in mud banks, requiring both crew and passengers to get out and give the craft a shove off. To men yet living a citizen in narrating his experience of travelling by water from Glasgow, mindful of the bumping and jolting he experienced, affirmed that it was more a hurl than a sail he got on the Clyde. Withal, the carrying capacity of the river grew with the growing demand; and as trade presented itself, the citizens were able to give it free course to the confines of Glasgow.

By the beginning of the eighteenth century the trading instinct of the people was active and eager, but it was not correspondingly intelligent and far-seeing. In no town of Scotland was the projected Union of the Kingdoms more unpopular and more violently opposed than in Glasgow, to no town did it bring greater increase of trade and prosperity. Indeed, from the Union may be said to date the real commercial development of the City. Before that period Scotland was, it is true, an independent kingdom, but poor, isolated, and incapable of expansion. Its traders were excluded from English colonies and settlements in America, where an English population was rapidly growing up and whence an important and increasing trade was flowing. The terms of the Union were denounced from pulpits, the document was burned openly at the Market Cross, and the proposals gave occasion to a violent and long continued riot. And yet the Union so bitterly opposed immediately opened up this promising and rapidly expanding field to the mercantile enterprise of Scotland and soon colonial produce, sugar and tobacco, figured prominently on the trade lists of Glasgow. To these staples was quickly added cotton, and on such colonial produce was founded the mercantile prosperity of the City. Foreign enterprise being thus begun the international trade of Glasgow branched out to all quarters of the globe. Many other products and manufactures were added to the list of the City's enterprises, and the grip on trade obtained as an immediate result of the Union has never for a moment been relaxed.

To the surface of the soil and to agricultural products of the district Glasgow owes but little, but the fact that the Clyde flows through, and that the City is built over, the richest coal and ironstone region in Scotland, explains, above all, the present-day population, industry, and wealth of the

\(^1\)Scots money: that currency alone was recognized in Scotland before the Union.
CAUSES OF ITS GROWTH

community. Whatever may have been the essential conditions of com-
mmercial prosperity in earlier times, coal is king in the nineteenth century. 
At what time mineral fuel first was used in the West of Scotland we
need not inquire. In the Town Council records we find that in 1578
Fergus Kennedy, a servitor of the Archbishop and son of David Kennedy
of Knodkaw, obtained a lease for three years of the “coillheuchtis and
colis within the baronie” of Glasgow, for the modest annual payment of
£40 Scots “with thretene scor and ten laidis of colis,” which lease he
incontinently made over and assigned to Matho Boyd for a substantial profit.
From that day to this coal has not ceased to be worked in Lanarkshire,
although the extent and value of the mineral wealth of the region came
to be but slowly recognized and to form a factor in commercial develop-
tment. The Royal Commission on Coal Supply of 1871 estimated the
total available amount in the Clyde Valley at more than two thousand
millions of tons, of which nine hundred millions of tons were within 1060
feet of the surface. From that total stock the annual draught now amounts
to about fifteen million tons.

The beginnings of the great iron industry in Glasgow can be stated with
precision. Iron manufacture is of comparatively recent origin in Scotland,
the first record of the industry dating only from 1750, when two furnaces
for making charcoal iron from hematite ores were erected in Argyleshire. In
1760 the celebrated Carron Works were founded, but it was not till 1782
that the Clyde Works in the immediate vicinity of the City were established.
The whole annual output of Scotch iron at that time did not exceed 1500
tons, but thenceforward furnaces increased apace and the quantity made in
1796 exceeded 18,000 tons. Previous to the earlier years of the nineteenth
century the clay-band ironstone of the coal measures was the only Scottish
iron in use, but the discovery, in 1801, by Robert Mushet, of the black-
band ore, added an enormous store to the mineral resources of the West of
Scotland and exercised a powerful influence on the development of the
industry. After the discovery and application, in 1828, of the hot blast, by
James Beaumont Neilson, a phenomenal expansion of the Scottish iron
industry took place. Then it became indisputably not only the principal
industry of the Glasgow district, but the centre around which all later
industrial enterprises more or less clustered and out of which they grew.

From the deepening of the river and from the exploitation of the
mineral resources of the Lanarkshire coal-field have directly sprung the
commerce and the great industries which at this moment are the mainstay
of Glasgow. The huge chemical industries, the vast and varied engineering
undertakings, and the Clyde shipbuilding—that marvellous monument of a
long list of intrepid, sagacious, and skilful men—are derived most obviously
from the causes above enumerated. The experience and details of these
industries belong to the commercial history of the city, with which we have
here nothing to do, dealing as we are with the physical and political causes which together have operated towards the building up of one of the most important commercial cities in the world.

Nor can we take any account of the personal element which contributed in no mean degree to the growth and well-founded prosperity of the City. What we owe to the untiring industry of our ancestors, to their Scottish thrift, to the patience with which they battled with and conquered adverse circumstances, to their prudence, honour, and uprightness, and to the higher motives of religious conviction,—how much of the City's prosperity is due to these qualities it is impossible to measure. The benefits which flowed from the genius of individual citizens have in many instances been more contributions to the progress of humanity than to the prosperity of the community amongst whom they dwelt. The work of James Watt,—how mean it would be to say it benefited Glasgow! It revolutionized the world. Only in a lesser degree did the discoveries of Joseph Black widen the limits of chemical science and influence the development of both scientific and technical chemistry. To name pioneers of progress of our own time is a delicate task, but surely there can be no question of the propriety of alluding to the President of the Royal Society, Lord Kelvin, not only in relation to his scientific eminence, but in connection with the services he has rendered to mankind in ocean telegraphy and in navigation. Of the hosts of men of more limited reputation who have materially contributed to the progress of industry and specially to the industrial development of Glasgow we may but record the names of David Dale, herd-boy, hawker, manufacturer, turkey-red dyer, banker, and evangelist; in chemical industries of Charles M'Intosh, Charles Tennant, and Walter Crum; in the iron trade of Mushet, Neilson, John Wilson, and the Baird family; in shipbuilding and engineering of Robert Napier and John Elder; in navigation of Henry Bell, David Napier, and Sir George Burns, Bart. It is something to feel assured that of these illustrious sires worthy sons are still amongst us, maintaining the best traditions of Glasgow industry and commerce, and in the march of enterprise and progress continuing to keep the lead handed down to them by a long line of prudent and capable ancestors.
CHAPTER II.

SCOTTISH BURGHAL CONSTITUTION.


The present system of municipal government in Scotland has grown up out of customs sanctioned by immemorial usage, and out of chartered grants and privileges which may be said to be coaeval with settled government and social organization in the country. Modern legislation, it is true, has worked tremendous havoc with the ancient and primitive burghal constitution, but while it has excised and pruned down many features which might have a romantic interest for the antiquary, while it has moulded and modified others almost beyond recognition, and while specially it has added immensely to the functions and activities of municipalities, withal, there remains a core of the ancient powers, privileges, and duties embraced in the constitution of a Scottish burgh of the earliest date. We have had no revolution in municipal government, and, although we have had ample and needed reformation, enough remains to give a substantial ground for a proud claim to unbroken tradition and historic continuity over a period of more than eight centuries.

The beginnings of burghal constitution and rule in Scotland cannot, from the absence of records, be fixed by precise dates. The formation of a burgh implies a certain aggregation of inhabitants within narrow limits; and with the growing of such a population grew and increased the necessity for recognized authority, social organization, mutual forbearance and protection. It is not, therefore, surprising to find that a code of rules and customs for the government of burghs should have been formulated soon after
populous places were established and a certain amount of civilized rule and authority was evolved. That minute and detailed code, eulogized by Professor Cosmo Innes as the most ancient and well-authenticated in the world, is known as the "Leges et Consuetudines Burgorum Scotiae," "The Laws and Customs of the Scottish Burghs." That this code must have been drawn up, recognized and acted upon so early as the end of the eleventh century is obvious from the fact that it received legislative sanction during the reign of David I., 1124-53.

To the reign of that enlightened monarch, David I., may be traced the definite institution and recognition by royal authority of burghs in Scotland. Not only did these burgh laws receive his sanction, but in several of the charters under which grants in favour of his well-beloved brother-churchmen were made, there is mention of his burghs of Edinburgh, Dunfermline, Haddington, Perth, Stirling and others. No actual charter of any Scottish burgh, it is true, is extant or comes into direct evidence earlier than in the reign of William the Lion, but it is remarkable that his grants are in the form of confirmation and recognition rather than in terms of original erection. Thus, in the case of the ancient Burgh of Rutherglen, the charter grants to the burgesses all the customs and privileges they had conceded to them in the reign of David I., and it specifies the boundaries over which these burghal privileges extended, which, it may be said, in its wide sweep included the area of Glasgow, at that time doubtless an insignificant village. The recapitulation of rights enjoyed by Rutherglen under King David and specially the indication of boundaries warrant the assumption that Rutherglen had documentary recognition as a burgh under that monarch.

The legislative sanction given to the "Laws and Customs of the Scottish Burghs" rendered it unnecessary to enumerate the rights and duties of a community in the institution of a burgh. The four burghs, Berwick, Roxburgh, Edinburgh, and Stirling, by which these laws were first formulated, at this early period formed a superior court of appeal in relation to general burghal privileges and responsibilities. They constituted a court, moreover, for the trial of appeals from the deliverances of the King's Chamberlain in his annual inquisition in the burghs and for the protection and regulation of trade. When and how these communities acquired such ascendancy and judicial authority is not known. To keep up the number of four in this burghal court appears to have been regarded as essential, for when the Burghs of Roxburgh and Berwick fell into the hands of "our enemies the English," an Act of Parliament of David II. appointed Lanark and Linlithgow to be substituted for them, but without prejudice to the rights of the two southern burghs when they should be freed from the hated foreign yoke.

In 1405 the court of the four burghs ordained the attendance of two or three sufficient burgesses from every Royal Burgh south of the Spey at
the annual meetings of the court to take cognizance of all matters connected with the welfare of the whole burghs. In this ordinance we find the germ of the Convention of Royal Burghs, a municipal parliament which continues with us to the present day. In 1454 the seat of the annual court of the four burghs was fixed by charter of James II. in Edinburgh, and under that document its duties were defined to determine appeals from the burgh courts of the kingdom and to regulate the standards of weights and measures. The court was in the middle of the sixteenth century formally merged into what is now known as the Convention of Royal Burghs. At that time the Convention was a powerful and influential body. As a court of appeal it decided between conflicting burghs and between magistrates and burgesses. It apportioned the share of the various burghs towards national taxation, it had the power of altering the set or constitution of burghs, and of empowering them to deal with their common lands and other properties; it had the framing of regulations for domestic and foreign trade, and it had the right of negotiating commercial treaties with foreign cities and states. Deprived now of almost the last relic of these powers, the Convention is yet a venerable institution with a long and picturesque record. Dynasties have risen and fallen, but the Convention of Royal Burghs remains, one of the most ancient corporations in the United Kingdom.

Of burghs in Scotland there have existed from very early times three distinct classes—Royal Burghs, Burghs of Regality, and Burghs of Barony. A fourth kind, or rather a modification of the class of Burghs of Barony, may also be distinguished as Bishops' Burghs. In the latter the learning and astuteness of the superiors, as well as the wealth and importance of the cities over which they ruled, warranted and secured more extensive powers and privileges than were generally conceded in the case of ordinary Burghs of Barony. It was, however, by no means the case that the various burghs in any of these grades possessed equal powers and privileges. The charters in some cases were far more liberal and conceded greater powers than were granted under other charters instituting burghs of the same class.

The Royal Burgh was the most complete and perfect form of burghal constitution in Scotland. In it the one indispensable condition of burgess-ship was the owning of a loft or rood of land within the burgh which was held by the vassal in feu, originally, for a fixed yearly payment direct to the Crown. This rent or feu was collected by the ballivus regis or King's Bailie, a royal functionary who at first combined the duties of both a magistrate and a tax gatherer. In addition to the lands held in feu by the individual burgesses there were generally conveyed to the community considerable tracts of land to be held in common, the inalienable property of the burgh, in return for which the authorities became responsible for the maintenance of the King's peace, for law and order within their limits, and
for military service to the Crown. A Royal Burgh was thus originally a property of the Crown, farmed in feu to the individual burgesses. A second source of revenue to the Crown consisted of the fines, impositions, and dues connected with the administration of justice in the burgh courts. The trouble and expense of collecting the feu duties and the uncertain nature of the revenues from courts at a very early period occasioned a change in the collection of royal revenues, and about the beginning of the sixteenth century it became the practice to lease these to the respective burghs for a fixed annual payment. Ultimately, a permanent arrangement was arrived at under which these sources of revenue were granted to the communities in feu farm for payment into the Exchequer of a fixed annual reddendum.

A third source of revenue, originally a perquisite of the Crown, was also at an early date assigned to the individual Royal Burghs. That consisted of the tolls or petty customs exacted on all articles of commerce which entered or left the burgh. These exactions, most unfair in their incidence and costly and troublesome to collect, were scrupulously exacted, although probably with little profit and certainly no real advantage to the Crown. When assigned to the burghs they were generally farmed out and became a permanent and important source of municipal revenue. The right of exacting petty customs is still exercised in several Scottish Burghs though it is altogether at variance with modern ideas of trading, and at best is now, to such as exercise their rights, only a source of great irritation and little revenue.

Connected with this system of petty exaction was another trade privilege granted to Royal Burghs, of much wider scope and, according to the spirit and light of the times, of much greater importance. This was the grant of exclusive privilege of trade, both domestic and foreign, invariably conveyed to the burgesses. In the case of the early founded burghs especially, these exclusive privileges sometimes extended over large districts beyond the limits of the burgh itself and often included the areas of burghs subsequently established. The city of Perth, thus, had exclusive privileges in certain trades over the entire county, and the bounds of the exclusive activity of other burghs were not much more limited. These exclusive powers gave rise to an enormous amount of jealousy, ill-feeling, and litigation as the balance of population and industrial activity changed from centre to centre. No case is more striking than that of Glasgow, which in its trading activity was assailed from three sides, by Rutherglen, Renfrew, and Dumbarton. The original royal grant to Rutherglen included Glasgow within its area of exclusive trade, and no sooner was the City erected into an ecclesiastical burgh with certain trading privileges than it came into conflict with its ancient and burghally superior neighbour. The assertion of the charter rights of Rutherglen and of the other contiguous Royal Burghs and the resistance of these by Glasgow continued, as we shall see,
to be a source of violent contention and litigation for centuries, and these struggles did not end till Glasgow became the stronger of the contending communities.

Although the unfettered right of burgesses to elect their own magistrates and rulers has from early times been esteemed one of the principal and most highly prized of the privileges of a Royal Burgh, it does not appear that it was an original and fundamental condition in the erection. The ballicus regis who first acted both as magistrate and collector of Crown dues was clearly a petty State functionary whose duties and office must have continued as long, at least, as the individual feu, fines, and other dues were collected on behalf of the Crown. But when these were farmed to the communities the necessity for such Crown officials ceased, and there is evidence that, about the beginning of the fourteenth century, the right of the Royal Burghs to elect their own magistrates was recognized. In the Leges Burgorum there is a regulation that at the first mute court after the Feast of St. Michael the alderman and the bailies, prepositi, shall be chosen by the good men of the town who are leal and of good fame, meaning thereby that all burgesses in the full enjoyment of their privileges were entitled to a voice and vote in the election.

The origin of the larger body, the Council, is similarly involved in obscurity, but in the Statuta Gilda originally framed for the town of Berwick-on-Tweed and afterwards accepted as the recognized standard for other Scottish Burghs, it was ordained by common consent, that the community of Berwick shall be governed by twenty-four good men of the better, more discreet and more trustworthy of that burgh thereto chosen, together with the mayor and four bailies.

The Royal Burghs, as corporate bodies, when they commuted the town rents for a fixed annual reddendum, came to occupy the same position as the other great feudal vassals of the Crown, and in that capacity they were entitled to representation in the parliament of the country. Accordingly, in 1326, in the parliament assembled at Cambuskenneth by Robert the Bruce, representatives of the burgesses and free tenants of the realm were for the first time admitted to sit and vote. Representation went with taxation in that parliament, and probably the former was due to the latter, for the most important legislative enactment passed was the granting to the King of the tenth of a penny on all rights according to the "old extent" of King Alexander III., towards the expense of the wars of the monarch.

The grant of a burgh with its privileges and duties was to the community. The whole of the burgesses, without distinction or exception, stood theoretically on equal terms in the eyes of the law, but the times did not favour such patriarchal arrangements, and pure democracy was little understood and less encouraged in the Middle Ages. As in the great continental cities the government was taken by those who had the power, so in the
humbler Scottish burghs a ruling class, if not a ruling family, quickly made its appearance. Class distinctions appear among the burgesses as early as the reign of William the Lion. Merchant gilds existed in the burghs at that time and their privileges and position were recognized by statute. These confraternities of merchants were established for the purpose of maintaining and regulating the monopoly of trade granted to the burgh, and their regulations chiefly related to buying and selling within the limits assigned to the individual burgh which, as we have seen, were sometimes very wide. While all gild-brothers were bound to be burgesses, the converse did not hold—that all burgesses should be gildsmen; on the contrary, the gild was from the very first recognized as an aristocratic and exclusive body from the membership of which certain classes of burgesses were expressly excluded. The *Leges Burgorum* enact that no dyer, butcher, nor shoemaker shall be admitted to the gild till he swears to exercise his craft by his servants only, and in certain specified gilds, fullers and weavers were not qualified for membership. The distinction between merchants and craftsmen, thus early introduced, rapidly accentuated itself. The socially inferior classes of burgesses were excluded from office and authority, and the merchant gilds seized and monopolized the privileges primarily conceded to the community. The power and exclusiveness of the gildry oligarchies were increased by numerous Acts of Parliament designed to confine foreign trading privileges to merchants possessed of property of specified amounts, and to wholly exclude all craftsmen from “using merchandise,” and so the merchant class secured at first predominant, and ultimately sole and absolute, authority in the government of the burghs.

Naturally the craftsmen resented these invasions of their primal rights, and as they grew in numbers they insisted on recognition and began to demand their share in the public administration. The struggle began in the fifteenth century and waxed fiercer and fiercer till it culminated in the seventeenth century. Already, in the fifteenth century, the crafts insisted on their right to meet and each to choose their own chief officer or deacon, and in 1424 by Act of Parliament that right was conceded to them. The power and jealousy of the gilds is manifested by the repeated repeal and re-enactment of that statute. But in 1469 the crafts scored a further victory in securing the right to have a representative of each corporation to participate in the election of burghal officers. The extent and value of this concession may be gauged from the other section of the enactment, which is to the effect that all officers be elected yearly and that the “chesing of the new officaris be in this wise—that is to say, that the aulte counsail of the toune sall cheise the new counsail in sic nowmyr as accordis to the toune; and the new counsail, and the aulte of the yeir befor, sall cheise all officaris pertenyng to the toune as aldermen, bailyis, dene of gild and utheris officaris; and that ilka craft sall cheise a person that sall
have voice in the said election of the officaris for that time and likewise yeir by yeir." Next the craftsmen succeeded in wresting to themselves a certain share in the nomination of members of council, but the majority of councillors and of superior officers, the provosts and bailies, continued to be of the merchant rank. The disabilities of the burgess of the craft rank were gradually removed. They finally conquered to themselves a fair share of burghal office and honour, but it was not till the present century that all restrictions on trading by others than the merchant rank were removed.

Throughout the entire course of the independent history of Scotland the power of the Crown was comparatively weak and restricted. The Royal Burghs never attained a position of great influence in the State, while, on the other hand, the barons and ecclesiastics extorted from their nominal head, power, privilege, and authority with unbridled rapacity. The villages and towns which grew up around the strongholds of barons or under the shadows of the cathedrals were, from an early date, fostered both as a source of power and of revenue to their overlords, and following the example of the crown, these populations were formed into burghal communities. For this purpose Crown charters were obtained either by favour, persuasion, or threat, granting not to the community, but to the overlord, burghal rights, and in this way the inferior class of Burghs of Barony arose. In the majority of cases it was left to the superior to organize and deal with his burgh according to his own will. He had the power to impose duties, to collect revenues, and to appoint magistrates entirely in his own hands, although in some instances the charters provide for the nomination of magistrates by the vassals. Of the same general character were the charters granted to bishops for erecting their cities into burghs, but the greater general importance of the cathedral cities over barons' villages put the Bishops' Burghs on a higher plane, though the citizens may have had quite as little independence and control over their own affairs.

In the progress of time many of these subordinate burghs succeeded in securing to themselves the privileges of domestic and foreign trading which were an exclusive right of the Royal Burghs as at first constituted. Burghs with the chartered right of trading became known as Free Burghs. Still further pushing their aggressions, a much more dangerous and serious power was wrested from the Crown in the establishment of regalities or Burghs of Regality, in virtue of which, exclusive power of criminal jurisdiction within their own borders was conceded to the superiors. This was a power originally demanded by, and for obvious, but dangerous reasons, first conceded to the clergy; but the grasping barons quickly followed in their wake, and in the end no inconsiderable portion of the kingdom was covered by regalities, so that the Crown was deprived of a large portion of its highest and most sacred prerogative. Rights of regality con-
tinued till 1748, when by Act of Parliament all heritable jurisdictions in Scotland were abolished.

The burghal system of Scotland here briefly outlined, with its close corporations and self-constituted powers, continued with practically no other modification than that above mentioned, till the passing of the Burgh Reform Act of 1833, when the first instalment of the democratic constitution of the present day was enacted and put in force. Under that Act the persons entitled to vote for Members of Parliament under the Reform Act of 1832 were also the qualified electors of Town Councils within Royal Burghs. The Reform Act of 1832 re-constituted the parliamentary representations of Scotland which had previously been settled in 1707 by the Act of Union. In the interim the balance of population had shifted considerably. Many Royal Burghs had decreased in importance; some had disappeared altogether leaving no trace of their existence, except in record, while other communities had expanded or sprung into existence. At the period of the Union there were in Scotland seventy Royal Burghs entitled to be represented in Parliament, but four of these in Fife, Newburgh, Earlsferry, Auchtermuchty and Falkland, had ceased to send representatives to the Scottish Parliament. They were therefore excluded from the list of Royal Burghs entitled to representation in the Imperial Parliament and others were grouped for the return among them of one member. In 1832 two additional Royal Burghs were disfranchised, their representation being combined with that of the counties in which they are situated; and a new class of parliamentary burghs was then instituted embracing urban communities which became entitled to parliamentary representation under the conditions of franchise applicable to Royal Burghs. Under the Reform Act of 1868 a still further change was effected. Nine Royal Burghs had their representation combined with the counties in which they were situated and two new parliamentary burghs were instituted.

The exclusive privilege of trading sanctioned by immemorial usage and by numerous charters and Acts of Parliament which many Scottish Royal and other burghs possessed, and that, not only within their own limits, but, nominally, at least, in some cases over wide areas, did not cease in law till 14th May, 1846. It had long been an anomaly, and what may at one time have been a necessity of trade had become a hindrance and a nuisance; and the enforcement of the rights of the corporations had slackened or altogether ceased. The corporations themselves had lost their control over the burghs, their power had in every direction waned, and little desire existed to perpetuate a system altogether at variance with modern ideas of commerce and trade. Without agitation or strenuous resistance trading privileges were swept away. Thenceforward the corporations became semi-private associations, holding and administering their properties and revenues for charitable and educational purposes, and now they are comparatively wealthy and
altogether beneficent institutions, well administered and performing with zeal and discretion their charitable functions. Some amount of municipal recog-
nition they yet have in a few towns where Dean of Guild and Convener of Trades are, *ex officiis*, members of Council, but in the main they are only interesting relics of a state of society long passed away.
CHAPTER III

THE BURGHAL HISTORY OF GLASGOW


It has been the fortune of Glasgow in its progress to pass through every variety of burghal life and experience which is open to a Scottish community. Early in the twelfth century, while doubtless a mere hamlet, it became entitled to be called a City by being made the seat of a Bishopric, although it thereby gained no rights beyond the barren title. Under ecclesiastical domination it was constituted a Bishop's Burgh; trading privileges made it a Free Burgh; later, it became a Regality, and, notwithstanding that it developed into the most energetic Protestant and Presbyterian town of Scotland, the heavy hand of the bishops and their successors was not entirely lifted off the municipality till, in 1690, an Act of William and Mary gave the City and its Council full and final power to elect their own magistrates. And lastly, in 1893, Glasgow was erected into a separate County, with the Lord Provost as Her Majesty's representative and Lord-Lieutenant.

There can be no doubt that the site upon which Glasgow grew up was originally included within the bounds over which an exclusive right of trading belonged in David First's time to the Burgh of Rutherglen. Hence it comes that the early experience of the City was that of a vassal and subject community. More than fifty years elapsed after the founding of the See before Glasgow obtained any burghal constitution whatever. In or about 1176, the powerful ecclesiastic, Bishop Joceline, obtained for himself and his successors, for ever, from William the Lion the grant of a burgh with a weekly
market on Thursdays. A further charter, supplementary to this, was in 1190 issued to Joceline, granting to him and his successors a Fair at Glasgow, to be held every year full eight days from the octave of the Apostles Peter and Paul, with all the liberties, provisions, and rights granted to Fairs throughout the king's dominions.

The grant of weekly markets and a Fair to the bishops gave the citizens of Glasgow a certain limited right of trading, which, however, was strictly confined to the bounds of the burgh. This limited concession did not even override the rights of the Burgh of Rutherglen to demand and collect tolls and petty customs within the boundary of the City itself. To free Glasgow from such oppressive exaction, a royal charter was granted by Alexander II. to Bishop Walter, prohibiting the bailies of Rutherglen and their serjeants from demanding toll and custom within the town; and instructing the Rutherglen authorities to collect such ad cruceum de Schodinstun (the Cross of Shettleston) as had been the habit in old times. Next, the liberties of Glasgow were assailed from the side of Dumbarton, which had been erected into a Royal Burgh in 1222, whereby the access of Glasgow to Argyle and the Lennox country was cut off, and again a royal charter was obtained in 1243, under which the burgesses and men of the City of Glasgow were confirmed in their rights of traffic throughout the whole kingdom, without the interference of the bailies of Dumbarton or of any other of the king's bailies. Notwithstanding these and other efforts to secure the unfettered rights of trade to the bishop and his vassals, Glasgow continued to be harassed by the privileges and pretensions of the neighbouring burghs which held superior burghal position. The cry of the oppressed again came up to the Royal ear in 1449, when James II. addressed under the Privy Seal a letter to the Burghs of Rutherglen and Renfrew, strictly prohibiting them from in any way interfering with merchants and merchandise going to and coming from Glasgow, and from exacting any toll or custom within the Barony of Glasgow, and the lands pertaining to St. Mungo's freedom, notwithstanding any letters granted by the king's predecessors to the burghs addressed. The clashing interests of these burghs, however, continued to be a source of frequent contention and ill-blood, and again and again strife arose with Dumbarton over its claims to exact customs from merchandise in the river, and it was not till 1600 that a final decision was given against Dumbarton, limiting its rights to the mouth of the Leven and excluding it from any control over the Clyde.

In the year 1450 a Charter of Regality was issued by James II. over the City, the Barony, and the Bishop's Forest, in favour of the Bishop, William Turnbull, and his successors. The extensive powers in this charter, powers of dubious advantage to the people, were confirmed by James III., in 1476, in a charter conveying the fullest rights and privileges enjoyed by any City, or Burgh of Bishop within the kingdom, with power to appoint and
dismiss provosts, bailies, serjeants and other officers, as may seem to the bishops expedient for the government of their City.

The conditions of the charters making Glasgow a free trading burgh were such as to carry in their train a right to its representation in the estates of Parliament, when that privilege was extended to the third estate; but the right does not appear to have been exercised till the year 1546. That the City was at that time still small and comparatively poor is sufficiently shown by the proportion, which in 1587, Glasgow was expected to pay in every £100 of taxation laid on the Royal and Free Burghs of Scotland. While the proportion to be paid by Edinburgh was rated at £38 2s. 8d., the rate claimed against Glasgow amounted only to £2 13s. 8d.

The Reformation, which swept away the Roman Catholic hierarchy in Scotland, introduced great confusion in the government of Glasgow. In 1559 Archbishop James Beaton withdrew from the See, and from that time on till the final revolution settlement, the superiority of Glasgow was in an anomalous and highly unsatisfactory condition. For considerable periods there was not even a titular or tulchan Archbishop, and taking advantage of the confusion and disorganization of the old authority, the Council attempted to appoint their own magistrates according to the practice of the Royal Burghs. But previous to his abdication Archbishop Beaton had assigned his temporalities, with their powers and privileges, to the Earl of Arran, and the efforts of the magistrates to shake off their superiors did not succeed.

By a charter of James VI., granted in 1600, the Duke of Lennox was infeft in the bailiary and justiciary of the barony and regality of Glasgow with all the heritable rights and privileges which had previously belonged to the Archbishop. The alienation of the temporalities of the Church appears to have again stirred the citizens in the direction of attaining freedom of election of their magistrates, and in the Council Minutes of 4th July, 1605, it is stated that there were “delierit be the baillies and counsale to Mathew Trumble, deane of gild, his Majestie's lettre direct to this burgh for erecting of the samin in ane free burgh regall.”

Acting on the supposed powers in that document, the Council, on 2nd October, elected Sir George Elphinstoune of Blythswood provost for the coming year. Sir George, however, was the provost elected in 1600, and presumably in the intermediate years, on the nomination of the Duke of Lennox, who in the meantime had gone abroad as ambassador to France, leaving instructions in the hands of the Council as to the continuance of the magistrates. The annual election of bailies was made at the same time, a leet of nine names being prepared, but instead of submitting them to the superior according to use and wont, and asking him to appoint therefrom three, the Council itself voted on and elected from the
leet. Great public excitement, dispute, and even rioting arose out of this election, and for its high-handed action, as well as for the riotous behaviour of the citizens, the Council was promptly punished in the succeeding year, when at the time of the election, a letter was received from the King intimating that no provost would be appointed in the meantime, and that it was his will that three bailies named by him should be chosen and elected for the year, unto whose election also the Archbishop of Glasgow had given his consent.

In 1611 a royal charter was granted on the application of the Archbishop, not this time to the Archbishop and his successors only, but to the Magistrates, Council, and Community, erecting the city into a free Royal Burgh unum liberum burgum regalem, but reserving the rights of the Duke of Lennox and his heirs in the office of bailiary and justiciary of the barony and regality and without prejudice to the Archbishop's right of nomination and appointment of magistrates. The charter was confirmed by Parliament in 1612, and in 1633 there was renewed an enactment in similar terms. In 1636 the great charter of Charles I. in favour of Glasgow was issued, in which document the unhappy monarch declares that, to his knowledge and satisfaction, the City had been erected by his noble and worthy predecessors into "ancient Royal Burgh." He therefore confirmed and ratified all former gifts to the Magistrates, Council, and Community of the Burgh, giving this time to them alone and to their successors—no archbishop, duke, or other superior mentioned—the Burgh and City of Glasgow with all the privileges of trade and traffic of merchandise, under the burden of 20 Marks Burgh mail, payable to the Exchequer, and 16 Marks payable to the Archbishop and his successors. But there were still reserved to the Duke of Lennox his special liberties and privileges during the Fair of Glasgow, and his heritable jurisdiction and bailiary over the City.

As a result of the great General Assembly of 1638, held in Glasgow, at which Episcopacy was abolished, the Archbishop fled the country, and when the period for electing magistrates came round, the Town Council found themselves in the situation they had to face, when in 1559 Archbishop Beaton deserted his Episcopal office. The Council Minutes of 1st October, 1639, state that his Majesty and his most noble progenitors had long before erected and incorporated the burgh into a free Royal Burgh, and in virtue thereof they themselves proceeded to elect their own provost and three bailies. But even yet the wish was father to the thought, Glasgow was chartered as a Royal Burgh; but that one function—free election of magistrates—had been specifically withheld. A further instalment of municipal enfranchisement was effected under an Act passed in 1641, by which the King, "considering that Glasgow is now one of the best peopled and pryme burges within the Kingdom," with the advice of the estates and the special consent of James, Duke of Lennox and Richmond,
“who hes the lyke heritable right of the said Archbeshoprike of Glasgow and priviledges therof granted to him as the said vmquhill Lodowike Duke of Lennox and Richmond his vncle had, statutes and ordeanes that the burghe of Glasgow in all tyme comeing, shall have alse free libertie in the electione and choosing of there magistrates yeirly, at the accustomed tymes, as any other burghe within this kingdome of Scotland, with this speciall provisione and conditione, that the proveist, baillies, and counsell of the burghe, and ther successoures shall present yeirlie in all tyme comeing ane leit of three persones to be proveist of the said burght to the said James Duke of Lennox and Richmond and his successoures foirsaid, off the whilke number the said James Duke of Lennox, and his successoures foirsaid, shall nominat one to be proveist for the yeir fallowinge whom they shall be obllest to receave and admit to be ther proveist the same yeir, and authoreize him with all commissioun necessar to that effect, provyding the said Duke of Lennox and his foirsaidis be themselves or ther commisioner be present yeerlie within the said burghe, at the castle which belongs to the Duke and his successoures, the tyme of the electione of ther Magistrates, and in case of ther absence, in that caise it shall be laughfull to them to goe one in the electione of their proveist for that yeir of ther absence allenerly.”

Under these Charters and Acts there is no doubt that Glasgow was entitled to rank as a Royal Burgh, but still the City had not, in full possession, one of the prescriptive prerogatives of a burgh held from the Crown. It was not indeed till the Revolution settlement that Glasgow was fully emancipated from the thrall under which it had so long chafed. In 1690 an Act of Parliament was passed confirming and ratifying a charter of William and Mary, to the effect that the City of Glasgow and Town Council thereof shall have power and privilege to choose their own “magistrats, etc., als fully and als freely, in all respects as the City of Edinburgh, or any other Royal Burgh within the Kingdom enjoys the same.”

In Glasgow, as in other Scottish trading towns, power and position were, from the earliest time, monopolized by those who were strong enough to seize and hold it. What of power and patronage the bishops and their successors delegated, was carefully restricted, at first exclusively to citizens of the merchant rank—a body which cannot have been either exalted or numerous in the sixteenth century. The crafts associated under the powers conveyed by the Scottish Parliament and incorporated by Charters or Seals of Cause from the Town Council, did not willingly allow all power to remain in the merchants’ hands. No sooner were they incorporated than they began to put forward their claims to a full share in municipal dignity and office with at first little success only; but by persistent agitation they succeeded in the end in wresting to themselves a fair proportion of governing privileges. The slender standing they had attained in the later part of the sixteenth
century is shown by the following extract from the Council Minutes of date 5th October, 1574:

"The quhilk daye, my lord prouest requeistit the auld baillies and counsale to suffer certane dekynniss of craftis to be admettit to cum in the counsalhous to stand and heir lytis of the baillies chosin and nominat this yeir, but preuidice of the priuilegis, liberteis, or vse in votying, owther of craftis or merchandis, in ony yeir therefrir, at quhais request the said baillies and auld counsale hes permettit thre dekynniss of craftis to be present in the counsalhous, to stand by, heir, and see the saidis lytis nominat this yeir onelie, sua that induce na practik in tymes therefrir."

It is not marvellous that this meagre privilege of looking on failed to satisfy the bold craftsmen, and their assertion of rights only grew louder and more violent, till in the end the question was submitted to arbitration. The result of the arbitration was the issue of an elaborate award termed 'The Letter of Guildry,' dated 16th February, 1605, which award was approved and sanctioned by the Town Council, and long afterwards, in 1672, was ratified by Act of Parliament. Under this letter a Guildry was for the first time instituted in Glasgow. It was presided over by a Dean of Guild, elected yearly by the Town Council from a leet of three names—the retiring Dean and two others—prepared and sent up by equal numbers of merchants and craftsmen assembled for such nomination. The Dean of Guild's Council consisted of four merchants and four craftsmen and the duties and privileges of the Dean and his Court are elaborately set forth. The letter further provided for the election of a Deacon Convener or head of all the crafts-rank, who, in virtue of his office, was ordained to be an ordinary member of the Town Council, and for a Visitor of the Maltmen. The method of nomination and election by the Town Council of these functionaries with their respective duties and rights are also laid down in detail in the 'Letter of Guildry.' Although that document does not prescribe any further change in the constitution of the Council, yet its outcome was a complete revolution in the membership. Following on it, in 1606, there were admitted to the Council twelve of the merchant rank and eleven craftsmen, "conform," so says the Minute, "to his Hienes' will." But, notwithstanding the royal sanction, the merchants' representatives protested against the admittance of such a large proportion of craftsmen, as being against the laws of the realm and the custom of Burghs, whilst the victorious craftsmen on their part protested that the choosing of the present number of bailies and Council shall not be prejudicial to their claim of equal representation. In the following year the Council was elected in the same proportions, and like protests from both sides were again lodged. The "set" of the Burgh on this basis received the sanction of the Convention of Royal Burghs in 1611.

During all the time that this long struggle for municipal emancipation was in progress, it is obvious that great power over the citizens of Glasgow
rested in the autocratic hands of the bishops, archbishops, and their successors. They had, until 1636 at least, absolute control over the election of the provost and magistrates, a control which was only limited by a certain regard to use and wont, and towards the end a good deal impaired by the disorganization of the See, the weakness of the Episcopacy, and the ecclesiastical and civil strifes and storms of the times. The provost and bailies, on their part, had like unfettered control over the municipality; and of popular election there was not a vestige. The Council was weak and circumscribed in its functions, and entirely the creature of the magistrates by whom it was, from year to year, appointed.

The use and wont of the constitution of a magistrature and Council in the sixteenth century may be illustrated by the following extract from the Council Minutes of 15th October, 1574, being the earliest extant Glasgow record of that proceeding:

"The court of the burght and citie of Glasgw, for the creatioun and presenting of lytis for the baillies and provest, be ane nobill lord Robert lord Boyd, George Elphinstoun, Archibald Lioun, and James Flemyng, auld baillies, haldin in the tolbuyth thairof, the fyft daye of October the yeir of God jm v Gx lx fourtene yeiris."

"The quhilk daye, the auld baillies and counsale ordanit ane commissioun to be made and selit to ane noble lord Robert lord Boyd, of the office of provestrie of the said burght and citie for this yeir to cum quhill Michaelmes nixtocum, conforme to vse and wont, and that accordind to my lord archibishop of Glasgw, nominatione of him, contenit in ane writting subscriuit be his hand, quhilk the said lord Boyd producit and desyrit to be registrat in their buikis, of the quhilk letter the tenour followis.—We, James, be the mercie of God, archibishop of Glasgw, vnderstandyng the habilitie and qualificatioun of ane noble lord Robert lord Boyd, baillie of oure barone of Glasgu in ministratioun of justice wrychtlie to all persounes, and that the office of provestrie of the burcht and citie of Glasgw has newir or seyndill ben separatit in sundry persounes handis fra the baillierie of our baronie foirsaid, thairfore, and for sundry considerationes moving ws, we have nominat and presentit, as be the tenoure heirof nominatis and presentis the said noble lorde Robert lorde Boyd provest of our said burght and citie of Glasgw for this instant yeir tocum, and siclyk yeirlie in all tymes cumyng heireftir following, incaise it plese him to accept the samyn on him, during all the dayis of our lyftime, wissing and desyryng the baillies counsale and communite of oure said citie present and to cum, to geve, seill, and deliuer to him thair commissioun of the said office of provestrie, conforme to vse and wont, for this instant yeir, and siclyk yeirlie at Michaelmes in tymes cumyng duryng oure livetyme gif he will accept the samyn as said is, and this our present nominatioun, irreocable to be obscurit be ws, to all and sundry quhome effeiris we mak knawin be thir presentis
subscrewyit with our hand, at Glasgow, the fyft daye of October, the yeir of God j\textsuperscript{m} v\textsuperscript{c} threscoir fourtene yeiris, befor thir witnes, maister Andro Haye, persoone of Renfrew, maister William Scott, and maister Henry Gibsoun, etc. The prouest has resaunt the originale heirof in presens of the baillies and haill counsale."

"Lytil lytit be the prouest, baillies, and auld counsale, to be presentit to my lord archibishop of Glasgw for nemmyng of twa or thre of thame in baillies for this instant yeir to cum, requessting allways my lord to nominat thre in respect of the multitude of the peple and trubles in office.— George Elphinstoun, Archibald Lyoun, James Flemyng, auld baillies, maister Adame Wallace, William Conyughame, Johne Flemyng, merchand, Johne Wilsoun, pewderar, James Braidwood, cordiner. Qhilkis lytit being presentit that samyn instant daye to my lord archibishop of Glasgw, and the request foirsaid maid to him, he nominat baillies for this instant yeir, George Elphinstoun, Archibald Lyoun, maister Adam Wallace."

On the following day, the 6th of October, the newly-appointed provost and baillies took the oath for leal and true administration, and with the old baillies proceeded to choose the Council, which, that year, consisted of fourteen members. At the same meeting there were appointed five lyners, a water-bailie and other officers of the Council.

On the 19th of August, 1637, following on the charters of the preceding years, a new series of statutes for the appointment of a Council was framed. In the preamble it is observed that "considering and understanding that thir maney and divers yeiris bygane thair hes been no constant cours observit anent the qualitie and number of the persones who electit the counsell of this brughe"; therefore, to obviate the evils and inconveniences arising from such irregularities, it was concluded and ordained that in all future times there should be twelve persons to elect the Council. The twelve were to be the newly-appointed provost and three baillies, the out-going provost and his three baillies, and the provost and three baillies of the immediately preceding year. It was provided that should any of these be absent from sickness or out of town, or in cases where the same person had more than one year occupied office, then the available remnant were to elect as many persons "as shall happen to be wanting of the full number, of the same qualitie of the absentis, whither they be merchandis or craftsmen," but for a lawful election the full number of twelve electors must always be made up. Under this arrangement the Council was constituted of a provost, nominated by the Archbishop, two merchandis and one craftsman bailie selected by the Archbishop from a leet of six merchants and three craftsmen submitted by the Council, and of thirteen merchants and twelve craftsmen councillors, elected by the electoral college of twelve as above specified. At a subsequent meeting the Dean of Guild, Deacon-Convener, City Treasurer, and Water-Bailie were elected. The set of the burgh was modified in 1801 by an
Act of the Convention of Royal Burghs, under which the number of bailies was increased to five, three being of the merchant rank and two from the trades; but the total membership of the Council was unaltered, the new bailies being withdrawn from members, the merchant councillors, and trades' councillors respectively. The municipality continued to be so constituted till the Reform Act of 1833 opened up the Council to popular election. Under the provisions of that Act the City was divided into five districts, each returning six members, which, with the Dean of Guild and the Deacon-Convenor ex-officio, made up a Council of thirty-two members. From this number the Council elected a Lord Provost, five bailies, a water-bailie, and his depute and a bailie of Provan, besides other officials.

The ancient royalty within which these Charters and Acts of Parliament were operative only was a comparatively restricted area, measuring 1768 acres, situated entirely on the north side of the river, and it is only within the present century that that area has been gradually enlarged by local enactments. The royalty was in 1800 extended over a portion of the Barony Parish, equal to 96 acres, and in 1830 the jurisdiction of the burgh was extended over the lands of Blythswood, thereby adding 296 acres to the municipality. In 1832 the parliamentary boundary of the City was extended so as to include the regality of Gorbals on the south side of the river and the burghs of Calton to the east, and Anderston to the west. The Gorbals was a very ancient Barony and Regality, the superiority of which was, in 1601, conveyed by the Archbishop of Glasgow to Sir George Elphinstone, who was provost of the City in 1605. The successors of Sir George, in 1647, disposed of the superiority to the Magistrates and Town Council of Glasgow, who thereby came to occupy the peculiar position of imposing a magistracy on the Gorbals, a yoke which they themselves had so long struggled against, and from which they had not yet altogether escaped. For 200 years the Gorbals, a burgh without burgesses, corporate rights, or exclusive privileges was administered, and its magistrates were appointed, by its superiors, the Town Council of Glasgow. In November, 1846, this anomalous condition came to an end under an Act of Parliament, whereby the royalty of Glasgow was made conterminous with its parliamentary bounds. Under that Act the Gorbals and other lands south of the river, the burgh of Anderston erected into a Barony in 1824, the burgh of Calton chartered in 1817, Bridgeton and other contiguous territories were included within the municipality. By that extension the area of the Burgh was considerably more than doubled. An addition of 213 acres had been made under the Police Act of 1843, which brought the total area up to 2373 acres, to which the 1846 Act added no fewer than 3299 acres, bringing municipal control over 5672 acres. By the provisions of the same Act the Glasgow Police Board, which had been in existence separate from the Town Council since 1800, was abolished, its functions being merged in the Town Council qua
Police Board. The City was divided into sixteen wards, each returning three
members to the Town Council, and these, with the Dean of Guild and
the Deacon-Convener, made up a Town Council of fifty members, out of
which number eight bailies were elected. Excepting an increase in the
number of bailies to ten under the Glasgow Municipal Act of 1872, no
other change in the constitution of the Council was made till the passing of
the great annexation Act (City of Glasgow Act, 1891), which raised the
number of councillors and magistrates to the present limit.

In the Scottish estates of Parliament, Glasgow had the privilege of repre-
sentation from 1546 onwards; but in terms of the Act of Union in 1707
the City was combined with its old enemies, Rutherglen, Renfrew, and
Dumbarton, for the return of one member to the Imperial Parliament.
Each of these Royal Burghs had a vote for their parliamentary representative,
the respective councils appointing a delegate, and each burgh was in rotation
the returning burgh—the representative of which had a casting vote in case
of an equality of votes. It is easy to understand that the appointment of
a delegate, entrusted with such extensive powers, was in every instance the
occasion of much wire pulling and manoeuvring on the part of those interested
in securing the seat. Under the Reform Act of 1832 the City itself became
entitled to two representatives. By the Act of 1868 an additional member
was given to Glasgow, which thereby became a three-cornered constituency.
And so matters continued till the passing of the Redistribution of Seats
Act of 1885, when the City was formed into seven parliamentary divisions—
Bridgeton, Camlachie, St. Rollox, Central, College, Trongate, and Black-
friars and Hutchesontown, each returning a member to Parliament. The
same enactment also formed the suburban parliamentary constituencies of
Govan, East Renfrewshire, and Partick. By the City of Glasgow (1891)
Act, the municipal bounds were extended beyond the parliamentary limits,
and parts of the municipality are now embraced in the constituencies of
Partick and East Renfrewshire, instituted under the Redistribution Act. By
small additions in 1872 and in 1878 the municipal area had been increased
to 6111 acres, and by the Act of 1891 that area was again nearly doubled—
the total (with 119 acres for the bed of the Clyde not reckoned in previous
measurements) now being 11,861 acres.
CHAPTER IV

LOCAL GOVERNMENT IN THE SEVENTEENTH CENTURY


To reconstruct the municipal activities of a day in Glasgow about the early part of the seventeenth century would be a task both interesting and instructive were the materials for such a picture available. It is much to be regretted that we have no West of Scotland Pepys, no recorder of the trifles of daily occurrence and recurrence apparently insignificant yet so full of significance for the delineation of the life, habits, and thoughts of people. An immortal portrait we possess of a Glasgow Magistrate of a century later, but the Bailie Nicol Jarvie of Sir Walter Scott is rather a man than a magistrate; and his exploits and adventures have little relation to the duties which pertained to the office and dignity of which he was the proud possessor. For the details of our picture we have only the dry official Minutes of the Town Council on which to found, accurate and reliable doubtless, but rarely lifting up even a corner of the curtain which shrouds the social life of the people over whom the Council ruled.

"Ruled" we say advisedly, for it was rule more than service that was the function of the seventeenth century Council, and herein is the fundamental distinction of the municipal government of the seventeenth and nineteenth centuries. The Town Council of the seventeenth century was not in any sense the servant of the community, and although they rendered services good and indispensable, these were performed in the spirit of lord and ruler rather than as duties confided by fellow-citizens to their fellows.
for the common weal. The Magistrates and Council of the present day are their lawful successors in direct and uninterrupted line, they have in many ways the same duties to discharge, the same rights and privileges to enjoy, but the times have indeed changed and the men have changed with them. The traditions of the old days have been lost, the methods of rule have been changed, and the spirit and aims of the present day are utterly and entirely dissimilar from those which animated the municipal magnates of the seventeenth century.

At any time the government and management of a town containing only eight or ten thousand persons is a very different and a much more simple task than is the control of a community of three-quarters of a million, and still more striking and dissimilar must be the work when the great City has the complex organization and needs which belong to the end of the nineteenth century, while the small population had been ruled according to the ideas and methods of the seventeenth century. Our modern experience and methods therefore give us little help towards reconstructing the conditions of the period we would fain picture. A town pleasant to behold, from without at least, Glasgow must have been, in the days when James VI. was king. Under the sun of a summer day, looked at from the south side of the river, it was seen to straggle in gentle ascent from the ancient bridge up to the great metropolitan kirk and the Bishop's Castle. The air was pure and clear, the Molendinar stream, limpid and bright, hurried down its romantic gorge, lending its flow to move the primitive machinery of the city mills, and rushing on added its tribute to the equally sweet waters of the Clyde from which many lordly salmon and lusty trout were drawn.

At this time the City consisted in effect of four streets. The Saltmarket and High Street formed a continuous line from near the bridge upwards, in a north-easterly direction, to the Cathedral and the Bishop's Castle. This line was intersected at the Cross by the Trongate running westward, and the Gallowgate going towards the east. From the line of these four main streets there ran backward certain minor lanes, vennels and closes, and near the Cathedral the subsidiary streets, the Rottenrow and the Drygate, intersected the High Street. The City was unwalled and unfortified, but by its several "ports" and gates its approaches were easily controlled, and the coming and going of burgesses, of traders, and of strangers could be checked by the magistrates. There were to the City four principal gates or ports, to the north beyond the Cathedral was Stable Green Port, the south port towards the Bridge was called Nether Barrasgett, the Gallowgate port gave access to the east, and to the west was the Trongate port. Besides these there were minor exits at the Rottenrow, the Drygate, and Greyfriars, and further there were certain private doors at garden ends and back-yetts of citizens. At the corner of the High Street and Trongate stood the
ancient Tolbooth, both prison and Council Hall, and there also was the Market Cross and the official and commercial centre of the City. In this neighbourhood were the various public markets, the *crames* of woollen goods merchants being to one side of the Cross, those selling linen on the other. At the Cross stood the stocks in which the limbs of minor offenders were locked, while they endured the scoffs, jeers, and insults of the populace; the gallows was a permanent erection in the Loan leading to the Ramshorn, jongs were provided for blasphemous women, these being "sett up upon the Goves—the base of the stocks—gangand up three or four fut-stepis," and erected, we are told, at the sight of the master of works "sure and substantious so that they be nocht riven doun and carryt away be evil doaris." Branks also were provided for the jaws of pestilent and scolding females. The common hangman, who was a pardoned thief and robber, had the frequent and congenial task of whipping offenders through the streets, and thereafter bringing them, lashed in body and of repentant mind, to the Cross to make public confession of their evil deeds, and afterwards his duty may have been to cast them without the City bounds.

The town is said by visitors who came to it at a somewhat later period to have been clean of aspect, neatly and handsomely built; but these must be taken as relative terms, for the statutes from time to time issued by the Council regarding middens and heaps of "fulzie" on the public streets do not indicate conditions which accord with modern ideas of cleanliness, and the handsome and spacious buildings spoken of were certainly mean and poor compared with the erections of then thriving continental towns. That the ideas of cleanliness entertained in Scottish burghs generally in 1608 were primitive is indicated by the proceedings of the Convention of Burghs held that year at Selkirk. The King had addressed a letter to the Convention dealing with the laying down of middens or "fulzie" upon the streets of towns, which, it said, "is nocht only uncumlie and incivill, but lykwaysis verie dangerous in tyme of plaig and pestilence, and verie infective of itself." The royal letter further dealt with the permitting of swine to roam freely within burghs, and on these subjects the Convention passed certain enactments, which were duly forwarded to and considered by the Glasgow Council. In their turn they enacted and ordained "that na maner of fulize be laid vpone the foirgait nor pairt of this bruche in tyme cuming, vnder the pain and penaltie of fuve lib., to be tain of ilk persoune quha contemnis and contravenis his Hienes wil and pleasour, act of burrowis, and this present act and statute sett doun heiranten, and escheitting of thair fulzie, and that all the fulize, biecand and lying presentlie vpone the said gait and clossis be removit within the space of xv dayis, vnder pain foirsaid and escheitting of thair fulize to ane commoun vse, and lykwaysis statutis and ordanis that na maner of swyne be hadin lows within this bruche or burrow ruidis, or fund in ony nychtbouris skathe in tyme cuming, vnder the pain of ten lib.
to be tain of the awner and escheiting of thame to ane commoun vse, and that na watterit lint be dryt or handlit on the gait onder the pain foirsaid."

The ordinary statutory functions of the Council throw some light on the simple food and drink of the people. The statutes, yearly renewed, embraced the fixing for the year of the price at which the common food and drink of the populace shall be sold, the price of tallow, and the conditions under which that substance was to be trafficked in, the persons entitled to make and traffic in candles, and the price at which they should be sold. Ale, the staple drink of the people, was to be no dearer than a certain sum per pint, and the same was to be "kingis aill and werraye guid," and to secure its "guidness" tasters were appointed for each district, whose duty was to pass round weekly, taste its quality, and see that it was made and sold by free persons only. The fourpenny loaf was ordained to weigh so many ounces, "guid and sufficient stuff weill bakin," and the duty of maintaining its quality and guaranteeing its weight was laid on the Deacon of the Baxteris. Tallow was not to pass out of the town in great quantity till after Faustrenes evein—Shrove Tuesday—a provision for the dark evenings of the winter; it was to be sold at a specified price per stone, and candles at a stated price per lb. were to be "small wickeit and weill tallownit"; all flesh and fish were to be presented in the market, and fleshers were prohibited from buying "deid flesche" to sell again. Malt and bere were to be sold under specified conditions, visitors were appointed to see that these conditions were observed; a member of the Council with an officer was deputed to visit the meal market, and it was a duty of the Council officers to pass through the town daily to take trial of and punish all persons blaspheming the name of God.

That the relationship of the magistracy and citizens was not that of mutual confidence, respect, and esteem we have many evidences. The year 1608 was one of great difficulties and trouble to the magistrates; they had to wrestle with a great accumulation of debt and with importunate creditors, and they were compelled in order to raise a revenue to resort to methods and imposts which were obviously unpopular. A spirit of disaffection was abroad, and in September the Council had to take the restive humour of the people into serious consideration. After weighing and considering "the manifold contemptis done to the magistratis, and breking of ward be sindry personis of this towne, and that the fauour schawin to siklyk personis in suffering thame to keip table in the laiche Tolbuithe is occasioun of the foirsaid contempt, thairfoir hes statuit and ordanit that na sik contempteous personis in tyme cuming be permittit to keip table in the laiche Tolbuithe."

An overt act of rebellion came up for judgment within little more than two weeks after the passing of this statute, when Robert M'Gill, obviously a Master of Arts, for he was called Maister Robert, was convened before the "Provost, Baillies, and Counsell," charged with resisting James Inglis,
Bailie, in the execution of his office, drawing on him a dagger and calling him "a deboschit swingour" and threatening to put "ane quhinger through his cheikis." This was "murmuring a judge" with a vengeance. It appears by the record that while the bailie was passing up the gait he most peaceably commanded Thomas Patirsoun, who had broken his ward, to pass again into ward. To that Thomas readily answered, "Sir, I will willinglie obey the same." But Robert, who was in his company, interposed, "He sall nocht pas to ward," and then, notwithstanding the repeated offer of Thomas to willinglie obey, Robert broke out, drew his dagger, swore the bailie was a "deboschit skybell," and, with many other blasphemous words, resisted authority. All this was duly testified to by the witness of James Young, Mr. Alexander Rowat, Minister; Mr. Alexander Hamilton, and Alexander Logan, Trumpmaker, who, working in his own booth, saw the fracas, and by three others. In the mouths of so many witnesses the heinous offence was proved to the hilt, and Robert McGill was put in the custody of four responsible citizens, to be brought up for judgment "the morne at nyne hours." At that hour the next day, "the provest, bailleis, and counsell, being convenit to consult and advys vpone the heiche contempt and injurie done be Robert Makgill to James Inglis, Bailie, . . . after matur advys and deliberatioun had of the foirsaid contempt and injurie done be the said Robert as saidis, and quhhow the sam is nocht only done against the saidis magistratis bot to the contempt and ignominie of the provest, remenant bailleis, and counsell of the toun, and will give evil exemple to vtheris the lyk insolent personis to commit the lyk gif the same be nocht condignlie punischit, thairfuir fynis, vnlawis, and decernis, and ordanis the said Robert McGill to pay to the thesaurer of this toun, to be impoyit to the commoun werkis and effairis thairof, the soume of ane hundrythe pundis mony, and to be banischit this burghe and citie for the space of sevin yeir efter the dait heirof, and to be pwt in the yrnis to remain in the sam during the said James Inglis will; and last to cum fra the place quhair he contempnit the said baillie to the croce, bair fittit and bair heiddit, and vpone his kneyis to delyver the dager be the point to the said baillie and to ask God mercie and the said baillie forgifnes for his great offence; and to remain in ward quhill he find sufficient catioun for fulfilling of this thair decreit, and to find catioun that he sall nocht truble nor molest na maner of inhabitant and burges of this toun in tym cuming, directlie nor indirectlie, vtherwaysis nor be ordour of law, vnder the pain of the soum of fyve hundrythe merkis money."

These and other like incidents about the beginning of the seventeenth century make it manifest that the relations of the magistrates and citizens were in a state of considerable tension. The temper of the populace may be gathered also from the proclamation made by sound of drum on the order of the "Provest, baillies, and Counsele," but at the instigation of the ministry against "Cokalandis." A "Cokaland," it appears, was a species of squib or satire,
which, about this period—1608—must have been in extensive use and circulation in Scottish burghs, for, in the next year, there was passed an Act of Parliament directed to the suppression and punishment of such Cokalands. Any person having or finding any Cokaland was ordained immediately to present the same to the "Provost, or ony of the bailleis, or at leist to sum of the ministrie" under pain of being held the maker, or at least the publisher of the pestilent, profane, and insolent document.

The reformed clergy were by no means disinclined to interfere in the government of the City, although they had not the point of vantage and the powers which belonged to their episcopal predecessors. At an earlier period they had obtained magisterial sanction to a statute prohibiting the practice of "ryotus baneatyng at bridals, at the baptizing of children, or at upsitting"—the waking the dead. The three great crises of human existence, birth, marriage, and death, were at that remote period, and clerical and magisterial denunciation notwithstanding, they continued long to be occasions for much unseemly excess and "ryotus" banqueting.

The City, as we have said, was burdened with an intolerable load of debt, notwithstanding that more than once large slices of the common lands had been disposed of by the magistrates for the relieving of their necessities, contrary to law and in face of the protests of craftsmen burgesses. The expedients to which the authorities were obliged to resort, in order to increase their revenue and to stave off the evil day, no doubt account to some extent for their unpopularity, and for the factious attitude of the populace. In view of a contemplated attempt to be made to produce present relief by increased future obligations, the Provost, Bailies, and Council in January, 1608, for their own security concluded and ordained that all bonds granted by them for borrowed "siluir" "befoir or heirefter, sall only astrict thame during their offices, and sik as succesidis to thame in office, to warrand and relieff thame of all charges may be usit against thame." This official security does not appear to have been sufficient to induce lenders to add to the already intolerable burden of municipal obligations, and a month afterwards the Council had again to confer and reason on the debt awin be the toune, and they next tried to pledge their entire revenues for a certain number of years, to raise 9000 merks towards the discharging of their most pressing obligations.

The revenues of the City at this period were derived from certain ground annuals, some small rentals or maills for booths in the Tolbooth, and other town property, from petty imposts on provisions and raw materials entering the town, called the Customs of the Ladles, from the toll of custom of the bridge, from the multures or profits of the mills which were city property, from the fines or fees on entry of burgess freemen, and from the "unlaws" or penalties of the Courts. Of these sources of revenue the most important were the ladles and the mills. The custom of the ladle
was, under a local name, an ancient exaction which Glasgow in common with other Scottish Burghs had under its charters and under Parliamentary sanction. The term ladle given to this impost is due to the fact that in its original form the magistrates were entitled to get from every sack of grain brought into the City the fill of a certain measure or ladle. The tax was so arranged at a period when, with many persons, payment in kind was an easier if rougher proceeding than payment in coin; but at an early date the right was commuted for a money payment according to a definite tariff. Glasgow had two ladle imposts which were separately farmed out each year, the "Victual" ladle and the Salt and "Linget" (flax) ladle. The duties exigible were collected on all manner of farm produce, fish, flesh, lint, and salt, and ordinary local raw products coming to market into the town. The Casualties of the Bridge, spoken of at the end of the sixteenth century as the "new gift given to the brig," was apparently a special impost on victual, timber, hides, fish, etc., arriving by water, for the maintenance of that structure. In the year 1608 Ninian Anderson, Deacon Convener, who had been tacksman of the impost for the preceding year, had £40 out of a total of 515 merks rent remitted to him, because of the "vehement frost quhairby the river of Clyd wes closit be the space of xvj vulkis," during which long period no herring could be brought to the bridge, and herring it was that formed the principal item of revenue under the gift of the brig.

By the farming of these casualties a definite annual revenue was secured to the town, and doubtless also a very comfortable income was in general obtained by the tacksmen, who appear to have been by preference members of the Council, for in those good old days self-denying ordinances were not among the statutory obligations of Councillors. Doubtless the various tacksmen would look sharply enough after their individual interests, and the imposts must have been vexatious and tyrannical in the highest degree, a very unfair and unequal burden, collected in a wasteful and, for the public, expensive manner. To secure the customs' duty on all traffic, to prevent dodging and smuggling, the Council were perpetually engaged in framing regulations and in issuing statutes, the effect of each being to increase the impediments to the current of trade, and to create new causes of irritation and annoyance. Everything dutiable had to be presented on the special market or stance appropriated to the particular class of goods on days appointed, and at and between fixed hours under severe penalties for "ilk silt"; and it was the duty of the bailies to "visie" the markets, attended by a town officer, and to see that the multifarious regulations enacted were duly regarded.

Next to the ladles the most important source of public revenue was the mills for grinding malt, grain, and other victual for the use of the inhabitants. Previous to 1608 it appears there had been competing mills, and the people were at liberty to have their meal ground where they pleased. In their ex-
tremity the Council fell on the device of sukening or thirling the citizens to the mills in their own hands, in order that they might thereby have something to sell for the relief of their debt. To accomplish this thilage it was necessary for the Council to provide sufficient milling power, and to buy up or suppress the rights of other mill-owners who could compete with them. The mills of the town at this period were two—the Auld Toune Mill and the New Mill, both on the Molendinar Water. From the Archbishop of Glasgow the Council acquired the mill at Partick, and from the laird of Mynho the, mills on the Molendinar known as the Subdean’s Mills, which consisted of “twaw wattir milvis and ane man milve.” So provided the Council were of opinion that they had “sufficient gangand mylins upon wattir and wattir gang to serve the hail inhabitants for grinding of all manir of stuff to their usis, als well, als thankfullie, and als guid chaipe as they ar servit presentlie,” which conditions were essential to the sukening. Therefore on 9th April, 1608, the Provost, Bailies, and Council, with the advice and consent of the Dean of Guild and Guildry and the Deacons and Crafts, “condiscendit, concludit, and aggreit, all in ane voce, that the hail inhabitantis browsteris within this towne, but excepitoune, and all vther handleris and trifiqueris with wictuell be suknit and thirit to thair awin towne mylins in all tyme cuminge, withe this provisoun that the inhabitantis and friemen of this towne be als guid, chaipe, and als thankfullie servit as thei war of before be sufficient mylnis and servandis thairintill.”

Having so far put their house in order the Council felt themselves in a position to go into the market as a seller. In several ways they had already tried ineffectually to raise the wind, and now, in the hope of getting quit of 9000 merks of pressing debt, they agreed to offer three alternative schemes to the speculative public. They were prepared to set the entire Common Good of the City—all the ordinary municipal revenue for a fixed number of years—for the relief of the debt, receiving so much yearly out of the proceeds for carrying on the common affairs of the town, or they would set the mills and the ladies for certain years, seeking no payment to the town beyond the discharge of the debt; and failing either plan, then the mills and the sukin thereof were to be set for a yearly duty. In the end the mills and the ladies were set for a period of five years for a yearly payment of 4400 merks, and the Custom and Casualty of the Bridge was set for 500 merks. That the magistrates still remained in money difficulties, notwithstanding the increased income they came into receipt of, is evident from the fact that, in February next, they had to borrow from a private citizen £100 to pay their share of the printing of the book Regiam Majestatem, for which debt they were under danger of horning.

But these do not exhaust the troubles of the unfortunate and impecunious magistrates of Glasgow. On three separate occasions within a year the inhabitants were stented or assessed for the raising of money for national
and special services. Stenting, or the imposition of direct taxation, although a lawful and available means for raising revenues either for local purposes or for payment to the Crown, was not, it is obvious, in favour with magistrates nor with the citizens; and it was not resorted to, nor even suggested, for the relief of local difficulties of this period. According to the law the direct taxation of citizens by stenting was permissible only when the Common Good of the burgh was insufficient to meet local necessities. For the imposition of the tax it was prescribed that public intimation should be made to the whole inhabitants by tuck of drum, and they being assembled at time and place prescribed, the cause and amount of the stent should be intimated; and that stent masters should be appointed whose duty it was to make up the stent-roll of the inhabitants, showing the amount for which each person was, in accordance with his ability, stented. It is easy to see that these arrangements give ample scope for inquisitorial proceedings, for much irritation and a good deal of petty tyranny and unequal exaction. The office of stenter was not a pleasant one to a sensitive mind, and the Council found it necessary, in view of the imposition of a stent about the close of 1607, to enact "for eschewing of all sclandring of the saidis stenteris be evill disposit and sclandrus personis within this towne quha vsis to speik sclandurslie aganst the stenteris, it is statut and ordanit be the provist, balleis, and counsele that gif ony persoun traduce or sklandir ony of the saidis stenteris or ony of thame for setting downe the said stent roll, they sall pay ten pund to the commowne vse of the calsay."

Thirty stentors thus protected against slanderous tongues were elected to prepare a stent-roll to raise 700 merks (£510)—being for the second of three annual payments to the Crown—the City's proportion of 400,000 merks, granted to the King by a Parliament held at Perth, and £125 0s. 6d., Glasgow's share of a grant made by the Convention of Burghs to Dumbarton "for help of thair towne fra danger of the wattir." Half a year thereafter an outbreak appears to have occurred in what is indefinitely termed the "Isles," and the City was called upon to provide both commissariat and men towards reducing the Isles to order. Thirty "hagbutters" were mustered by the town, and these warriors were supplied with such warlike weapons and armour as could be borrowed from fellow-citizens; each private received £15 of pay, and the two superior officers £18 and £20 respectively. Towards the out-reiking of this small company the town was stented for £500. £100 0s. 5d. fell to be raised for provisions for the expedition, and £120 10s. had to be provided for Glasgow's share of the debts being discharged by the Convention of Burghs, in all the City had now to raise £721 10s. 5d. Scots. The men of war returned from the Isles in October following, and their commander, James Stirling, had the gratification of producing before the Council a testimonial from Andrew, Lord Ochiltree, testifying to the diligence and care of the said James in the King's service. But, alas,
there came at the same time also the necessity for providing a further sum for the expenses of sending out and bringing home the Glasgow contingent, and for the third time within the year a stent—this time for £600—had to be imposed. The third payment was made slowly and unwillingly, and on the 26th November the Council had to send the drum through the town warning all persons to pay within a week, “under pain of double stent.”

And yet there were graver troubles than debts and money difficulties to afflict the magistrates of Glasgow in 1608. Ever and anon there came from the outer world the news that the dreaded plague or pest had appeared, and as the dark cloud approached the city gates a great fear fell upon the people. Their sanitary precautions were few and ineffective, preventive medicine did not exist, and curative skill was powerless in presence of the deadly infection. Isolation of the City was first attempted, and when that first line of defence has failed, then isolation of the cases was ordained. Early in September the fateful news was received that the towns of Perth, Dundee, Kinghorn, and Burntisland were visited by the plague, and immediately the order was issued that no person be received into the town from those places without the knowledge of the magistrates, and no one was to go to any suspected place without magisterial license. The four ports of the City were to be kept night and day. The statutes issued at an earlier date (1574), when a visitation of the plague, then raging in Leith and outbroken also in Edinburgh, show the deadly terror inspired by it. All intercourse and traffic with suspected places was prohibited under pain of death. The four ports of the town were to be continually watched, they were to be locked at evening, and the keys delivered to the bailies; the minor ports at Rottenrow, Drygate, and Greyfriars were to “stand lockit.” At the peril of his life every indweller was to see that no stranger entered the City by his yard-end. Strangers and travellers could be received into the City only under the authority of the provost and bailies, and on showing a satisfactory certificate of whence they came. Pipers, fiddlers, minstrels, and other vagabonds were allowed to remain within the gates only on obtaining special magisterial permission; of beggars, only natives of the City were to remain under any condition, all others being ordered to clear out within twenty-four hours, under pain of burning on the cheek. All cases of sickness were to be reported instantly to appointed searchers, who were instructed to search the districts twice a-day, and every dead body was to be immediately reported, and sighted by special visitors before being “wyndit.”

Under a dread which can be paralleled only by a cholera scare in a continental city at the present time the autumn days of 1608 shortened towards winter in Glasgow. When night fell there was little light in the houses, and in the streets there were no illuminant other than the friendly moon. All labour and trafficking ceased with sundown; the cattle had been brought
in from the common lands, which yet remained under care of the town's herds. All peace-loving citizens sought their own dwellings, and a profound silence reigned in the deserted streets of the carefully warded City. But even then the silence was now and again broken by reckless roysterers, and by the flitting abroad of the prowlers, who love the darkness rather than the light. To control these the magistrates were impelled to issue an edict, which goes on to state that "certen insolent and prophain personis walkis in the nycht tyme vpone the calsie, abusing thame selfis and the nychtbouris of the toun, and gif the samen be nocht stayit great inconvenient may follow thairvpone heirefter, thairfoir it is defendit and forbiddin that na maner of persoun be fund walking vpone the calsie efster ten houris and efster the ringing of the ten hour bellis, vnder the pain of ten lib. and prissoning of thair personis at the discretioun of the magistratis, and this act be proclamit; attour gif ony the said nychtwalkeris beis callengit be the magistratis or be the wache and makis recistance, to be moir rigorouslie punishit be the sycht and discretioun of the saidis magistratis."
CHAPTER V.

THE FORMER MASTERS OF THE COUNCIL: THE GUILDRY.


The Gildry, or Guildry of Glasgow—under which term we include both the Merchants and the Crafts Incorporations, the entire body of freemen burgesses which, previous to the passing of the Burgh Reform Act, were the masters of the Council—consists of two separate "houses" or bodies—the Merchants' House and the Trades' House. The former is presided over by the Dean of Guild, and the Trades' House has for its chief the Deacon Convener. The Merchants' House is the Merchants' Guild, and in the days of its power consisted of burgess merchants or traders within the City, "foreign or domestic, wholesale or retail, of a fair character," who engaged to pay a certain entry-money and annual subscription to the House. The Trades' House is a representative body composed of delegates sent in certain fixed proportions from the Incorporated Trades of the City. The fourteen incorporations, in their turn, are possessed of separate and independent powers, and administer their own property under statutory provisions without the interference or supervision of any superior authority. They were, at various dates, incorporated by "Seal of Cause," or Charter granted by the magistrates of the City, and they take precedence according to the date of the charter under which they exist.

For admission to the membership of the Merchants' House and all its privileges, it is not in recent times necessary to become a burgess of the
City; nor indeed is it now essential for membership that the applicant belong to the merchant class; professional men and all others being eligible for membership. It has been questioned whether the Dean of Guild is legally entitled to his seat in the Town Council, since the body by whom he is elected does not consist exclusively of burgesses entered and enrolled as by ancient usage. On the other hand, it is a condition precedent to the admission of members of the fourteen Incorporations that the candidates shall be enrolled burgesses of the City. Consequently the Incorporations are now the only pure and exclusive bodies of ancient burghees existing, as membership of the very Town Council itself no longer requires the preliminary condition of entry into the burgess roll of the City.

Previous to the passing of the Burgh Reform Act in 1833, the relationship of these bodies to the Town Council was, as we have already seen, very close and intimate. The Council was exclusively elected from them, and the Merchants and Corporations thus held in their hands the fortunes of both the Council and the community. From this comparatively limited body of eligible freemen, the Council, from time immemorial, had been annually elected by a small electoral court of present and past provosts and bailies, a slight numerical predominance in the Council being always given to the merchant rank. A severe blow was dealt to the prestige of these merchants and crafts by the provisions of the Burgh Reform Act. Under that statute the privilege and duty of electing a Town Council was transferred to qualified ratepayers, and the choice of the electors was restricted only to such of their own number as were burgesses of the burgh. The bill, indeed, as it passed the House of Commons was framed to effect a much more drastic change than was accomplished by its provisions as finally passed into law. As it left the Commons it would have entirely reversed the relationship of the Town Council to the Corporations. The bill, as presented to the Lords, entirely deprived the Merchants' House and the Trades' House of representation in the Town Council, while it put the control of these bodies so far under the Council that it would have been impossible for them to effect any change in their rules and constitution, or even to elect the Dean of Guild and the Deacon Convener, without the sanction and authority of the Council. As it passed into law, the Act freed the Merchants' House and the Trades' House equally from any domination of the Town Council, and it conceded the Dean of Guild and Deacon Convener seats at the Council Board.

Another blow, and one more directly aimed at the primary objects for which guilds and incorporations were formed, was dealt at these bodies by the passing, in 1846, of the Act abolishing the exclusive privilege of trading within Royal Burghs which, till then, they possessed. It seems scarcely credible that within the memory and experience of living tradesmen they were prohibited by law from opening, within the Royalty of Glasgow, a
shop for selling boots if they did not belong to the Cordiners' Incorporation, or from making and selling bread were they not by birth or purchased right members of the Bakers' Incorporation. And while they were on one side of a street subject to prosecution, fine, and imprisonment for such statutory offences, on the other side, should it happen to be outside the Royalty bounds, there was perfect freedom of trade, the Corporations being there powerless and unknown. So anomalous, obstructive, and useless had this ancient regulation become, that there was no serious attempt on the part of the privileged bodies themselves to defend their obsolete privilege. As a rule, persons beginning to trade in the various departments over which the Corporations had exclusive rights, were in the habit of first becoming burgesses and freemen of the Incorporations concerned in their business. In later times the rights of the merchants and crafts were reluctantly admitted by recalcitrants, under threat of legal proceedings, and a few cases were carried into Courts of Law, where judgment was obtained upholding the rights of the Incorporations. Several of these bodies had already ceased to insist on the maintenance of their exclusive rights when the proposal to sweep them away came before Parliament, and their opposition was feeble and half-hearted. By none was it alleged that these exclusive privileges were beneficial to the commerce and trade of the country, nor even useful for the individual trades to which they gave a limited monopoly. The only argument advanced against the legislation was that the charitable and educational functions of the bodies would be crippled, that there would be no inducement for traders or craftsmen to become members of the several Incorporations, and that these bodies would consequently fall into a condition of decay. The Merchants' House expressed these self-protective sentiments in a memorial they presented to the Lord Advocate against the bill. In December, 1845, the House had resolved to postpone for a year the prosecution of persons who had, from or after 1st January, 1845, commenced or carried on business in Glasgow without entering burgesses, so that the result of the proposed change might be ascertained. But at the same time they agreed, in the interests of legal traders, to prosecute those who for a series of years had been trading contrary to the law, and thereby reaping "an undue advantage at the expense of those persons who have entered burgesses, either voluntarily or when judicially required." But the Merchants' House did not get the opportunity of making the experiment of giving a year's grace to new offenders while rigorously prosecuting the older and more hardened trading sinners. The bill for abolishing the exclusive privilege of trading in burghs in Scotland was introduced in 1846. The Merchants' House petitioned against the measure, pointing out that its pecuniary interests would be materially injured by its provisions, that its effect in the course of years would be "the complete extinction of a civic distinction of ancient standing, intimately interwoven with the public and charitable establishments of the City."
measure, however, received the support of the Town Council, and on the 14th of May, 1846, it was passed into law and became immediately operative.

Shorn of their municipal rights and of their exclusive privileges, what then remained to the Merchants' House and the fourteen Incorporations of Glasgow? These bodies in earlier times, with the differences due to the mediaeval conceptions of trade and industry, represented the Trades' Unions of the present day, and they also claimed to be the Friendly and Charitable Societies of their times. Their charity, it is true, began—and very strictly ended—at home; and they were really more mediaeval mutual insurance bodies than charitable organizations. The Act of Parliament continued to the Incorporations their corporate character, and all the rights and privileges they then possessed other than the trading privilege; and it empowered them to apply to the Court of Session for such modifications of their Regulations and Bye-laws as the altered circumstances might seem to demand. From the date of the Act, 1846, onwards, therefore, the Incorporations have continued to be, in respect of the property they own, semi-private Corporations, administering the property they individually possess, primarily for the benefit of their poor and decayed members and their families, to a small extent fostering education, and also exercising the right to give contributions towards charitable, benevolent, and other schemes for the public welfare, beyond the limits of their own membership.

The Merchants' House and the Trades' House, however, in the constitution of the Dean of Guild Court, possess and exercise important municipal functions of a judicial character which have belonged to them from early times. In Glasgow the Guild Court was definitely established under the Letter of Guildry, already alluded to, which was issued in 1605; but the jurisdiction and functions of Guild Courts in Scotland are of much more ancient date. As constituted in 1605 the Guild Court of Glasgow consists of the Dean of Guild with eight members of his Council or "lyners": four elected from the Merchants' House and four from the Trades' House, with the Town Clerk as assessor of the Court. Originally the judicial functions of the Guild Court were very extensive. They embraced the power to judge and decern in all mercantile causes as between merchant and merchant, merchant and mariner, and any other Guild brother. At an early period that power fell into disuse, and mercantile causes came to be dealt with in the Burgh and other Courts. Till the passing of the Act abolishing exclusive trading in 1846, it was also the function of the Guild Court to prevent and punish the intrusion of unfree traders and craftsmen within the Royalty. And another important duty confided to the Guild Court also has long passed into other courts, the supervision of weights and measures, the power "to oversee and reform the wotts and measures, great and small, pint and quart, peck and firlot, and all sorts within the elwand, and weights
of pound and stone of all sorts, and to punish and unlaw the transgressors as they shall think expedient."

Although the powers of the Guild Court, by desuetude and change of law, are now greatly circumscribed, the functions it still continues to discharge are of vital importance to the City. Under the Letter of Guildry it was provided that the Dean of Guild and his Council, with the Master of Works, "shall bear the burden in decerning all questions of neighbourhood and lining within the burgh." The existing jurisdiction of the Dean of Guild Court is limited to this branch of its ancient functions, as confirmed, continued, and extended under the Police Acts which now regulate the streets and buildings of Glasgow. Under that legislation the authority of the Dean of Guild Court has to be sought for the laying out of new streets, whether public or private. The Court has the power to order the transfer of the ownership of streets from private holders to the Statute Labour Department of the Glasgow Police, and to impose the conditions under which such streets shall be handed over to the public authorities. It possesses extensive powers connected not only with the laying out of streets, but also with their alteration and improvement. The ancient powers of the Court, in connection with the process of lining and questions of title and servitude, are, by the Police Act, confirmed to it. The sanction of the Court has to be obtained for the erection of all buildings within the municipality; it has the right to order the building line to be kept back from the line of the street; obstructions or projections on the street can be compulsory removed by order of the Court; no owner of property can make structural alterations without Guild Court authority, and dangerous and ruinous buildings can be pulled down under its warrant. Thus to a large extent the character of the City, its ground plan, the spaciousness of its streets, squares, and places, its general amenity and healthfulness, are in the keeping of the Dean of Guild and his Council.

The Dean of Guild and his Council are a judicial body entirely distinct from the Dean of Guild and Directors of the Merchants' House, who direct the affairs of the House, and administer its funds, mortifications, and educational undertakings. The Directorate of the Merchants' House consists of the Dean of Guild and thirty-six Directors, elected annually by the whole matriculated members of the House, at a meeting held on the fourth Tuesday before the day statutorily appointed for the election of the Town Council—the first Tuesday in November. The Dean of Guild is eligible for a second year of office, but he cannot hold place for more than two years consecutively, though it is the invariable practice to reappoint him for the second year. The Dean of Guild, in addition to the functions pertaining to his office and to his position in the Town Council, is ex-officio a Justice of Peace of the County of Lanark, and of the County of the City of Glasgow, and a patron, trustee, or director of numerous educational, charitable,
and social institutions in Glasgow, to which the Merchants' House elects other representatives in addition to the Dean.

At the time when the Merchants' House was the sole representative of the mercantile interests of Glasgow, and when its powers and prerogatives were great, its voice in the councils of the land, on commercial questions, on mercantile law, and in connection with public movements generally, was weighty and influential. Naturally and properly the House intervened in questions relating not only to the prosperity of Glasgow, but also when the larger and more general interests of the country were concerned. Although deprived of its representative character, and shorn of much of its power, the Merchants' House yet maintains much of its ancient prestige, nor has it ceased to make its influence felt and its councils respected in mercantile and public affairs. It still receives into its ranks all the principal merchants and manufacturers of the City; besides many of the leading lawyers and other professional and well-educated gentlemen are proud to be enrolled members of the House. It continues to watch and criticize all movements bearing on fiscal affairs, manufacturing industries, trade and commerce, and on schemes affecting the welfare of the district and the entire community. The Merchants' House has no politics, although the opinions of its individual members may be pronounced enough; but at the period of the Reform Bill, notwithstanding that its sympathies were naturally for the maintaining of its own place and power, it petitioned strongly on the popular side. On the Burgh Reform Question the House was naturally more conservative, and the desire to maintain the power and privileges possessed by the House, in civic affairs, impelled the members to try to preserve as much of their ancient status as they could. The House ardently supported the Free Trade policy of Sir Robert Peel, and in questions affecting trade it has in the main been generous and liberal in its sympathies. As a public body the Merchants' House also takes its fair share in such social duties as presentation of addresses to the Crown on special occasions, such as coronations, marriages, births, deaths, royal visits, etc.

The Merchants' House is a wealthy body, and it holds its property almost entirely as a sacred trust for the relief of poverty, and for aid to the struggling and unfortunate among its members and their families. The Letter of Guildry, however, empowers the House to apply its funds to any other "good and godly" work, which may tend to the advancing of the commonweal of the Town. Its funds and property have been accumulated from the matriculation or entry fees of the new members, from its share of the "fines" or fees on the entry of merchant burgesses, including in former times apprentice fees and "bucket money," subscriptions to the "Gold Book," fines levied on members who refused to accept office as Town Councillor or Dean of Guild when appointed, and fees for the use of the mort-cloth at funerals. Under the original Letter of Guildry all merchant
burgesses were *ipso facto* members of the House without further payment; but in 1749, to augment the funds, a regulation was passed that the only members of the Merchants' House should be traders who paid an entry money of five shillings and an annual subscription of four shillings. In 1773 these payments were commuted into an entrance fee of £4, and in 1791 the entry money was raised to £10 10s. in full of all payments, at which sum it now stands. Over the income derived from these sources the House has absolute control, but it also administers numerous mortifications and bequests, the free proceeds of which, in some cases, are at the unfettered disposal of the House; but many of these funds have been destined by the testators for special objects, or otherwise they are restricted so that the House is really only in the position of a public trustee.

In 1624 the revenue of the Merchants' House from all sources did not exceed £260 stg.; in 1661 the income was £524, of which £153 was from "bucket money," £102 from burgess fines, and £26 from mort-cloths, interests on bonds and land rents yielding together £238; and the free stock was £2000. In 1755 the revenue had increased to £967, and the accumulated free stock was £11,549. At the beginning of the nineteenth century the revenue did not exceed £1000 yearly, and the free stock was stated at about £18,000. In 1850 the income of the House had reached £2500, and the capital stock was equal to £38,684. In the financial year ended 31st August 1893, the nett free stock amounted to £214,813, in addition to which there was in the hands of the House, of mortifications and special bequests, and of surplus revenues from the same, the sum of £112,386. The revenue for the year, exclusive of the returns from special mortifications, reached £8675, made up of rents, feu-duties, and ground annuals, £2503; interest on loans and deposit receipts £1445; dividends on Corporation and Railway Stock £2610; burgess fines, etc., £46; the free yield of the Morgan Mortification was £934, one-third of which went to Glasgow Presbytery for Morgan bursaries; and from Glasgow Necropolis was derived £778. As extraordinary receipts there were added to the stock account from matriculation fees of new members £640, and from the sale of the book "View of the Merchants' House of Glasgow" £18 18s. The fine pile of buildings at the N.W. corner of George Square, containing the hall of the House, stands in the books at a cost of £75,576, of which £31,998 was the price of the site. The other property requiring any comment is the Necropolis of Glasgow, the estimated value of unalienated ground and vaults in it being £42,000. The Necropolis occupies a magnificent situation on the rising ground on the east side of the Molendinar valley, opposite the ancient Cathedral of the City. The site forms a portion of the lands of Easter and Wester Craigs, acquired by the Merchants' House from Sir Ludovic Stewart of Mynto in 1650, at a price of 23,350 merks, equal to £1291 13s. 4d. sterling. The western portion of these grounds retained by the Merchants' House was
beautifully laid out, in 1833, as a cemetery, a handsome viaduct—the Bridge of Sighs—spanning the Molendinar ravine was constructed, and the Necropolis has since received the ashes of many of the most prominent of the citizens of Glasgow. While a profitable investment for the Merchants' House, the planting of the Necropolis has secured, for all time, an ample open space beyond the sombre and stately Cathedral of Glasgow, and thus provided it with a striking and appropriate background, while it has given to Glasgow one of the most impressive cities of the dead attached to any community.

The gifts and bequests to the House from the period of its foundation till the present day have been very numerous, and have ranged in value from £1 Scots up to the munificent benefaction of Mr. John Morgan, Bishopbriggs, the latest and largest legacy received by the House. The sum paid and transferred by Mr. Morgan's executors in the course of the year 1894-95 is no less than £73,000, which is subject to a life-rent charge of £500 yearly and to a postponed legacy of £1000. Of the free revenue of Mr. Morgan's estate one-third is destined to the Presbytery of Glasgow for Morgan bursaries, and the remaining two-thirds is at the disposal of the directors for the ordinary charitable and public purposes encouraged by the House. Next to the Morgan Bequest the greatest windfall that came into the exchequer of the House was the legacies devised by James Ewing of Strathleven, under his will made in 1844 and proved in 1853. Mr. Ewing bequeathed £1000 to the general funds of the House, £10,000 he left for pensions and allowances for decayed Glasgow Merchants, £10,000 for educating, training, and settling in business the sons of decayed Glasgow merchants, and £10,000 for pensions and allowances to the widows and daughters of decayed Glasgow merchants. Under Mr. Ewing's will the legacies and annuities payable to relations were declared to be preferable to the bequest to strangers and charities, and in consequence the sum derived from his estate up to this time for decayed merchants and their families amounts only to £18,900. A bequest of £10,000 subject to legacy duty was in 1857 made to the House under the will of James Buchanan, merchant, payable twelve months after the death of Mrs. Buchanan. The annual proceeds it was declared should be exclusively expended on the education of the sons of decayed members, and on providing university bursaries to such of them as gave promise of future eminence. The proceeds of the £9000 capital stock is now expended in pensions, and there is in the hands of the directors a balance of surplus revenue equal to £3840. The remaining mortifications and bequests are for smaller sums and of minor importance, and several of them under the provisions of the Educational Endowments Act have been diverted from their primary purposes.

In all the House expended, during the year ended 31st August, 1895, £4199 in ordinary pensions, precepts, and funeral charges; for university bursaries there was given £116; there was placed to the credit of the revenues
of special mortifications £1383, out of which £934 was paid in pensions, £136 in bursaries and scholarships, and the balance was added to the surplus or unexhausted revenues of the several mortifications. And in the end a sum of £1811 was free to add to the stock account or capital of the Merchants' House.

Like the Merchants' House the Trades' House arose out of the Letter of Guildry of 1605. Under that document it is provided that there shall be a Deacon Convener, who shall ever be of the rank of Craftsman; the method of his election is therein prescribed, one of his privileges specified is that he "shall always be a counsellor of the town's great council," and among his duties enumerated are to convene all the deacons of the crafts and their assistants at such times as occasion shall require and to judge betwixt them. The Trades' House is composed of delegates from the fourteen incorporated trades of Glasgow, bodies which at various dates previous to 1605 had been called into existence by charters or seals of cause granted by the Town Council, with the concurrence of the Archbishop of Glasgow. Four of the Incorporations, the Hammermen, Tailors, Cordiners, and Maltmen, have each the right to be represented in the House by six members, the Weavers send four, the remaining Incorporations can elect only three, excepting the Dyers and the Bonnetmakers who are entitled to elect only two representatives. The House thus consists of fifty-four delegates from the several Incorporations.

The funds of the House have, from small beginnings, accumulated by savings, gifts, and mortifications till now they amount to an annual income of more than £5000, with a stock which exceeds £125,000. The official income of the House is derived only from the share allocated to it of the burgess and guildry fines levied on the entry of burgesses and freemen of the craft rank. These sums, by the constitution of the House, were to be applied to their hospital and decayed brethren of the craftsmen, or to any other good and pious use which may tend to the advancement of the commonweal of the burgh. In the early days each new deacon of the different crafts also paid a certain sum on his appointment to the House, and considerable amounts were accumulated by gifts, bequests, and mortifications for specific purposes. As is the case with the Merchants' House, a certain proportion of the revenues are held by the House, in trust only, for the specific objects under which the money was mortified by the testators. The increase of revenue of the House and the accumulation of stock which has been marked in recent times is due really to fortunate investments which have been made, especially to the acquirement of an interest in the Gorbals lands already referred to, and to an investment in the lands of Kelvinbank and Sandyford made in 1846-47, which cost about £32,500.

For their fourth part of the Gorbals lands the Trades' House and the Incorporations jointly paid 31,000 merks (£1722 sterling), 8000 merks
(£444) being the contribution of the House. Its share therefore amounts to 8/31 of the revenue, and from this investment alone the House receives yearly upwards of £1200. From the Kelvinbank and Sandysford property feu-duties amounting to £2520 are received, the Town Council and Parks Trustees paying alone £437 yearly for a portion of Kelvingrove Park feued off these lands. From other investments in Corporation and Clyde Trust Stocks, Bonds and Heritable properties, an income of £792 is obtained. The Trades' Hall buildings, the joint property of the House and the Incorporations, was erected in 1791, and with alterations and additions since made they now stand in the books at £17,880 in the proportions of £11,700 to the House and £6130 to the crafts.

The House takes a generous view of its duty as a public institution in relation to the assistance, not only of decayed craftsmen, their widows, and their unmarried daughters, but also in supporting the benevolent institutions of the City, and in promoting public and patriotic objects. Large subscriptions have occasionally been made from their funds for public objects. Thus in 1777 £500 was contributed, during the American War, to assist in raising a battalion of men. In 1803 the warlike spirit of the country induced the House to vote other £500 to raise a battalion of volunteers. In 1799 £500 was voted, in time of public distress, for the purchase of meal for the starving poor. To Infirmaries, Hospitals, and to the University large sums at various dates were contributed for building and maintenance, and altogether within a century not less than £10,000 has been voted by the House for laudable public purposes outside the narrow interests of the craftsmen.

In earlier times the Trades' School was supported by the House, but on the passing of the Education Act, 1872, the School was abolished, and instead, a number of scholarships were established to be competed for by the children of craftsmen. The subsequent re-arrangement of the educational endowments of Glasgow, under the Educational Endowments Act of 1882, with the abolition of fees and other educational reforms, impelled the House to restrict its operations to the purely charitable side of its activities; and now it administers, in the interests of education, only a very limited sum for university bursaries, in accordance with the terms of the Deeds of Mortifications under which the House is bound to act.

Of the several Incorporations, the constituent bodies of the Trades' House, it is not needful here to say much. Their order of precedence and the earliest date to which they can be traced are:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Incorporation</th>
<th>Date</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Hammermen</td>
<td>1536</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tailors</td>
<td>1556</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cordiners</td>
<td>1558</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maltmen</td>
<td>1605</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Weavers</td>
<td>1528</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bakers</td>
<td>1556</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Skinners</td>
<td>1516</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wrights</td>
<td>1600</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coopers</td>
<td>1569</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fleshers</td>
<td>1580</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Masons</td>
<td>1551</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gardeners</td>
<td>1690</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Barbers</td>
<td>1559</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dyers</td>
<td>1557</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The dates given do not in every case indicate the original period of the formation of the bodies, but represent only the years from which they possess charters or are known to have had authoritative recognition; and the order of precedence is that established by a decree of declarator issued in 1777 by the Court of Session. The masons, indeed, claim to possess a charter issued by King Malcolm III. in 1057; but no one seriously believes in the antiquity or authenticity of that remarkable document. Nevertheless the existence of co-fraternities of several of the trades at a date much anterior to that given, is attested by reference to them in contemporary minutes of the Town Council.

The Incorporations are in the enjoyment of large and increasing revenues from gifts and bequests, and from surplus income arising from entrance fees of freemen during the centuries they have existed. Eleven of the Incorporations possess shares in the fourth part of the Gorbals lands which was assigned to the crafts on its purchase. The crafts' share was divided into 31 parts, eight of which, as we have already seen, belong to the Trades' House itself. The tailors and maltmen each hold six shares, the hammermen, cordiners, and skinners have each two; the weavers, wrights, cooper, and fleshers one, and the remaining share is divided between the bakers and the masons. Their revenues they administer with scrupulous care for the benefit of decayed members and their widows and fatherless children; they subscribe also, with liberality, to the infirmaries and other public charities, and occasionally they give special subscriptions for other good and pious purposes. But they do not take any part in public affairs, and they have no pretence, in their modern constitution, to be other than partly friendly, partly charitable, and partly mutual assurance associations. It is needless to say that the tailors do not pursue the clothing industry, and concern themselves not in the remotest degree with the doings and welfare of that useful class of operatives, nor are the hammermen in any way necessarily connected with the metal industries; and although individuals connected with many of the trades naturally gravitate to the Incorporations bearing the name of their industry, no advantage or benefit arises from the nominal relationship.

Admission to the Incorporations is obtained by enrolled burgesses only, and the sons and sons-in-law of freemen have a right to enrolment for modified entry fines or fees. "Strangers" or entrants at what is termed the "far-hand," pay entry money generally fixed with a due regard to the wealth and numerical strength of the Incorporation, and, therefore, having a relation to the possible benefit which may be derived from the connection. The entry money is based on admission at 25 years of age, and for each additional year in the age of the applicant compound interest at the rate of 5 per cent. is added, so that in the case of the wealthier and more select Incorporations the entry money of a middle-aged man amounts to a considerable sum.
The following is a table of the revenue and expenditure, with a statement of the Capital Stocks of the Trades' House and the several Incorporations for the year ended September, 1895.

### STATEMENT OF THE REVENUE, EXPENDITURE, AND STOCK ACCOUNTS OF THE TRADES' HOUSE AND INCORPORATIONS OF GLASGOW AS AT SEPTEMBER, 1895.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Revenue</th>
<th>Expenditure</th>
<th>Stock</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>THE TRADES' HOUSE,</strong></td>
<td><strong>£6,381 17 5s</strong></td>
<td><strong>£4,474 17 3s</strong></td>
<td><strong>£125,987 19 10</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>THE INCORPORATION OF HAMMERMEN,</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&quot;&quot; Tailors, &quot;&quot;</td>
<td>2,512 10 11</td>
<td>1,003 18 5</td>
<td>26,716 10 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&quot;&quot; Cordiners, &quot;&quot;</td>
<td>2,662 5 4</td>
<td>2,051 10 3</td>
<td>68,757 12 0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&quot;&quot; Maltmen, &quot;&quot;</td>
<td>798 9 0</td>
<td>688 8 3</td>
<td>21,560 19 11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&quot;&quot; Weavers, &quot;&quot;</td>
<td>2,566 10 5</td>
<td>2,395 14 6</td>
<td>67,286 13 7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&quot;&quot; Bakers, &quot;&quot;</td>
<td>964 6 0</td>
<td>946 0 5</td>
<td>23,139 2 11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&quot;&quot; Skinners, &quot;&quot;</td>
<td>1,919 18 1</td>
<td>1,237 16 11</td>
<td>71,113 3 10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&quot;&quot; Wrights, &quot;&quot;</td>
<td>1,398 3 4</td>
<td>1,000 18 5</td>
<td>41,994 18 2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&quot;&quot; Coopers, &quot;&quot;</td>
<td>1,190 10 5</td>
<td>1,053 7 8</td>
<td>33,009 12 8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&quot;&quot; Fleshers, &quot;&quot;</td>
<td>818 4 2</td>
<td>662 9 9</td>
<td>20,746 12 10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&quot;&quot; Masons, &quot;&quot;</td>
<td>1,241 14 7</td>
<td>1,177 9 8</td>
<td>33,851 18 7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&quot;&quot; Gardeners, &quot;&quot;</td>
<td>513 3 5</td>
<td>464 0 2</td>
<td>18,979 18 8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&quot;&quot; Barbers, &quot;&quot;</td>
<td>314 5 10</td>
<td>265 4 10</td>
<td>8,841 17 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&quot;&quot; Dyers, &quot;&quot;</td>
<td>462 16 1</td>
<td>375 12 8½</td>
<td>10,979 12 6½</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>183 18 9</td>
<td>175 0 0</td>
<td>7,205 6 11</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

|                          | £23,928 13 9½ | £18,572 9 3  | £580,172 0 3½ |

The affairs of the Incorporations are administered by Master Courts, consisting of a deacon (in the case of the maltmen he is officially a "visitor"), the late or last deacon or visitor, a collector and late collector, and a certain number of masters, the latter ordinarily serving for a period of three years. The deacon holds office for one year only, and he must previously have been in the Master Court, and have served faithfully as
THE FORMER MASTERS OF THE COUNCIL

collector, out of which office he must have been for at least one year. The
general rule is that the late collector of one year becomes the deacon of the
next. The annual election to the Master Courts takes place on the first
Friday after the 15th of September in each year, and the occasion is
celebrated by a dinner held on the evening of that day; but the expense
of that entertainment is, in almost every case, privately defrayed to the
uttermost farthing.
CHAPTER VI.

THE MODERN MASTERS OF THE COUNCIL.


In the immediate neighbourhood of the harbour of Glasgow and of the shipyards whence are floated those marvels of modern engineering—the great Atlantic steamships—there have not infrequently been dug out of the soil rude boats, hollowed out from trunks of oak, which formed the shipping of our primitive ancestors. The Glasgow of the present day differs from the modest little City of the seventeenth century, at some of the aspects of which we have glanced, as much as the marvels of modern shipbuilding differ from the frail oaken barks of the ancient dwellers on the banks of the Clyde. The modern City, viewed as a compacted and co-ordinated entity is, like all modern cities, a marvel of ingenious and bold engineering, a highly-finished and complex machine, having an endless range of contrivances and adjustments, entirely wanting in the assemblage of humble dwellings with their modest kail-yairds, which formed the City of the seventeenth century. Our ancestors were without paved streets, drains, sewers and sewage purification. Each man had to look after his own lighting, domestic and public, and cleansing, if any, was also the task of the individual. The water supply came from public pumps and private wells, or from the yet limpid and healthful Molendinar, brought not in pipes but in buckets and stoups. Our modern City has its systems of water and gas pipes, its overhead and underground wires for telegraphy, telephony and electric lighting, it has its tramways, subways and railways, its baths, wash-houses and sanitary establishments, its museums and art galleries, its music, public parks and botanic gardens, and further, a host of other adaptations of modern invention and development, all forming
part of the municipal organization and corporate structure, which have no counterpart in the earlier City. And as the primitive City was simple in its organization, so were the functions of its governing Council limited in amount, and of little complexity in detail. Increase in size alone, of course, entails commensurate increase in supervision. The regulation and government of a little community of 12,000 is, at any time, a much more simple and easy task than the ruling of a great city of 700,000 inhabitants. But the growth of the City alone is by no means the chief factor in adding to the duties and responsibilities of the Town Council of modern times. In these days the councillor is much more the servant than the master of the people, and without any sense of communism he is called on to discharge many duties, which the individual in days of yore performed for himself, or lived altogether without. The wonderful machine—the modern City—with its delicate adjustments and its innumerable hidden perils, has to be kept in smooth working order and in proper repair; the health, the cleanliness, the food, the recreation, the comfort, the very employment of the people, all have to be looked after; new devices have to be tried; new appliances have to be experimented with, and every tested improvement has to be adopted. The masters of the Council are exigent; they demand in their service increasing labour, constant watchfulness and untiring zeal; and it is but fair to say that, from their unpaid servants, the councillors, they get a marvellously large share of such self-sacrificing service.

The modest concessions made in 1832-3 to the spirit of modern democracy, have brought in their train consequences immensely more far reaching, and changes more fundamental, than were dreamt of by the most penetrating of the advocates of reform. The immediate change simply amounted to giving some proportion of the people a share in saying by whom they should be governed in affairs imperial and municipal; and that concession granted and thankfully accepted, it appeared to many good Whigs that public concerns would continue to wag on as of yore. But it is not in human nature to be conscious of power and not seek to exercise it; although, except in times of intense strain and excitement, the people are curiously slow to discover the powers they do possess. The intimacy of social organization in large communities naturally led sooner to the discovery and exercise of their new powers; and almost from the very first the relations of the Council and the community were changed, if not reversed. Within limits—limits of riot and rebellion—the old Council could impose their will on the people; now the people found they could dictate to, and master the Council. While the mutual relationship was to that extent immediately reversed, the change has worked for good only: the Council and the people have been kept in sympathetic touch with each other; the ever present consciousness of their master, the public, has proved a healthy restraint to the impetuous, and a goad to the languid councillor; while faithful
and disinterested municipal service has been amply appreciated and re-
warded.

The area of authority, and the amount of duty expected from Town Councillors, increased with great rapidity from the time of the Reform Act downwards. Although the municipal bounds of Glasgow were altered and extended no fewer than six times between the years 1800 and 1878, yet so rapid was the growth of the population that, scarcely at any interval during this period, did the City feel any other than unduly constricted and hide-bound. Even when, in 1846, by the absorption of Gorbals, Calton, and Anderston, the municipal area was considerably more than doubled, the rule of the Town Council was extended only over a well-built region, which had been parliamentary Glasgow since the passing of the 1832 Reform Act. In the second half of the century especially the feeling of tightness and discomfort became aggravated and acute. Not only had the population over-
flowed the municipal bounds in various directions, but the overflow population began to crystallize into burghal committees on their own account, and since the middle of the century Glasgow saw forming around it a ring of suburban burghs, the existence of which almost barred the possibility of expansion on the part of the parent City. The extension and perpetuation of a system of in-
dependent and rival police burghs meant, of course, the throttling of the central authority. Glasgow, already closely built up within her bounds, could not possibly increase largely and indefinitely in population. The additions would be, of necessity, to the outside communities where there was room for expansion, and when Glasgow became perforce stationary these would absorb the entire natural increase of the population. The central authority would decrease in influence, and the vigorous young communities with increasing power would be increasingly self-assertive. Community of government, of purpose, of action, would be at an end, and friction, rivalry, and jealousy would inevi-
tably spring up. Into the history of the prolonged and fiercely-contested struggle between Glasgow and the suburban burghs it is not necessary here to enter. It is sufficient to say that the parent City had ample reason and warrant for all the efforts she exerted towards securing and maintaining the homogeneity of the community, and fortunately in the end the contentions of the Corporation secured such a large measure of success as to warrant the expectation of ultimate unity of government. The ring fence which threatened to cramp and confine the City with a "thus far and no further" decree has been completely broken down, and there is no remote probability of such a barrier being again formed.

The present outcome of the long struggle for natural growth and develop-
ment on the part of Glasgow is embraced in the City of Glasgow Act, 1891—54 and 55 Victoria, Cap. cxxx. Under that statute the affairs of the City and Royal Burgh are at present regulated, and by its provisions the municipal area was enlarged, as we have seen, to nearly double its former extent, from
6111 to 11,861 acres. The added area includes the Police Burghs of Govanhill, Crosshill, Pollokshields East, and Pollokshields, with the populous districts of Polmadie, Mount Florida, Langside, Crossmyloof, Shawlands, Strathbungo, and Bellahouston on the south side of the Clyde, and on the north side the Police Burghs of Hillhead and Maryhill, with the district of Kelvinside, a portion of Springburn not previously absorbed, and Barnhill. The population added, according to the Census of 1891, numbered 91,217 persons, which, with the 564,968 within the old bounds, raised the total inhabitants of Glasgow to 656,185 persons; and to an annual value of heritages which, within the old municipality was £3,427,286, there was added £606,268, bringing the total annual value of the extended City up to £4,033,554.

Under the Act of 1891 the number of wards or municipal electoral divisions in the City was increased from sixteen to twenty-five, and the ordinary members of the Town Council—three for each ward—were raised from forty-eight to seventy-five, or adding the two ex-officio members, the Dean of Guild and Deacon-Convener, from fifty to seventy-seven. With the exception of a small addition to the first and second wards, the whole of the nine new wards were formed out of the newly added areas, five being allotted to the districts south of the river, and four to the region on the northern boundaries. This arrangement was, however, expressly declared by the Act to be temporary and provisional, the statute enacting that, as early as convenient in 1896, a Commission consisting of the Lord Provost, the Sheriff of Lanarkshire, and a third member nominated by the Secretary of State for Scotland, should be appointed again to divide the City into twenty-five wards. At the beginning of November in that year the whole of the Town Council demits office, and a full complement of seventy-five councillors falls to be elected. In the five years which shall then have elapsed, it was expected that a sufficient experience of the extended municipality would have been acquired to enable the authorities to decide in what respect and to what extent modifications and amendments of government are required. On the Police Commissioners, which is the Town Council under another name, the Act lays the duty of devising and settling “such a system of divisional administration for Police, Statute Labour, and Sanitary purposes as they may deem best fitted for the requirements of the City.” That system is not to come into operation till the 1st of December, 1896. Thus, before the close of 1896, we are to have an entirely new Council elected within a new system of wards to administer the Police, Streets, and Sanitation of the City under a new scheme of divisional or sectional government, should the Police Commissioners decide that a change is necessary in the interests of the community.

Under the Act the added districts are entitled, during the five years probationary period, to an abatement of 20 per cent. off the ordinary rates and assessments of the City, except the water rate and the charge for such personal services as cleaning and lighting of private streets, courts, and stairs. From 31st May, 1896, onwards the whole City will be treated in the imposi-
tion of rates as one body, and each section will be called on to bear its equal share of the burden of public taxes.

Nor can we, from the temporary and provisional condition of affairs, exclude the present municipal boundary. Kinning Park, Govan, and Partick, with their population of nearly 120,000 are, all arguments to the contrary notwithstanding, integral portions of Glasgow, and there cannot be a doubt that sooner or later these Police Burghs will be absorbed in the greater municipality, sharing the burdens and enjoying the advantages which undoubtedly should fall to their lot as constituent factors of a powerful community. That these and other suburban populations will throw in their lot with the common parent is only a question of time.

While these several conditions of municipal organization and government are but temporary, it is not at all probable that the changes which must be effected before the close of 1896, and others which may occur sooner or later will work any fundamental alteration in the constitution and functions of the Town Council. So long as the present bounds of the City continue twenty-five wards will exist, though the inequalities of population and other anomalies of growth and accretion must disappear. Whatever delegation of local supervision there may be to district committees, it is quite obvious that the strings of the purse and the last word on all proposals must abide with the central power. The functions which can be delegated are merely administrative, dealing with the condition of the roads and pavements, the drains and sewers of the district, efficiency of the local cleaning and police, the position of fire-plugs, the illumination of the streets, and such useful duties as demand a certain local knowledge and sympathy. Local committees with duties so circumscribed, but at the same time in a vast city so indispensable, may in an official and statutory manner effect the purposes which at present devolve on the irresponsible newspaper correspondents, “Scrutator,” “Indignant Rate-payer,” and others with equally terrifying pseudonyms, or on the hap-hazard zeal of the more active and enthusiastic of the Ward Committees.

The first step in the statutory revision of the municipal affairs has meantime been taken: the wards of the City have been redivided and to each has been allotted an official local name, surely a respectful and appropriate change from the bald numbers by which they were formerly distinguished. These designations, moreover, preserve and perpetuate local names which themselves have a history, and which in a great growing town too readily are lost and forgotten. The Commissioners to whom was assigned the duty of recasting the municipal wards had to deal with numerous inequalities and anomalies, which inevitably grow up in an expanding and shifting population; and they had also to face the fact that the representation temporarily allocated to the burghs and districts annexed in 1891 was enormously in excess of their arithmetical rights. To prune down and reduce the electoral power of any district is a task neither pleasant nor popular, but such was the
obvious duty of the Commissioners. The tables given hereafter in which the municipal constituency, as under the old and the new divisions, is exhibited, will indicate the manner in which the Commissioners have dealt with the question of equal distribution and representation which, of course, was not the sole and only consideration that affected their determination. In general terms it may be said that the scheme of the Commissioners involves the transference of six members of the Town Council from the south to the north side of the Clyde. Previous to 1891 the south side had nine representatives; during five years, 1891-96, with eight wards it returned no fewer than twenty-four councillors, but from November 1896 it must be content with eighteen members, out of a representative body of seventy-five.

While the character of the several wards may be modified to some extent by the reshuffling of the whole, and in this way something done to make the elected body more distinctly and equally representative than it now is, no one can assert that the Town Council, for many years, has been other than a strikingly representative body, animated by a spirit of pronounced local patriotism and full of disinterested zeal for the public welfare. The individuality and variety of character of the old wards were indeed most marked, and, as a rule, the representatives they sent to the Council exhibited in their attitude and opinions, a faithful reflex of their constituents. The sturdy and aggressive Liberalism of the east, where old Glasgow tradition is found in its purest form, is in marked contrast to the lukewarm sentiments and the comparative indifference to things municipal which characterizes the centre and business wards. Where Irish labourers do most assemble and vote it is but to be expected that the meetings of ratepayers will be conducted in a spirited manner, and that the chosen representatives will be men of advanced sentiments: facts do not much belie the anticipation. In the serene atmosphere of the west end again there is no crowd of competing candidates for municipal honours, and the unacknowledged difficulty is that of getting the best men to devote their talents and attention to public business.

Since the floodgates of democracy were opened by the Burgh Reform Act of 1833, the method of electing Town Councils in Scotland has been regulated by Act of Parliament. During the years which have elapsed since popular election was introduced the law has undergone many modifications, and especially since 1868, when the Municipal Election Amendment Act was passed, election law has been in a condition of chronic flux. Generally municipal reforms in the form of extensions of franchise, and in the machinery and methods of voting, etc., succeeded similar enactments for parliamentary elections; but in one direction, at least, the municipal electorate has been enlarged along a line not yet accomplished, in relation to parliamentary representation. Under the provisions of what is known as the Municipal Election Amendment (Scotland) Act, 1881, a statute fathered by Sir Charles Cameron, Bart., one of the representatives of Glasgow—unmarried women,
having the necessary qualification became entitled to the municipal franchise; they were empowered to nominate candidates for the Town Council, to vote for them, and generally to exercise all the privileges of male electors, excepting the right to become candidates and councillors themselves. The Local Government (Scotland) Act of 1894 further extended the privileges of the ladies in enacting that all women possessing the qualification for being registered on any Parish, County Council, or Municipal register of voters, are not to be disqualified by reason of marriage from being so registered, provided that husband and wife shall not both be registered in respect of the same qualification.

The qualification of a municipal voter is in the main based on the circumstance that he is a ratepayer. Rates in their turn are levied on the annual value of the properties occupied or owned by the ratepayer, and thus it is that, while the Register of Voters is the source and origin of all municipal life and action, the fundamental document in the entire structure is the Valuation Roll. From the data recorded in that document are obtained the details necessary for inserting in the Roll of Voters nearly all the names it contains, and on it also is reared the bulk of the financial fabric of the City. The duty of annually preparing these lists, the Valuation Roll and the Register of Voters, is laid on the City Assessor, and as they are documents of vital and fundamental importance, it is needful to offer a brief outline of the careful and painstaking manner in which the onerous task is discharged.

The Valuation Roll has to contain, in a tabulated form, the following particulars: (1) the description and situation of the subject, (2) the name and address of the proprietor, (3) the name of the tenant, (4) the name of the occupier, (5) the name of the inhabitant occupier, (6) the feu-duty or ground annual, and (7) the yearly rent or value. Under the Lands Valuation Act, 1854, the assessor for the burgh prepares a new roll every year on or before 15th August, and by 25th August every person has received a copy of the entry relating to himself. If the assessor merely repeats an entry which appeared in the Valuation Roll of the immediately preceding year, it is not necessary that he should transmit a copy of the entry in such case, but the practice in Glasgow has been to transmit a copy of the entry to all persons appearing in the Valuation Roll. If anyone whose name appears on that roll has complaint to make against the entry, he may apply to the assessor, who may correct the entry before 8th September, on which day the roll is transmitted to the Town Clerk. An appeal against the valuation lies to the magistrates. Appeals require to be lodged by 10th September, but notice must be given to the assessor six days before the appeal is to be heard. All appeals must be disposed of at latest by 30th September in each year.

The 28th day of May is now by statute the recognized “flitting term” in Scotland, the date on which household removals take place, and from which leases and the tenancy of houses, shops, and buildings generally run. On that
day, and for weeks before, numerous changes in occupancy are in progress, and the varied fittings afford not a few social revelations. The worldly goods of many a family are neither bulky nor valuable, and the greater proportion of that class, with little impedimenta, form a floating population which flit easily and flit often. For many reasons the heads of such families do not desire to have a fixed address, they find it convenient to steal silently away—like the tented Arab—without attracting the attention of either landlord, the police, or the keepers of local shoppies. Among decent working people, also, there is much enforced fitting, according to the exigencies of employment, and generally it may be said that the lower the rent and value the greater is the proportion of annual, or of more frequent, removals in the population. It is this migratory population which gives the greatest amount of trouble to the assessor and his staff. Immediately the great annual exodus is over and the population has shaken down into their new occupancies, the yearly survey of the assessor begins. A staff of about thirty surveyors is set to the work of revising, correcting and bringing up to date the roll of owners and occupiers within the City. These surveyors take for the basis of their task a copy of the Valuation Roll of the previous year. To each a certain portion of the City and the corresponding slice of last year's roll is allotted. They work under an elaborate code of instructions drawn up so as to secure faultless accuracy and uniformity of information required under the heads of (a) valuation and (b) registration of voters. The surveyors go from house to house over the entire City, and in their respective districts they visit and note every separate occupancy or property let or unlet, verifying the entries in the list they possess, changing names where new tenants have entered, and adding such new properties and tenancies as may have been created during the year. Simultaneously a form is supplied to every factor and owner of let property in the City, in which he is required to supply the information necessary for completing the Valuation Roll for the property in his charge or owned by him. In about a month's time the survey is complete, the returns have been received from factors and owners, and these returns are compared with the information obtained by the surveyor in the course of his visitation. In cases where property has remained in the same occupancy and without change of rent or value no question arises. Where owner's and factor's returns agree with the information gathered by the surveyor, and where there is no marked discrepancy between the rent given and that entered in former years, the entries are accepted as accurate, and passed accordingly. Difficulties arise when the owner's and factor's returns do not agree with the statements of the occupiers, and when there is an unaccountable increase or decrease in the rent or value. These cases demand re-survey; inquiry, and explanation, which are promptly applied and demanded. Independent survey and valuation on the part of the assessor are also required in the case of all new properties occupied by their owners, as well as in the case of additions, and where changed conditions
demand a reconsideration of existing valuations of properties occupied by their owners. Special conditions attach to the valuation of railways and canals, and gas and water undertakings, returns of which are made by a separate assessor, but into these it is not necessary to enter.

To every owner and occupier of property within the City a copy of the entry under his or her name in the Valuation Roll is sent not later than the 25th of August yearly. These notices are delivered by a staff of sworn messengers, and embrace about 170,000 forms sent to occupiers, and 18,500 to owners of property. Appeals are received by the assessor till the 8th of September, and the bulk of them are from persons occupying their own property, who complain that the valuation of the assessor is excessive. A few appeals also are caused by mistakes in the returns of the landlords or factors, but in nearly every case the assessor himself is able to come to an agreement with the appellants, so that the cases carried to the magistrates and Council in the Valuation Appeal Court are very few indeed. The Court must finish its work before the end of September in each year, and afterwards there still remains, to dissatisfied appellants, the right of making an application to the Court of Session, the Sheriff Court having no jurisdiction in valuation appeals. The following figures show the increase in the assessable value of property in Glasgow during the forty years in which the Valuation Act has been operative:

**RENTAL AT INTERVALS OF FIVE YEARS.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1855</td>
<td>£1,362,168</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1860</td>
<td>1,625,148</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1865</td>
<td>1,808,430</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1870</td>
<td>2,126,324</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1875</td>
<td>2,902,635</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1880</td>
<td>£3,426,730</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1885</td>
<td>3,395,804</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1890</td>
<td>3,455,510</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1895</td>
<td>4,283,982</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

According to this table the Rental of the City has increased 3.145 times within forty years, and great as is that increase it would have been still more considerable had all the area which is Glasgow, in everything except government and rating, been included in the Valuation Roll.

With the compilation of the Valuation Roll the collection of the special information required for the Register of Voters goes on simultaneously. What that information is, and the law and constitution of the municipal register generally, are indicated by the following useful abstract taken from the annotated edition of the City of Glasgow Act, 1891:

"The City Assessor is required by the Burgh Voters Act, 19 and 20 Vict., cap. 58, to make up annually a list or roll of voters, and to sign and publish the same. Persons omitted can claim to be enrolled by the sheriff, and persons enrolled or claiming to be enrolled can be objected to by persons on the register. These claims and objections are lodged with the assessor, and the objector to claims for enrolment must give notice in writing to the sheriff of his intention to oppose the claims. The sheriff adjudicates upon the claims and
objections, and, after the Registration Courts are over, the register is completed in accordance with the decisions of the sheriff. If claimants or objectors are dissatisfied with the sheriff's judgment, they can appeal to the Court of Session, under the provisions of the Reform Act of 1868, and if the judgment be reversed, the sheriff must correct the register in accordance with the decision given on appeal. The qualifications necessary for enrolment as a voter are as follows:

"1. Owners of property within the parliamentary and municipal boundary of the City of the annual value of £10 or upwards, who have been for twelve calendar months prior to 31st July in the ownership, and who have resided within such boundary, or within seven statute miles thereof, for six months prior to 31st July.

"2. Occupiers of premises, whether dwelling-houses, shops, warehouses, or works, within the City, of the annual value of £10 or upwards, and who have, for twelve calendar months prior to 31st July, occupied the same or similar premises within it, and in case of premises other than dwelling-houses, have resided for six calendar months within the burgh boundary, or within seven statute miles thereof, also, joint-occupiers or partners of firms whose residential qualifications are the same as those of sole occupants, and whose respective interests in the occupancy of the premises are of the annual value of £10 or upwards.

"3. Occupiers of dwelling-houses under £10 in value, who, for twelve calendar months prior to 31st July, have inhabited or resided in the same or similar dwelling-houses within the City, and who have paid, on or before 20th June, all poor rates due by them, and who have not been exempted from the payment of poor rates, and who have not received parochial relief during the year prior to 31st July.

"4. Such men as occupy dwelling-houses by virtue of any office, service, or employment, and who have occupied the same or similar dwelling-houses within the City for twelve months prior to 31st July.

"5. Lodgers who have, for twelve calendar months prior to 31st July, occupied lodgings—either singly or jointly with other lodgers—within the same parliamentary division of the City, of a clear annual value, if let unfurnished and without attendance, of £10 or upwards for each lodger. Where lodgings are occupied jointly, not more than two lodgers can be registered for the same lodgings."

In the great majority of cases the particulars entered in the Valuation Roll from year to year are in themselves sufficient for registration purposes; but the floating population, new proprietors, tenants, and occupiers become the subject of special inquiry and investigation. In the case of new tenancy the
surveyors are required to ascertain as to previous occupancy within the City whether it is sufficient to make up the residential qualification of twelve months' occupancy previous to 31st of July. Next the residences of the occupiers of business premises have to be ascertained, and their registration depends on whether they have dwelt the stated period of six months within seven miles of the City. Further, individual members of any commercial firm require to be noted, and if the rent paid is sufficient to give each a £10 qualification all the members of the firm are registered, provided they possess the residential qualification above mentioned. Persons who do not appear on the Valuation Roll, and who yet are entitled to be registered as voters, are service men such as janitors, caretakers, church officers, and all persons occupying houses rent free in virtue of office. Next come lodgers, but whilst the assessor registers the ordinary ratepayer elector and the service man without trouble to, or consultation with, the voter, lodgers require to present their claims and establish to the satisfaction of the assessor their right to be placed on the register. So far for constituent entrants on the register of voters; but next comes the process of weeding out names which may appear on the Valuation Roll, but which entry does not carry with it, in all cases, a voting right. In the first place, one individual may, in virtue of ownership or occupancy, possess several qualifications in one ward, or a qualification in two or more, possibly in every separate municipal ward, but the right of voting is confined to a single vote in a single ward only. A right of selecting the ward in which the voter shall exercise the franchise is given, and in the register all the other entries in the Valuation Roll are omitted. The seven miles' residential radius has to be taken into consideration also, and all ratepayers whose residence is outside that limit are struck out. Minors and aliens, although ratepayers, are also not qualified for entry in the Roll of Voters. Whilst a not inconsiderable reduction in the list of voters is produced by these causes, the great source of deletion of names is the non-payment of poor rates, either by the express exemption of the individual from poverty or other causes, or by the failure of persons occupying houses of less than £10 to pay the rates demanded from them within the statutory period, or by the fact that the person has within the year been in receipt of parochial aid. Lists of the persons disqualified from any of these several causes are yearly supplied by the collectors of poor rates and the inspectors of poor of the several parishes within the City. The Register of Voters thus contains a good number of names which do not appear in the Valuation Roll, but many entries in that document fail to carry a corresponding entry in the Roll of Voters, and the net result is that whereas the Valuation Roll contains about 170,000 separate entries under the name of occupiers and nearly 18,500 as owners, the total number of qualified municipal voters do not exceed 123,000.

The assessor, having secured his information, proceeds to make up the list of voters, arranged for municipal purposes in wards, as far as possible in
alphabetical order of streets, etc., and in alphabetical order of the surnames of the voters resident in or otherwise qualified in connection with such street. That list has to be prominently exhibited at the Cross Steeple, High Street, or other public place, and advertised as so shown from the 15th to the 22nd of September, and the assessor is bound to supply signed copies of it at a fixed price to all applicants. For the convenience of the public, copies of the list are also displayed at numerous police stations and at other public places throughout the City. Notice of claims to be placed on the register, and of objections to names appearing on it, require to be given on or before the 21st of September; and during the months of September and October Registration Courts are held by the sheriff, at which such claims and objections are disposed of. At latest on the 15th of October the Register of Voters, as revised and settled in the Registration Court, has to be delivered to the Town Clerk, and when signed by him it becomes the official Register of Voters for the year from 1st November till 31st October in the succeeding year.

WARDS AS REDIVIDED IN 1896.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>OLD.</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th>NEW.</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Estimated Rental.</td>
<td>Male.</td>
<td>Female.</td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>Name of Ward</td>
<td>Rental.</td>
<td>Male.</td>
<td>Female.</td>
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<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>158,000</td>
<td>6,931</td>
<td>1,437</td>
<td>8,368</td>
<td>Dalmarnock</td>
<td>138,285</td>
<td>5,458</td>
<td>1,106</td>
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<td>2</td>
<td>206,000</td>
<td>8,892</td>
<td>1,654</td>
<td>10,546</td>
<td>Calton</td>
<td>155,218</td>
<td>5,201</td>
<td>1,287</td>
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<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>250,000</td>
<td>8,223</td>
<td>1,296</td>
<td>9,519</td>
<td>Mile-End</td>
<td>125,530</td>
<td>5,318</td>
<td>985</td>
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<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>112,000</td>
<td>3,724</td>
<td>960</td>
<td>4,684</td>
<td>Whitevale</td>
<td>155,710</td>
<td>4,873</td>
<td>973</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>230,000</td>
<td>8,020</td>
<td>1,268</td>
<td>9,388</td>
<td>Dennistoun</td>
<td>130,525</td>
<td>4,605</td>
<td>637</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>172,000</td>
<td>2,441</td>
<td>550</td>
<td>2,991</td>
<td>Springburn</td>
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In the above table the effect of the redistribution of wards, carried out in 1896, is shown. It will be seen that while much greater uniformity has been secured under the new scheme, the question of rating value has also not been overlooked, and while the central business wards have the smallest proportion of voters they represent a corresponding excess of rateable value.

On this army of 123,000 devolves the duty of electing the body which, without fee or reward, governs and administers the affairs of a population probably greater than was contained in Scotland during the middle ages, and which deals with a revenue vastly in excess of the total income of the country at any time during its existence as a separate kingdom.
CHAPTER VII.

THE CONSTITUTION OF THE COUNCIL.


The Acts of Parliament under which municipal elections in Scotland are regulated prescribe that, as nearly as possible, one-third of the members of the Town Council shall retire every year. In Glasgow, which is divided into twenty-five wards, each having three representatives, one Town Councillor falls to be elected in each separate ward yearly. It does not follow that every member elected to the Town Council thereby secures his seat for three years, because, while an election must be made in each ward yearly, there are certain events which interfere with the ordinary sequence of retirement. Thus, elevation to the office of Lord Provost or of City Treasurer, carries the right to continue in the Council three municipal years from the date of that preferment. These functionaries therefore do not retire according to the rotation of their election to the Council, and the next in seniority demits office in their place. Should it occur that both Lord Provost and City Treasurer represent the same ward, and are elected to their high offices at the end of their first and second years' councillorship respectively, then the unfortunate third representative will enjoy unmolested possession of his seat for one year only. The death or the resignation of a councillor further involves the obligation of making by the Council an interim appointment, which endures only to the next ensuing election. Should the councillor, whose place is thus temporarily filled up, have been in any other than his third year of office, then, at the statutory period two elections fall to be made.
for the ward, one to fill the place of the representative who retires by rotation, and one to replace the interim appointment. Of the two so selected, the candidate who obtains the fewest votes retires at the end of two years' service, or should there be no poll the Council decides which representative shall retire. The third representative of the ward, who may have been in office for one year, is bound to demit office at the end of the succeeding year. In the somewhat unprecedented circumstances under which the entire Council will fall to be re-elected in November, 1896, for the three years both before and after that date, of necessity one representative alone of each ward will enjoy the three years' period, another will serve only two years, while the third will be required to retire at the end of his first year. On the other hand, a Lord Provost or a City Treasurer may hold his position without appeal to the electors for a maximum period of five years, two years as Bailie or Councillor, and then, on election to either of these offices, three years further, in virtue of that appointment. The object of these legislative enactments is to secure that no common councillor or bailie shall occupy office for more than three years, without submitting himself to his constituents, and also to give every year to the electors the opportunity of appointing at least one new representative should they so desire. Thus, happen what may, no ward is deprived of its right to have an annual election, and should the electors desire it, the luxury of an annual contest. That turmoil and expense may indeed be forced on an unwilling constituency by the ambition or obstinacy of a single person, who may barely be able to get a sufficient number of electors to subscribe their name to his nomination paper.

It must be confessed that, in ordinary circumstances, the average elector values his rights but lightly, and takes only a feeble interest in municipal elections. Under such circumstances it is fortunate, indeed, that in each ward there is found sufficient spirit to organize a voluntary body known as the Ward Committee, the special functions of which are to deal with candidates for office, and in a minor degree, with the elected and sitting representatives of the wards. Ward Committees are of necessity, in the main, self-elected bodies, although they are nominated and recruited at public meetings called for their appointment. Happily, in the interests of local government, these committees are, in general, associated with no political organization. Their bond of union is strictly municipal, and therefore the spirit of party politics is scarcely ever imported into municipal contests sufficiently to give the elections any degree of political significance. Social questions are, indeed, the touchstone in the election of Town Councillors in Glasgow. The several wards have no doubt typical representatives, fully tinctured with their own political preferences, and a candidate who may find ready acceptance in the Exchange Ward might not be looked on with favour, either by committee or electors, in the Calton or the Gorbals.
THE CONSTITUTION OF THE COUNCIL

The Ward Committees, consisting of men who take a lively interest in their own district, discharge also, for the present, the useful function of drawing the attention of the Council to the wants and aspirations of their locality, to the slights and neglects under which it suffers patiently, and to its demands for a fair share of such good things as it is in the power of the Council to distribute. It now and again happens that the ambition of the Ward Committee soars higher, and they aspire to become a power superior to the Council, to guide their deliberations, and to direct members how they should act and vote. With this high purpose in view a kind of official recognition has now and again been demanded. The right of the Ward Committees to be supplied with Council Minutes and official documents has been asserted; but although semi-official and social recognition of their value and services have been freely accorded, the Council has wisely and steadily declined to recognize the claim of such committees to officially discuss their undertakings and to direct their policy. Council work is too responsible for such interference; its details require daily and close attention, and the duties demand the sacrifice of the best part of the time of those engaged in them.

As the period of the annual election approaches, the Ward Committees arouse into a state of bustling activity. In each ward a meeting is held at which the membership of the committee is reconstituted, and on that occasion, or at an adjourned meeting, the representatives of the ward are invited to attend to give "an account of their stewardship." The representative whose period of office is about to expire becomes the subject of special attention should he be a candidate for re-election. While the bulk of the electors recognize with perfunctory thanks the value of the services rendered to them by their representatives, wanting neither to trouble nor be troubled with election contests, there are strenuous judges both in and outside of the Ward Committees, who look with jealous eyes and inquisitive minds on the doings of their representatives. At these electoral meetings, therefore, the whole of the representatives are expected to give some account of their year's activity in the public service. In the more lively wards the occasion is one during which some electoral steam may be blown off in the form of playful but disconcerting interruptions; and the speakers must be prepared to meet the interrogations of hecklers whose questions are not invariably either soothing or pertinent.

In its main features, procedure in connection with the election of councillors in Royal Burghs is uniform throughout Scotland, being regulated by the general legislation of the country, although in Glasgow and several of the other large burghs certain minor modifications of the law have been secured by special or private legislation. The elections, which as regards method of voting, bribery, corruption, treating, etc., are under the same regulations as Parliamentary elections, take place on the first Tuesday in November of each year. In Glasgow, the candidate or candidates for election must be
nominated before four o'clock on the immediately preceding Tuesday. The nomination paper has to be signed by the candidate, by a proposer and a seconder, and assented to by five other registered electors. Up till four o'clock on the Thursday before the election the nomination may be withdrawn by the candidate himself and his proposer or seconder, or by the proposer, seconder, and one assenter. If only one, or in the case of more vacancies only a sufficient number of candidates for the vacant seats are nominated, then no further proceedings are required, and the candidate or candidates duly proposed are declared to be elected when the proper time arrives. But in the case of contested elections, the usual fighting panoply has to be donned, agents appointed, committees formed, canvassing carried on, speeches delivered, promises inconveniently made, electioneering literature issued, and all the usual devices resorted to for stimulating the inert voter. The zeal and enthusiasm of the candidates and their committees are, at every step, curbed and controlled by the thrifty limitations of the Ballot Act. Cautious action and the guidance of a prudent agent are therefore necessities of an electoral contest. The purely official steps connected with an election are registered by statute, and for their many details it becomes necessary to consult a treatise on municipal law such as the elaborate work of Sir James D. Marwick.

The battle being fought out on the fateful first Tuesday of November the votes are forthwith counted, and the results, in Glasgow, are generally known before midnight on the day of election. Next day at noon, within the Council Chambers, the Lord Provost, as returning officer, makes an official declaration of the poll; a certificate by the Town Clerk having been first read to the effect that all the procedure prescribed by the statute has been duly observed. As this certificate in compendious form summarises all the statutory procedure of the public authorities in connection with municipal election, a copy of one may be here given:

"I, Sir James David Marwick, Knt., LL.D., Town-Clerk of Glasgow, acting in execution of the Acts after specified, viz.—'The Royal Burghs (Scotland) Act, 1833,' 'The Municipal Elections Amendment (Scotland) Act, 1868,' 'The Municipal Elections Amendment (Scotland) Act, 1870,' 'The Ballot Act, 1872,' 'The Glasgow Municipal Act, 1872,' 'The General Police and Improvement (Scotland) Act, 1862, Order Confirmation, (Glasgow Act) 1877,' 'The Glasgow Municipal Act, 1878,' 'The Municipal Elections Amendment (Scotland) Act, 1881,' 'The Elections (Hours of Poll) Act, 1885,' 'The City of Glasgow Act, 1891,' 'The Glasgow Corporation Act, 1893,' and other statutes thereanent, DO HEREBY CERTIFY that, under and in terms of 'The Royal Burghs (Scotland) Act, 1833,' Section 8, and 'The General Police and Improvement (Scotland) Act, 1862, Order Confirmation (Glasgow) Act, 1877,' I GAVE NOTICE, on the 25th ultimo, that the annual election of Councillors to supply the vacant places in the Town Council would, so far as might be necessary, take place on Tuesday, the 7th day of
November, then next, betwixt the hours of Eight o'clock a.m. and Eight o'clock p.m., at the places specified in the said Notice, WHICH NOTICE was affixed to or near the door of the Cathedral Church of St. Mungo, within the Royal Burgh of Glasgow, and also inserted at least once in one of the newspapers published in Glasgow, ten days at least previous to the first Tuesday of November, current, being the day appointed by 'The Royal Burghs (Scotland) Act, 1833,' and subsequent Acts of Parliament, for the Municipal Election in the Royal Burgh of Glasgow. AND I DO HEREBY CERTIFY that on or before Four o'clock, afternoon, on Tuesday the 31st ultimo, being the Tuesday immediately preceding the day appointed for the said Municipal Election, I received intimation that the persons named and designed in the Schedule hereto appended, and subscribed by me with reference hereto, were proposed for election as Councillors in this Burgh for the respective Wards therein specified, and that none of these nominations were withdrawn, as authorised by Section 60 of the Glasgow Corporation Act, 1893. I FURTHER CERTIFY that on or before Friday the 3rd day of November current, being the Friday immediately preceding the Election, I caused Public Notice to be given, as provided by 'The Municipal Elections Amendment (Scotland) Act, 1868,' and 'The General Police and Improvement (Scotland) Act, 1862, Order Confirmation (Glasgow) Act, 1877,' of the names of all persons so intimated to me, that such Notice was affixed to or near the door of the Cathedral Church of St. Mungo, within the said Burgh, and also inserted at least once in one of the newspapers published in Glasgow. AND I FURTHER CERTIFY that, in terms of 'The Municipal Elections Amendment (Scotland) Act, 1870,' I gave Public Notice, as directed by that Act, that in respect the number of persons proposed for election as Councillors in the First, Third, Seventh, Eighth, Ninth, Tenth, Eleventh, Twelfth, Thirteenth, Fourteenth, Sixteenth, Seventeenth, Nineteenth, Twentieth, Twenty-first, Twenty-second, Twenty-third, and Twenty-fourth Wards, did not exceed the number of vacancies to be supplied in the said Wards, there would be no Poll in the said Wards, and that the persons so proposed would, on the day appointed for declaring the election, be declared to be elected Councillors of the Burgh.

"J. D. MARWICK, Town-Clerk."

"Glasgow, 8th November, 1893."

After the names of the newly-elected councillors have been declared, the Lord Provost issues an order to summon them to meet in the Council Chamber on the next day, Thursday, at twelve o'clock, severally to declare their acceptance or otherwise of office. They then are called on to produce evidences of being burgesses of the City, and these requirements being satisfied, they subscribe a declaration de fideli administratione officii, and that done they are invested with all the powers and privileges of Town Councillors.
A Town Councillor must not only be a registered elector of the burgh he represents, but he must also be a burgess, if within his burgh a separate Burgess Roll is kept. In England burgess and registered elector are equivalent terms, but it is not so in Scotland, although recent legislation has brought them near to that level. Under the Burgh Reform Act of 1833 a person elected to the office of councillor became entitled to demand admission to the Burgess Roll on payment of the ordinary fee to the Common Good of the burgh. By an Act passed in 1860 it was prescribed that every registered municipal elector was entitled to the status of a burgess on payment to the Common Good of a fee not exceeding in any case £1; but such status does not entitle a person to participate in the properties and revenues of any Guild, Craft or Incorporation within the burgh. The portals of the Burgess Roll, so far as required for a Town Councillor's qualification, were still further widened by an Act of 1876, under which it is provided that all persons liable to be rated for the relief of the Poor, and who have for a period of three years occupied premises and paid Poor and Burgh rates shall be a burgess of the burgh, and continue so to be as long as his qualification endures.

The annual election of councillors being now completed, the Lord Provost directs the whole Council to be summoned to meet the next day, Friday, to fill up the vacancies in the Magistracy, to appoint officials and to elect representatives to the numerous bodies upon the Boards of which the Town Council have members.

On this occasion, the first monthly meeting of the Council for the municipal year, the proceedings are opened with prayer by one of the City clergymen. To this solitary prayer is the direct connection of ministers and presbyteries with the Town Council proceedings now reduced; although at one time prelates ruled the whole Council, and their successors, Presbyterian ministers, dictated to both Council and citizens for many days. Thereafter the Roll of Councillors in the order of wards is submitted, the representatives of each ward being arranged according to seniority, and this list three times twenty-five, together with the Dean of Guild and the Deacon-Convener, seventy-seven all told, is declared to be the Roll of the Council for the year. The Dean of Guild and the Deacon-Convener are, in the Town Council, the one link which connects the modern democratic institution with the good old times. Only seven such ex officio councillors remain in broad Scotland, Edinburgh and Glasgow having each two, while in Aberdeen, Dundee, and Perth the Dean of Guild alone remains as the representative of the ancient paternal government. That they are survivals of the fittest need scarcely be admitted, and were they more numerous there cannot be a doubt that more would be heard about these picturesque relics of the past. We shall see that the Dean of Guild has important duties to discharge, and although both the official and his court may be regarded as anomalies by the uncompromising Radical, our constitution is full of such
interesting anomalies, and after all it is a small sacrifice to make to historic continuity. The Dean of Guild is invariably a gentleman of high social position and influence, and the Deacon-Convener is only behind him in the measure that the crafts have always been, lower in municipal dignity than the merchant rank. For centuries merchants have held precedence over the crafts, and at this late day we must not seek to disturb the ancient order. We may quote, but we cannot be held as sympathizing with, the sentiments expressed in the "Report on Municipal Corporations" by the learned Thomas Thomson and his fellow commissioners. "We have been unable," say they, "to discover any reason why these particular corporations should be endowed with that extraordinary privilege. In the towns where that anomaly exists even more generally than in those of inferior class, the members of these corporations are also, with perhaps a few exceptions, qualified electors under the Statute, and the practical result must be to bestow on them a double share of representatives in the Town Council of the Burgh. These we cannot but regard as an evident departure from the general principle and spirit of the Act, and we therefore beg leave to recommend that those seats ex officio should be taken away, and these councillors should be replaced by election."

Once in every three years it becomes the first duty of the Town Council to appoint a Lord Provost. While it is open to any member of the Council to propose for that office any councillor he may name, in general an understanding is arrived at some time before the period of election as to the gentleman on whom the honour shall be bestowed, and any public contest or division is thereby avoided. The Lord Provost, immediately he is elected, takes the declaration de fidei administratione, is forthwith invested with the insignia of office, and takes the chair, which up to this point has been occupied by the Senior Magistrate. As already pointed out, a member of the Town Council on his election to the office of Lord Provost thereby secures his seat for three years from the date of such advancement, regardless of the time at which, as an ordinary councillor, he would have been called on to retire, or to submit to re-election. It goes without saying that if the dignity of the office is great, the duties both officially and socially are many and onerous. The Lord Provost of Glasgow is the First Magistrate of the City, and for the first appointment at least, he has been made Lord Lieutenant of the County of the City. As President or Chairman of the Council he has a deliberative and, in case of need, a casting vote in all deliberations and decisions. He is ex officio a member of all the Committees of the Council, and he is by courtesy entitled to a seat on all the principal boards at which the Town Council is represented. He is a member of the Glasgow University Court, and there is scarcely a society or institution in Glasgow, from a boys' football club upwards, which does not consider it has a claim on his services, patronage and assistance. He is called on to preside at, or to take other part in, the meetings of innumerable charitable and religious societies, and at public lectures and entertainments.
He is expected to open, and perhaps more than open, bazaars and fancy fairs. Artistic, Scientific, and Industrial Associations have a claim on his patronage and services. The official duties and engagements of the Chief Magistrate, it will be well understood, make such demands on the thought and time of the occupant of the office as leave him scant leisure for other business of any kind, and trench severely even on the opportunities for the enjoyments of home-life and the intercourse of private friends.

Next in order of election at the Council meeting, from which we have been digressing, comes the filling up of the vacancies in the Magistracy to the complete number of fourteen bailies of the City and Royal Burgh. A bailie when elected continues to hold office only so long as his term as a councillor has to run, which may be from one to three years, but in general those who hold the magisterial office for a period less than the full three years' term are re-elected, and thus they may enjoy five years of magisterial office. It has become a recognized practice to hold a private meeting of councillors the day previous to the election, at which, after due informal deliberation, an understanding is arrived at as to the names to be put forward for the vacancies in the Magistracy and the other offices which fall to be filled up. Of course such an understanding does not affect the right of any councillor to nominate any member of the Council; but such a thing rarely occurs, and has naturally small chance of success.

The Council thereafter proceeds to the appointment of a Treasurer of the Burgh, should that office be vacant, and that appointment, when made, carries with it, as in the case of the Lord Provostship, a seat in the Council for the full period of three years, so that the official elected, although he may be in the second or third year of his councillorship, does not fall to be re-elected till three years more have expired. The Treasurer is ex officio convener of the Finance Committee of the Town Council, but the active duties of the Treasurership, in modern times, are discharged by the City Chamberlain.

In precedence and dignity the River Bailie and his depute come next. The office of River Bailie is, in Glasgow, one of immemorial antiquity. The position was recognized, continued, and confirmed by the charter of Charles First in 1636, and ratified by Statute in November, 1641, as well as by subsequent Acts in the reigns of Charles Second, and William and Mary. The jurisdiction of the River Bailie is similar to that conferred by local Admiralty grants to several of the east coast burghs. He and his depute take cognizance of crimes and offences committed within the Harbour of Glasgow and in the River and Firth of Clyde from the City to the Cloch Lighthouse. In the early part of the seventeenth century the office of River Bailie appears to have fallen into a low state through the appointment thereto of "divers decayed and depauperat personnes," and with a view to the rehabilitation of the office to the laudable and worthy estate wherein it once was, the Council, in 1635, resolved that one of the best sort and rank in their
body should be elected hereafter to the Water Bailieship. Thereupon the conditions of election to the office, the period of tenure, and the nature of the duties were settled, and Colin Campbell younger was elected Water Bailie, and it was ordained that the office should carry with it a fee of £10 yearly in all time coming. That munificent sum, £10 Scots, it need scarcely be said, does not in modern times attach to the office.

The newly-elected Bailies, Treasurer, River Bailie and his depute now come forward and declare their acceptance of office, and, making the statutory declaration de fidei administratione, are invested with the insignia of office. Thereupon the Magistracy and Town Council of Glasgow for the following year are complete.

Under the City of Glasgow (1891) Act the Town Council acquired special powers to appoint members of Council who had previously held the office of bailie to be judges in the Police Court along with the staff of magistrates. Nominations for these judicial functions are next made, and, as a rule, all the ex-bailies are appointed to discharge such duties.

Then follows the filling up of minor offices and of vacancies in numerous Boards on which the Council is represented. Among these are the position of Master of Works, an office which at one time implied important public duties, which are now discharged by salaried officials, the City Engineer and the Master of Works. On the Clyde Navigation Trust the Town Council has nine representatives, with the Lord Provost as Chairman of the Board. Managers, Governors, and Directors are appointed to the several public infirmaries, hospitals, and asylums, to educational trusts, House of Refuge, Juvenile Delinquency Board, Court House Commission, public libraries, etc.

As a purely honorary office, the Bailie of Provan falls to be elected, and this office also is a memorial of times long gone past. At one time, as we shall see, the Town Council were owners and superiors of the Barony of Provan, but of that fine property all that now remains to the Corporation is a mill and certain water rights in Hogganfield and Frankfield Lochs, from which a small revenue is obtained. About the beginning of the eighteenth century the Council parted with substantially the whole property, but they retained the shadow in the form of the nominal superiority and the right to appoint a Baron Bailie. That right they betought themselves in 1734 to exercise, and ever since they have kept up the practice, conferring the empty dignity on some venerable ex-member of the Council. The office confers no rights, it is absolutely without duties or responsibilities, and it only serves as a memorial of one of the most gigantic examples of mal-administration which we find in the records of the good old times of close corporations and reckless expenditure.

The numerous salaried officials who hold office during the pleasure of the Town Council are then appointed. In this category the present Town Clerk does not come, he holding his appointment ad vitam aut culpam, although,
under the provisions of the Glasgow Corporation and Police Act of 1895, that office will, in future appointments, also be subject to the will of the Council. The appointments made embrace the offices of City Chamberlain, City Engineer and Surveyor, six Assessors in Police Court, Assessor and Clerk to River Bailie Court, Procurator-Fiscal to Burgh Court and Dean of Guild Court; Procurator-Fiscal of Police, Procurator-Fiscal to River Bailie Court; Assessor under Lands Valuation and Registration of Voters Acts; and the business appropriately winds up with the appointment of a Warden of the burying-grounds of the High Church and St. David's Church.

At a subsequent meeting the various committees of the Town Council, with their conveners and sub-conveners, are appointed. These embrace the Finance Committee, a committee in charge of the Bazaar, halls, public clocks and bells of the City, a committee to deal with churches and churchyards, the property of the City; and a committee on Parliamentary Bills promoted by the Corporation, and which affect the Community. Committees are also appointed to manage (a) the Tramways, (b) the Mitchell Library, (c) the Municipal Buildings, (d) the Gas and Electric Lighting undertakings, (e) parks, gardens, galleries, and museums, and (f) an Executive Committee of the Local Authority under the Contagious Diseases (Animals) Act. These committees in their turn appoint, when necessary, their own sub-committees, and so the wide and comprehensive duties of the Town Council are divided up and allocated.

Such are all the officials and committees which the Town Council, till the year 1895, appointed qua Corporation. Previous to the passing of the Glasgow Corporation and Police Act in that year, the Council was a protean body, and while one in personnel, under various Acts of Parliament they were statutory Commissioners or Trustees for special objects. In these capacities their powers and duties were separate and distinct from those they had as an ancient Municipal Corporation. Thus, as Water Commissioners, as Markets and Slaughter House Commissioners, and as Improvement Trustees, they were three separate and distinct bodies acting independently of each other and of the Town Council. The Police Commissioners also were the Town Council under another name, carrying on their multifarious duties at meetings of their own, with their own committees, and a staff of officials separate and distinct from that which serves the Town Council proper. As Parks and Galleries Trustees, and also as Gas Commissioners, the Town Council acted under the powers conferred by the Acts regulating these Trusts in their corporate capacity. They never met as Parks Trustees nor as Gas Commissioners, the Council appointed committees, as we have seen, for supervising these Trusts, and the general acts and resolutions of the Council applied to them so far as relevant. Under the powers conferred by the Glasgow Corporation and Police Act (1895), the various separate Trusts, the Police Commissioners, the Water Commissioners, the Markets and Slaughter House Commissioners, and the Improvement Trustees will hereafter be in the same position as the Parks
Trustees and the Gas Commissioners. All are now consolidated into one body, the Corporation of Glasgow, and while for the facilitating of business, for organization, for control of expenditure, and for the statement of accounts, all these departments must be managed by separate committees, these committees will be committees of the Corporation, and it will be competent for the Town Council as a corporation to deal with the affairs of any or all of them at any ordinary meeting regularly convened.
CHAPTER VIII.

THE HOMES OF THE COUNCIL.


A romantic if somewhat melancholy interest attaches to the vast and stately Town Halls of certain Continental cities, where grass-grown squares and deserted apartments attest that the bustle and activity of growing life have passed away from them. The great piles are monuments of a glory which has been, they are an expression of the civic patriotism of men of other days, and in their long experience they may have been the scene of momentous occurrences. They are monuments of the periods of growth and prosperity of the cities which they appear to dominate; they remain an object of pride and veneration to the citizens; but they also serve to accentuate the sense of the decline and decay of civic activity and power.

No such charm of hoar antiquity attaches to the Town Hall—to what we modestly name the City Chambers—of Glasgow. The City has not yet reached the period of equilibrium which precedes decay, nor is there any appearance of the approach of such an era. Its institutions and its erections, with the notable exception of the Cathedral, are modern and even of the present day. Nor is it a matter for wonder, in a community which has increased seven-fold within a century, that the public buildings should in the main have sprung up within that time. The Municipal Buildings of Glasgow, indeed, offer a remarkable illustration of the growth of the population, and the increase of the public work of Glasgow. No fewer than four times within about eighty years have the municipal offices been removed to larger premises; and already the huge building, within which the hammer of the builder has
barely ceased to resound, is taxed to find accommodation for the various
departments housed within or seeking admission to it.

The earliest home of the Corporation of Glasgow of which we have
definite knowledge was the Tolbooth, the site of which is still indicated
by the crown-capped tower—"the Cross Steeple" and the adjacent building
at the Cross of Glasgow. That this building took the place of an older
Tolbooth we learn from meagre records and allusions. Among our ecclesiastic-
tical superiors that more ancient erection was known as the Pretorium; but
the Council and the community gave it that more familiar and expressive
name of the Tolbooth, a term spelt by our ancestors in many fantastic
ways, but the plain meaning of which clearly indicated the original and
principal use of municipal buildings in early times. We know also that it
was possessed of a clock, and as to the fate of the building we have definite
information, while, from the fact that the magistrates haggled over the pay-
ment of three hundred merks (about £16 8s. sterling) for its demolition, we
may infer something as to its extent. The Council minutes of 11th Feb-
uary, 1625-6, contain the following paragraph: "It is concludit that the
proveist and bailleis deill with John Boyid and Patrik Colquhoun anent the
downtaking of the Tolbuithe, and to sie quhat can be gotten doun af
thirc hundreth markis as thai have alreadie offerit to tak doun the same
for the said sowme, and als to deill with Johne Neill, knok maker, to mak
ane new knok, and to try the pryce, and als to deill with the tennentis of
the buithes under the Tolbuithe thai may remove." That the provost
and bailies were successful in obtaining a reduction on this estimate is
evident from the fact that, on 18th March, an order was given to pay
"wrichts and masonnes twa hundreth and fiftie markis for the dountaking
of the Tolbuithe as thai aggreit thairfois." So disappeared the first Tol-
booth or Council-house of Glasgow. The next, which served for well-nigh
two hundred years, comes almost within the recollection of living men; its
steeple still adorns the Cross, and a good deal of its form and appearance
are reproduced at this day in the buildings erected over the original site of
that second Tolbooth.

That the removal of the old Tolbooth did not occupy long time is
evident from the fact that, on the 15th March, 1625-6, a brief month after
the provost and bailies were chaffering as to the cost of taking down the
old erection, the foundation stone of the new building was laid on the site
of that demolished. The Council records have this entry: "The grund stane
of the Tolbuithe of Glasgow was laid. The workmen ar thais: Johne Boyid,
maister of the work (and eleven others), maisteris of the maisones; servandis,
James Johnsson (and five others); printeisses, John Stutt (and six others)."

There were no architectural competitions, no measuring of plans, and no
estimates from rival tradesmen, at the building of the Tolbooth in 1626-7.
Who the architect was is even a matter of conjecture, although it is more
than probable that the above-mentioned Mr. John Boyd, Maister of the Work, had the principal responsibility for the architectural features of the structure. On 27th September, 1627, when the building was completed, the Council "ordanes John Boyd, Maister of the Work, to haue fra the thesaurer, for his bountethe and deligens in building the Tolbuithe, the sowme of ane hundrethe pundis money to be payet by the thesaurer to him." Under the

supervision and direct orders of the Council, materials for the structure were purchased, the men employed were paid day's wages by the Council, and the only contracts made were for sharpening mason's irons, and for providing the new clock; both of which contracts were departed from, because, according to the simple-minded views of the times, the contractors would otherwise have been losers by their bargains.

The Tolbooth was really a very handsome and picturesque building in the Scoto-French manner of the period, four storeys in height over a basement storey, the top level of which was reached by an external double staircase. On the east side of the building, facing High Street, was the tower or steeple terminating in an open crown surmounted by a lantern. Writing in 1634, seven years only after the building was opened, Sir
William Brereton says: "The Tolebooth, which is placed in the middle of the Town, and near unto the Cross and Market Place, is a very fair and high built house, from the top whereof, being leaded, you may take a full view and prospect of the whole City. In one of these rooms or chambers sits the Council of this City; in other of the rooms or chambers preparation is made for the Lords of the Council to meet in these stately rooms. Herein is a closet lined with iron walls, top, bottom, floor, and door—wherein are kept the Evidences and Records of the City, this made to prevent the danger of fire. This Toleboote is said to be the fairest in this kingdom."

And one hundred years later M·Ure, the original historian of the City, thus describes the building and its internal arrangements: "The Townhouse or Tolbooth is a magnificent structure, being of length from east to west 66 foot, and from the south to the north 24 foot 8 inches; it hath a stately staircase ascending to the Justice Court Hall, within which is the entry of a large turnpike or staircase ascending to the Town Council Hall, above which there was the Dean of Guild's Old Hall; but now is turned into two prison houses for prisoners of note and distinction. The Council House is adorned with the effigies of King James VI., King Charles the I. and II., King James VII., King William and Queen Mary, Queen Anne, King George the I. and II., all in full length, and a fine large oval table, where the Magistrates and Town Council and their Clerk sits. The first story of this great building consists of six rooms, two whereof are for the Magistrates' use, one for the Dean of Guild's Court, and another for the collector of the Town's Excise. These apartments are all vaulted from the one end to the other, and there is a new addition built, appointed for a quorum of the Council to sit, in order to determine and despatch all such affairs as may be expedite without the consent of the whole; but above all, the King's Hall is the finest, the length whereof is 43 foot 11 inches from east to west, and from south to north 24 foot, and the Turnpike upon the east end. In this great building are five large rooms appointed for common prisoners; the steeple on the east end thereof being 113 foot high, adorned with a curious clock all of brass, with four dial plates; it has a large bell for the use of the clock, and a curious set of chimes and tuneable bells which plays every two hours, and has four large touretts on the corners thereof, with vanes finely guilded, and the whole roof is covered with lead. Upon the frontispiece of this building is His Majesty's Arms, finely cut out, with a fine dial, and below the same is this Latin inscription:

'HAEC DOMUS
ODIT AMAT PUNIT CONSERVAT HONORAT
NEQUITIAM PACEM CRIMINA JURA PROBOS.'"

In 1737 an important adjunct—a Town Hall—was erected by the Council on the west side of and communicating internally with the Tolbooth.
The basement consisted of a rusticated arcade, with caricature heads on the keystones of the arches, the arcade forming the beginning of the celebrated piazza, which continued to be a feature of the east end of the Trongate till past the middle of this century. With alterations which have obliterated the arcade, the erection still remains the property of the Corporation, and is used as a drapery warehouse. The Town Hall itself had, we are told, a coved ceiling, and was "done up in an elegant manner." The walls latterly were decorated with trophies and the full length portraits mentioned by M'Ure, with the addition of those of George III., Archibald, Duke of Argyll, and of Flaxman's Statue of Pitt, which are now to be seen in the Corporation Galleries of Art; and there was also a bronze bust of George III., which has disappeared. The Town Hall was used for all important public and municipal functions and festivities, and its public career was closed on 6th September, 1854, with a banquet, on the occasion of the inauguration of the equestrian statue of Queen Victoria, by Baron Marochetti.

The Tolbooth itself had in the meantime long disappeared, and on its site was erected the building which now covers that historical corner, and which is a happy imitation of the old structure. By Cleland, we are told, it was sold in 1813 to himself for £8000, being at the rate of more than £45 per square yard; "under the express stipulation that he should take down the old building, and erect a new one conformable to a design of Mr. David Hamilton, Architect, ornamented with turrets and embrazures, so as to keep up a similarity to the old tower of the jail, which is still preserved."

It was in 1807 that the inadequacy of the Tolbooth buildings was first officially recognized by the Council. On 15th February in that year Mr. James Black, Dean of Guild, moved the appointment of a committee "to examine into the state of the jail, and to satisfy themselves whether it would be expedient to have a new one in some more eligible situation, and if so satisfied, to select a site and architect or architects, with instructions for making out a plan of a new Jail, Court Hall, Council Chambers, Clerks' Chambers, and other conveniences, to procure estimates of cost, and the probable sum that may be realized from the sale of the buildings to be vacated, and to report." On 1st November in the following year Mr. Black, now elevated to the office of Lord Provost, was appointed chairman of a new committee, to deal with the question of a new building and its site, and shortly thereafter, on 6th January, 1809, their recommendation, that the new structure should be erected on the Laigh Green, in line with the intended continuation of Saltmarket Street, was unanimously adopted by the Council. Immediate action was taken to carry out the resolution of the Town Council: the Government was applied to for a grant in aid on the double plea that the City had recently made a present to the Government of a large piece of ground for barracks, and that the jail instead of serving the City only had become a general king's jail.
for the whole of the West of Scotland. These pleas had no effect on the imperial exchequer, and Glasgow had, unaided, to face the cost.

Three architects of acknowledged ability, Mr. Robert Reid, Mr. William Stark, of Edinburgh, and Mr. David Hamilton, were invited to send in plans; and those submitted by Mr. Stark were selected. Unaltered in its external features the very graceful and finely-proportioned Doric erection of Stark still forms a beautiful screen to the western extremity of the Green. The foundation stone was laid, with municipal pomp, on 10th September, 1810, by Lord Provost Black, and in 1814 the buildings were completed and taken possession of, the entire cost having amounted to almost £35,000. Writing at the time Cleland observes: “These buildings contain halls for the several courts, and ample accommodation for the civil and criminal establishments. The entry to the gaol is by the west front. This department consists of two spacious courts, 74 fire-rooms, 58 cells, and 2 apartments for prisoners under sentence of death, so completely cased with iron that it is not necessary to subject the criminals to personal irons, as is done in almost every other gaol in the Kingdom. There is also a chapel, a military guard-house, and apartments for the keeper of the gaol’s family. Four cast-iron cisterns, calculated to contain 14,776 gallons of water, are placed on the top of the prisons, from which the several apartments and water-closets are supplied. Prisoners are received from the counties of Lanark, Renfrew, and Dumbarton. They amounted, in 1815, to 1172 persons, viz., 367 debtors, 525 male criminals, and 239 female criminals, and 41 deserters.”

The growing City was not long in outstripping the accommodation of the building at the Green, which, moreover, planted on the very boundary
of the municipality, while the tide of population was running towards the opposite extremity, was found very inconvenient for public business. The indefatigable Cleland, in 1829, proposed that the municipal offices should be removed to the position then and still occupied by St. George's Church in Buchanan Street, where might be provided "a spacious Town or Guild Hall, a Council Chamber, a Burgh Court Hall, Committee Rooms, and Offices for the judicial and civil offices of the Corporation." This proposal, which at the time amounted to planting the public offices on the western limits of the City, was not entertained, and it was not till 1835 that any practical resolution for providing new buildings was arrived at. After much negotiation an understanding was arrived at between the City and County authorities for the promotion of a measure to erect, at joint expense, a building adequate for the municipal business of the City, and for the judicial

work of both City and County. The result of this agreement was the passing of an Act constituting a new body, the Glasgow Court-house Commissioners, composed of 13 representatives of the Town Council and 12 County representatives, authorized to erect buildings sufficient for the wants of the municipality and for the accommodation of the Sheriff and Justice of Peace Courts and offices of the County. After considerable delay a public competition for a building on the site in Wilson Street, between Hutcheson Street and Brunswick Street, was announced, and the selected
plans were the work of Messrs. Clarke and Bell. The foundation stone was, with due solemnity, laid by Lord Provost Campbell on 18th November, 1842, and in 1844 the structure, at a cost of £54,000 was ready for occupation.

The building provided by Messrs. Clarke and Bell is a classical work of fine proportion and much solid dignity. The principal elevation towards Wilson Street is of imposing character, with its graceful Ionic portico, frieze and pediment rising over an elevated podium, or basement, happily ornamented with a belt of relief figures. Originally the interior was bilaterally divided, the eastern section being appropriated for the Sheriff Courts and Chambers and County offices, while the western division was set apart for municipal offices and Council Hall.

On the removal of the municipal offices from the foot of the Saltmarket the building there was entirely devoted to jail and Court-house business.

The vacated municipal offices were altered and fitted for jury and witness rooms; and from time to time considerable improvements were effected within the building; including the provision of a Second Justiciary Court Hall, whereby two Circuit Courts can conduct business simultaneously in the Glasgow Circuit.

Only for a very brief space was the building in Wilson Street found sufficient for the work of both the municipal and judicial authorities; and again in 1868 an Act was obtained sanctioning the acquisition of the remainder of the block between Wilson Street and Ingram Street, including the Merchants’ House and Guild Hall, and the removal of the municipal offices to the Ingram Street end of the block. After the passing of the
Act strong differences of opinion arose within the Council as to the sufficiency of the site appropriated for the work of the City. A party, led by Lord Provost Rae-Arthur, favoured the promotion of a Bill to acquire the whole of the east side of George Square for Town buildings; but on 10th November, 1870, the Council, by a majority, resolved to go on with the Ingram Street scheme as already sanctioned by Parliament. Messrs. Clarke and Bell were entrusted with the duty of finishing the block which, thirty years earlier, they had begun; and the elevation they provided towards Ingram Street, with its colonnade of six Corinthian pillars and its corresponding six statuary figures over the entablature, was a less happy design than its Wilson Street counterpart. The additions and alterations cost upwards of £50,000; and in 1874 the Council, with the Town Clerk, the City Chamberlain, and the City Engineer and Architect, and their respective staffs, took possession of the Ingram Street City Chambers.

The walls of the new building were not yet dry where it was perceived that a grievous error had been committed. Not only had the City continued to expand with unexampled rapidity, adding thereby to the responsibilities of the Council, but within the previous quarter of a century the functions of the Council and the departments under their control had multiplied amazingly. Within that time the Police of the City had been handed over to the Council: and they had also assumed the care of the public parks, galleries, and museums. They had taken over the rights of the Water Companies and the sole control of the water supply; they had become Gas Commissioners and Markets Commissioners; a huge Health Department had been organized, a City Improvement scheme had been initiated, and they had also begun the construction of the Glasgow Tramways. Offices and departments were scattered all over the City, and it was perceived that, for unity of aim, supervision, and control, it was absolutely necessary to concentrate under one roof, the staffs dealing with these varied interests, or at least to provide offices for their representative officials. The Ingram Street offices were therefore, almost from the first day, looked on as a temporary makeshift.

In 1877, for the fourth time within seventy years, the Town Council, on the motion of Lord Provost Bain, resolved in favour of removal to larger premises. The scheme propounded by Lord Provost Rae-Arthur for acquiring the east side of George Square this time found favour; and without opposition an Act was, in 1878, obtained, with powers of compulsory purchase over the two blocks from the east side of George Square, between George Street and Cochrane Street, crossing John Street, and terminating in the east with Montrose Street. The powers for acquiring the block between John Street and Montrose Street were, however, allowed to lapse, and the rights of the Council became restricted to the section extending from George Square to John Street, covering altogether a square space of 242 feet side or about 1 1/4 acres. That valuable ground was obtained at a cost of £173,000.
THE HOMES OF THE COUNCIL

In March, 1880, conditions of competition and a set of sketch plans, prepared by Mr. John Carrick, City Architect, were issued, and designs in accordance were publicly invited. It was specified that the building should not exceed £150,000 in cost, and three premiums of 750, 500 and 250 guineas respectively were offered to the architects who should secure the foremost three places in the competition. Sir Charles Barry was appointed arbiter, and from the 96 sets of designs submitted to him on 30th August, 1880, he selected three, placing in order of merit the work of Mr. Corson of Leeds, Messrs. Coe & Robinson of London, and Mr. Edward Clark also of London. Principally on account of the insufficiency of the estimated cost this competition was deemed unsatisfactory, and it was resolved to issue new conditions and revised sketch plans, and again to invite the competition of architects. In the second competition Sir E. Barry and Mr. Carrick were joint arbiters; and out of 125 sets of designs submitted they had to select ten, and in terms of the conditions of competition the authors of these, indicated by their mottoes, were invited by public advertisement to take part in a final limited competition. On the 26th of June, 1882, the arbiters issued their reports on the designs received from the ten selected architects, placing four in order of merit, and the Town Council approving of their choice, it was found that the author of the design placed first was Mr. William Young, a native of Paisley, practising in London.

The foundation stone of Mr. Young's building was laid with masonic honours, and amid a vast concourse of citizens, by Lord Provost Ure on 6th October, 1883; and the work being vigorously carried on by Messrs. Morrison & Mason, the principal contractors, the structure was in condition for inspection by Her Majesty during her visit to Glasgow in August, 1888, in connection with the International Exhibition of that year. The total cost of the structure, including site, furniture, and fittings, has been £540,000, or adding interest on payments made while the building was in progress the cost is raised to £590,000.

Mr. Young's work shows a carefully composed, but somewhat formal series of elevations, Venetian in character. It has four external elevations, one to each street or place—George Square to the west, George Street to the north, and John Street to the east, and Cochrane Street to the south. The principal elevation and main entrance is in George Square; there are carriage entrances to the quadrangles from both George Street and Cochrane Street, and there are numerous subsidiary entrances around the building, all parts of which connect internally with staircases and corridors. It is quite unnecessary to give any verbal description of the skilfully varied features, but harmonious ensemble of the four elevations. Suffice to say that all around the ground-floor and entresol built of rusticated masonry, are knit together as a lofty basement over which the more varied and rich features of the principal and upper floors rise in stately form. In the lower stories are located the
principal business offices, while the third or principal floor gives accommodation for the Council Hall, the grand banqueting room with its attached reception room and salon, and various Committee rooms of the Council, the Library, the apartments of the Lord Provost, the Burgh and Guild Hall, and certain of the public offices. Judicial business has, from the new City Chambers, as the building is modestly designated, been entirely excluded, except in so far as the Guild Court and the Burgh Court, may be said, in these days, to be judicial. Extensive as is the accommodation, it is already fully occupied; while for the administrative offices of the Health Department, a large separate building is being provided in Montrose Street; and the Tramway's staff has been obliged to occupy extensive premises in Renfield Street. Indeed it is already manifest that the Council was ill-advised in allowing the grasp they had, by their Act of 1878, of the block between John Street and Montrose Street to slip out of their hands. A portion of the ground they have been obliged to acquire for the Sanitary Offices, other parts of it already they could have profitably used; the City continues to grow, the duties and functions of the Council go on increasing; new spheres of municipal enterprise are opening up; and in the best interest of the City it is to be hoped that the demand for increased municipal house-room may long continue.

A photogravure of the principal elevation of the City Chambers, the George Square front, forms the frontispiece of this volume.
CHAPTER IX.

THE CORPORATION: ITS WEALTH AND ACTIVITIES.


The tendency of modern legislation has been to bring municipal government more and more strictly under the authority of Parliament, and to give direct statutory recognition and sanction to many functions and undertakings which, in early times, depended for their validity on use and wont, or on the vaguely recognized laws and customs of burghs. Hence it happens that many of the duties which the Glasgow Town Council formerly discharged generally as a Corporation are now defined and specified in local enactments; and, as we have seen, these are entrusted to the Council acting as trustees, or commissioners under special statutes. In this way the ancient prerogatives of the Corporation have to some extent been limited and abridged; and certainly, at this day, the greatest and the most laborious functions of the municipal rulers are discharged, not as by the ancient Corporation, but as by trustees and commissioners constituted and acting under modern Acts of Parliament. The powers and duties of the Council acting under such statutes are strictly limited and defined: as a Corporation there are no such restrictions on that body. The Corporation of Glasgow is the owner of large and valuable properties. It has been the recipient of many legacies which it is bound to administer in accordance with the terms of the bequests. It has to shape the policy of the City in regard to new and general legislation; it has the large general duty of defending the rights of the citizens and the interests of the City in their relation to the enterprises of railway and other public companies, and to all operations which interfere with the right of property, public or private; and it has to maintain the honour,
dignity, and position of the City among the cities and burghs of the Kingdom. To several of the greater enterprises of the Corporation, such as the working of the tramways, the management of the public halls and the bazaar, and its relation to the City Churches and to education, special chapters will be hereafter devoted. Here we concern ourselves with the Corporation as the manager and owner of a large estate. We regard it as we would an enlightened overlord, defending the rights and seeking the good of his vassals; as a prudent, broad-minded administrator, looking well to the future while not neglecting the duties of the present; as an enlightened pioneer of progress, ever willing to give the benefit of acquired experience to others; and as a generous and hospitable host, ready to entertain guests from afar with dignity and grace.

The property and revenues of the Corporation which are not held under special Acts of Parliament, nor raised by taxation, constitute the "Common Good" of the City. Some portion of it is held and administered for specific purposes, and is subject to onerous payments for objects and services, the maintenance of which was among the original conditions of the grant of the property. In some cases the expenditure, notably in relation to the City Churches, far exceeds the income derivable from the properties. Other revenues of the Common Good are collected merely in trust and must be devoted to the special objects for which the mortifications in the hands of the Town Council were made. Certain ancient sources of revenue have disappeared altogether, and with them have also disappeared some of the obligations of the mediaeval Corporation. Outstanding as a valuable asset are various wrecks of the ancient property of the Corporation, and after the many chances and changes of the centuries there remains to the City a substantial credit balance which may be looked on as the private wealth of the Corporation, private, that is, in the sense that the Council are under no statutory obligation to administer the free revenue for one public purpose more than another, that they can hold and accumulate the surplus if they so will, or devote it to any public object which a resolution of the Council sanctions and the official auditor passes; only, like every other Corporation property, a statutory account—charge and discharge—must be made up and published each financial year.

The official valuation brings out the total assets of the Common Good of the City at 31st May, 1895, at £1,330,000, of which £650,000 is represented by heritable property, and £680,000 consists of movable assets. Against that there are to be reckoned £970,000 of liabilities, leaving a clear surplus—the wealth of the Corporation—of £360,000. The valuation, it is fair to say, is on the modest and safe side—it does not take into account certain public properties, notably the City Churches, which, although built and maintained out of Corporation revenues, are not, under present circumstances at least, a realizable asset, nor has the value of the annual payment
of £9000 which, by arrangement, the Tramways Committee now make to the Common Good been capitalized and included in the Corporation assets. The liabilities of the Common Good are principally in the form of mortgage debts to the extent of £317,000 and of temporary loans held from banks, from private lenders, and from several public and official bodies more or less intimately related to the Corporation and its undertakings, such loans amounting to a little more than half a million sterling. In the liabilities are also included numerous mortifications mostly of small amount, held and administered by the Corporation as a public trustee, the whole capital value of which, however, little exceeds £10,000. The Common Good is further burdened with a yearly payment of £570 to Glasgow School Board on account of the High School, which represents a capital sum of £14,250. It holds on open account of charitable and other public funds over £63,000. Of feu duties payable and bonds over heritable property the Common Good is liable for nearly £16,000, and numerous other minor sums in the account bring the total liabilities up to £970,000.

The heritable assets embrace a number of properties to which more detailed reference will hereafter be made, such as the Bazaar and the several Corporation Markets, valued at over £150,000; the lands of Coplawhill £125,000; building ground skirting Alexandra Park; Provannmill and water rights on the ancient Provan estate; certain houses purchased with the view of controlling rights of servitude over open spaces; the lands of Dalmuir, valued about £123,000; Blackhill estate £20,000; St. Andrew's Halls and neighbouring grounds, on which a sum of £63,000 has been expended; feu duties and casualties £110,000; and heritable bonds, etc., for £3,600; the whole heritable property as above stated being valued at almost £650,000.

The principal movable asset consists of advances made for the construction and equipment of the Glasgow Tramways, the amount of which at 31st May, 1895, was £528,000. The capitalized value of the annual payment of £1500 from police rates, made under statute on account of the abolition of petty customs ("the ladies"), is £37,500. A historical wreck of £20 yearly comes from Port-Glasgow shore dues, which is capitalized at £500. The Corporation owns £12,200 of Caledonian Railway four per cent. debentures, and it holds four and a half per cent. annuities on £1400 from the Corporation Water Works, also a historical investment representing the original share of the City in the undertaking of the first Water Company. On account of advances to various Corporation departments and public bodies, the Common Good has at its credit £96,000. Outstanding feu duties, rents, interest, and accounts represent the balance of the movable assets, bringing the total heritable and movable estate and property of the Corporation up to the respectable sum already mentioned, £1,330,000.

The ordinary revenue of the Common Good for the year ended 31st
May, 1895, was £50,850, while the ordinary expenditure did not quite reach £40,000. The extraordinary expenditure amounted to £2742, of which nearly £900 was incurred in festivities connected with the visit of the Channel Fleet; but against that an extraordinary payment of £2250 was received from the surplus of the Town Clerk's Fee Fund, so that when all accounts were squared there remained a balance of more than £10,000 on the credit side of the year's intromissions, which went to swell the capital wealth of the Common Good of the City. The various items of ordinary revenue and expenditure for the year are thus summarized in the City Chamberlain's accounts:

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<th>ORDINARY ACCOUNT</th>
<th>EXPENDITURE</th>
<th>REVENUE</th>
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<td>Ecclesiastical Department—</td>
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<td><strong>£1,684 18 11</strong></td>
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### Ordinary Account

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**Total Expenditure:** £13,783 13 7

|Educational Department,| ...|
|Criminal Department,| ...|
|Interest,| 24,208 5 0 ½|

**Total Revenue:** £35,314 4 11

**Balance—Excess of Ordinary Revenue:** £54,133 16 5 ½

The ancient sources of revenue of the City were dealt with in a previous chapter. Of these the most productive were the petty customs levied on produce and provisions entering the City, and the mulltures derived from the thirlage of the citizens to the Corporation Mills. These revenues have in modern times entirely disappeared, petty customs, “the ladles,” having been abandoned by the Council in 1834, but in lieu thereof the Magistrates and Council (Police) became bound to pay annually out of the police rates to the Magistrates and Council (Corporation) a compensation of £1,500, which amount goes to swell the Common Good. The “Issues of the Court” which at one time were a Corporation receipt have, during the present century, disappeared from the Corporation accounts; and in their place there are now what is vulgarly known as Police Fines and Forfeitures, which go to the reduction of the expenditure on the Police of the City. There still remains an ancient source of revenue from which a driblet of two or three hundred pounds continues yearly to pour into the exchequer of the City—that is, the proportion effeiring to the Municipality of Burgess and Freedom Fines, or the fees paid on the entry of a burgess. We have already seen that to become a burgess of Glasgow, in a sense sufficient to qualify for the office of town councillor, it is now only necessary to have been an occupier of premises and a ratepayer for a period of not less than three years; but such qualification does not entitle its holder to entrance to any of the Incorporated Trades, nor to enjoy any of the privileges flowing from attachment to the Trades' House and the Incorporations. Every candidate for
admission to any of the Trade Incorporations must first be entered as a burgess of the City, and it is therefore through the Incorporations that the meagre amount collected yearly as Burgess Fines is obtained. Candidates for admission to the Merchants' House do not require to qualify as burgesses in order to become members of that ancient body.

In mediaeval times the City of Glasgow was possessed of real property which, properly farmed and held to the present day, would have made the Corporation rich beyond the dreams of avarice. But at frequent intervals the City was in the very severest straits for ready money, and bit by bit its valuable and ancient heritage was disposed of to satisfy present wants. In consequence, very little of the ancient heritable possession of the community has continued in the hands of the Council to the present day; and now it is not possible to say with any certainty even what were the bounds of the common lands of the burgh, what other heritable properties the City possessed, nor the character and amount of the teinds, etc., acquired by the City at or after the time of the Reformation.

In the Report on the Common Lands of the City presented to the Council by Sir James D. Marwick in 1891, the conclusions of that learned authority are thus stated:

"The common lands of the burgh which, to distinguish them from the existing Glasgow Green, may be termed the 'ancient common lands,' consisted of (1) the Easter Common, including Garngad Hill, extending northward in an irregular shape from the Cathedral to the locality now known as Springburn, bounded on the east by the Garngad Burn, and extending westward to the Wester Common; (2) the Wester Common, extending in an irregular shape from the Easter Common westward to a boundary intersecting the lines of New City Road, North Woodside Road, and Garscube Road, and bounded on the north by a line roughly continuous with the northern march of the Easter Common. The lands of Cowcaddens and Provanside, situated on the south-east of the Wester Common, probably at one time formed part of that Common, and adjoined the built-on area of the burgh; (3) the Gallowmuir, extending from the eastern boundary of the burgh, as above described, eastwards as far as what is now known as Camlachie; (4) the Green, known as the Old Green, extending along the north side of the Clyde from the buildings in Bridgegate and Stockwell Street on the east to St. Enoch's Burn at St. Enoch Square on the west; and (5) a croft, known as Broomielaw Croft, situated along the north side of the river, and bounded by St. Enoch's Burn, dividing it from the Old Green, on the east, and the site of the present Anderston Quay on the west, and the old Anderston Road, now Argyle Street, on the north."

From the teinds of the Archbishopric which had been granted to the Commendator of Paisley certain portions were in 1646 acquired by the City for the sum of £20,000 Scots, with 2000 merks more to be paid on the
saler attaining his majority. To raise this amount the Council granted boids to several wealthy citizens as recorded in the Council Minutes of date 20th May, 1648.

"It is statute and ordanit, forsameikle as the towne hes endit the bargane with the Lord Blantyre and his curatouris for his teynds of the personadge of Glasgow, and for the pryce thairof sould pay twentie thousand pundis money with tua thousand merkis farder at Blantyes majoritie and ratificatioun of thair richt, and becaus for the present they have no money to pay the said sowme of twentie thousand pundis money, thairfor it is condiscendit and aggreit to borrow the samyne fra the persones efter speci- feit, and that the provest, baillies, and counsell subseryve bandis to them for repayment thairof, with assignatiounes to ane proportionall paart of the teyndis effeirand to thair sowmes for thair farder securitie, viz., fra James Stewart of Crystwall and his spous, elleivine thousand merkis, frae James Stewart, tutor of Castelmilk, sax thousand merkis, frae Margaret Inglis, relict of vmquhill Patrik Bell and James Bell, hir sone, fyve thousand merkis, frae James Bell, late proveist, four thousand, and fra the collector of the Merchant Hospitall, four thousand merkis. And als ordaineit to geive band for pay- ment of the said twa thousand merkis provyding the Lord Blantyre ratifie thair richt of the saids teynds at his perfect age, conforme to the tennor of the said band."

In 1656 a rental book was prepared for the Town Council, from the mention of which in the minutes dated 13th September of that year some idea may be gained of the heritable possessions of the City at that period. The minute states:

"Thair was publictly red be Williame Yair ane rentall book drawin vpe be him, containing thairin the tackis of the landis of Eister and Waster Commouns sett be the towne, the coill heughe, the manufactorie, the smiddle in Briggait, the hospital in Gorbailis and rentall thairof, the natoure of the tounis right of the tyndis of the speiritwalitie of the Archbischoprick of Glasgow, containing ane particular rentall of the tynd tack dewteis of the landis of Garingade, Hartisfeild, Skillingsmyre, Gallowmuiris, Borrowfeild, and quhat is not sett and sett thairof, with the rentall of the tyndis of Flyming- toune, with the tynd of the persoune land and few dewteis thairof, with thais landis in the Barrownie parosch allocat to the ministers, with the rentall of the tyndis of Drymen, quhairof the maist paift are sett in tackis, and how long, and the numer of the landis not sett in tackis, with the present conditionie of the tyndis of the parosch of Drysdaill, as also ane doubill of the hail tackis sett be the Lord Blantyre and his prediccessouris of a paart of the tyndis of the personadge of Glasgow befoir he made bargane with the towne, as also the number, natoure and qualitie of the hail bursareis of theologie and philosofie in the collode at the tounis gift and presentatioun." When and how the bulk of these properties fell out
of Corporation control and ownership it would now require much research to discover.

In the year 1650 the Town concluded a bargain with Sir Robert Douglas and his wife, Dame Susanna Douglas, for the "Six pound lands of Brig-End and Gorbals," a purchase about which the Council had been nibbling for nearly twenty years. The terms agreed on and to which the Council came up by degrees was a payment of 120,000 merks, £80,000 Scots, with additional 2000 merks for Dame Susanna. The purchase made by the Town was divided into four equal shares, two of which went to Hutcheson's Hospital, one to the Incorporations, and to the City itself the remaining share. Within a few months thereafter Sir Robert Douglas was paid 50,000 merks towards the price, to which sum the Crafts contributed £15,302, the Hospital £14,031 6s. 8d., and the Town £4000 Scots. About four years later Sir Robert appears to have been pressing the Council for the unpaid balance, when the clerk was instructed curtly to point out to him that the Town was in straits to pay its other creditors, that the bargain had not turned out so profitable to the Town "as he should mak so muche din for that whilk is restand," and withal that the Town would attend to him at its best convenience. At first, indeed, the bargain turned out a serious burden both to the Hospital and to the Crafts. Owing to the unprofitable return the former body had been obliged to break up the Hospital School, to send the few children they supported back to their parents and relatives, and to dismiss the schoolmaster. The Crafts similarly found themselves in great straits, deprived of all revenues, while "decayed brethren did greatly multiply." They therefore obtained the sanction of the Town Council to increase the fees payable by strangers on their entry as Freemen to the various Incorporations. But with the progress of time the investment in the Gorbals land turned out, to all parties to the purchase, a remarkably satisfactory and remunerative transaction. A short time after the lands were acquired some effort was made to divide them up according to the proportions acquired by the Hospital, the Crafts, and the Town. No agreement, however, was arrived at, and the whole lands continued to be joint property till 1790. For a considerable portion of this time, not only were rents derived from the surface of the ground, but lordships also were obtained for the working of the coal in the lands; and the annual revenues were divided in proportion to the holdings of the three bodies. In 1788 the parties interested agreed to submit the question of the division of the surface, retaining the coal as joint property; and the arbitrers divided and laid off the same into four parts as equal in quantity, quality, and value as they could. By direction of the arbitrers lots were drawn for these parts, when the patrons of Hutcheson's Hospital obtained the first and second choice, the third selection fell to the Trades' House, leaving Hobson's choice to the City. Under a subsequent arbitration it was decided that, for the superiority of the whole
Barony with the rights of bailliary and justiciary, the Town Council should assign the sum of £1200, whereof £500 should be paid to Hutcheson's Hospital, and £250 to the Trades' House. The remaining £450, it was arranged, should be paid over in similar proportions to these two bodies unless the Town Council should, before Whitsunday, 1796, sell by public auction as much of the superiority as was required to make two freehold qualifications to vote for the representative of Lanarkshire in Parliament. In that event the Council were to retain the £450, paying in lieu thereof to the Hospital and the Trades' House three-fourths of the price obtained for the superiority so disposed of. It may be noted that the magistrates did not then enter into this arrangement, but in 1829 they sold as much as constituted two county votes, receiving therefore £3204 from Lord Douglas on 5th March, 1830, a purchase which the passing of the Reform Act soon thereafter rendered entirely valueless.

The profitable nature of the investment made in 1650 may be estimated from the experience of the Trades' House and Crafts in connection with the portion of the property, Tradeston, assigned to them in 1790. The whole of their land has been now either feued or sold. For the sold portions they obtained £12,425, and for the portions feued there is derived an annual revenue of £4975 with a duplication each nineteenth year. Such a return for a property which 250 years ago was acquired for a sum of £1743 13s. sterling is a marked testimony to the marvellous increase in the value of land in and around the City. The investment in the case of the Hutcheson's Hospital has been even more profitable, for that Corporation now derives from its double portion an annual revenue of about £17,500, and as a heritable asset its Gorbals lands, yet to dispose of, are very moderately valued at £375,000. The return to the City does not, at present, appear so favourable; a large portion of the ground allotted to it is yet unfeued, but from feu duties nearly £2500 is annually drawn, from rent of unfeued ground £500 is yearly received; to the Tramways Committee, about £10,000 worth of land has been sold, and as a feuing subject the land which there yet remains unappropriated is moderately valued at about £125,000.

In 1668 the Lordship and Barony of Provan were acquired by the Town Council from Sir Robert Hamilton of Silverton Hall. The manner in which the common lands and other heritages of the City were frittered away and lost to the community by the malversations of a corrupt and incompetent ruling body is illustrated by the treatment of this fine property. On 10th July, 1691, within 25 years of its acquisition, a supplication was made to the Convention of Royal Burghs by the Provost of Glasgow, stating "that of late the said burgh is become altogether incapable of subsistance, in regard of these heavie burdens that lie thereupon, occasioned by the vast soumes that have been borrowed by the late magistrates, and the misapplying and dilapidation of the town's patrimony in suffering their debts to swell, and imploying the
comon stock for ther oune sinistrous ends and uses, wherein if the petitioner should be express in the particular, it wold exceedingly tend to the dishonesty and disparagement of those whose dewy it was to have been the patriots and supporters of the place." Therefore he represented "that there wes ane absolut and indispensal necessity for the present magistrates to sell and dispose of a great part of their patrimonie, especially the lands and barronie of Provan, towards the defraying of ther most urgent and pressing debts, and without doeing thereof they cannot propose any personall security from the toune creditors, nor will ther be any persons found to represent the toune in the office of magistracie till they be secured from legall diligence, which can only be done by disposing of ther patrimonie to a present sale, and therefor desiring the convention to interpose ther authority and grant warrant to the present magistrates and councill of Glasgow to sell and dispose ther saids lands of Provan, and such other lands or few duties, as belong to them, to be employed for payment of the foresaid debts, as the supplication bears; Which being considered be the convention they hereby interpose ther authority and grant warrand to the present magistrates and councill of Glasgow to sell and dispo ther saids lands of Provan to be employed for payment of the debts owing be the said burgh of Glasgow."

Again, on 2nd July, 1729, the Convention remitted to a committee a petition from the Burgh of Glasgow "setting forth the low state of the said burgh, and craving the authority of the Convention for feuing out certain lands for the purposes therein mentioned, and praying that the Convention would be pleased to give them such furder relief as they should think proper." On the following day the committee reported that it would tend to the benefit of the burgh to grant the petition, whereupon the Convention authorized the Town Council to feu the lands and barony of Provan, or any part of their commonty to the best advantage.

From the case of M'Dowal, of Castlesemple, against the magistrates of Glasgow, 18th November, 1768, it appears that the lands of Provan were feued out by the magistrates from time to time; and at last the Town, being oppressed with debt, sold the whole of the feu duties to M'Dowal at a price above forty years' purchase. But the purchaser, being doubtful of his title, instituted proceedings in the Court of Session to have it found that a Town Council had no power to alienate the Common Good, and that, in particular, the Council of Glasgow were prohibited from alienating the estate of Provan by the terms of their charter, which contained a clause annexing and incorporating the lands with the burgh, to remain inseparably therewith in all time coming. The court, however, held that the lands, purchased by the Council in 1668, were alienable by their successors in office; and they remitted to the Lord Ordinary to see the price applied for payment of debts.

The value of the Provan property in 1692 is stated as more than five
times greater than that of the Gorbals, and although these relative proportions would not hold good at the present day, yet it is evident that an estate of enormous value to the City was frittered away and lost by the proceedings above indicated. And there cannot be a doubt that the case of Provan is only an instance and example of the manner in which other properties of great value were lost to Glasgow.

Among the heritable property of the City which properly belongs to the Common Good is to be included the Glasgow Green. No part of the Green, it appears from the report of Sir James Marwick, was included in the ancient common lands of the Burgh, and the whole area, as it now exists, was acquired by purchase between 1662 and 1792. The Green, as it now exists, was purchased, not as an investment, but from the first it was the purpose of the Council to form the lands they acquired at that place into "ane commoune greine for the utilitie and profeit of the inhabitants." The way in which the property was acquired and added to, and the various fortunes of the Green, will be noticed when we come to deal with the public parks of Glasgow, of which it is the first and chief.

From these facts it will be seen that the ancient common lands of the City and the heritable property it at various times acquired were very extensive, and there is no doubt that had the property been rigorously administered in the interests of the public the Corporation might now have been in the enjoyment of a princely revenue, and Glasgow would have been one of the wealthiest cities in the kingdom. The Common Good as it stands cannot, therefore, be held to be a legacy bequeathed by the care and prudent forethought of our forefathers, but rather it is the insignificant wreck of one of the noblest ancestral properties in Scotland.

Two recent purchases of land have been made from the funds of the Common Good, but neither of these was of the nature of a heritable investment. In December, 1875, the lands of Blackhill, 70 acres in extent, lying to the north-east of the City, beyond Alexandra Park, were acquired for the price of £24,760. At that time an increase of prison accommodation was one of the melancholy necessities of Glasgow and the district associated with the City in the North Lanarkshire Prison Board. The estate was acquired by the Corporation in the expectation that it would prove an eligible site for the new structure which had become indispensable. But before preliminaries were arranged and building faced, there occurred the revolution in prison management initiated by the Home Secretary (R. A. Cross) in 1877, whereby the Prisons of the country were placed entirely under the control of the Imperial Government. The prison of Glasgow was found and declared to be inadequate, and the local authorities were called on to compensate the Government for the ascertained deficiency at the rate of £120 for each cell under the required number, an impost which has cost the City nearly £40,000. Not only that, but Glasgow found herself
left with the undesired Blackhill investment on her hands, for the Government planted their new buildings at Barlinnie, and what Glasgow Town Council intended should be a prison has in the meantime been converted into a golf course.

In May, 1877, the lands of Dalmuir and Mountblow, extending to 237 acres, on the north bank of the Clyde, near New Kilpatrick, were purchased from the Common Good for £106,000. At that time it was thought the great undertaking of purifying the Clyde was imminent, and a good site for sewage purification works was recognized in the property. For several years thereafter the sewage question was dormant; but the success of the experiment on a large practical scale at Dalmarnock brought the great question within the range of practical undertaking, and now the treatment of all the sewage on the north bank of the river is being arranged for, and Dalmuir will, with the sanction of Parliament, be transferred to the Police Department and used for the purpose which those who bought it had in view. The property divides itself naturally into shore ground lying between the Forth and Clyde Canal and the river, embracing 126 acres, and high level land, 111 acres, stretching up to Mountblow House. It is the low level shore ground which will be used for the Sewage Purification works.

Acting under special statutes, the powers of the Town Council are limited by the special terms of the Act they administer, but as a Corporation, as we have said, the Magistrates and Council are free to undertake what they consider necessary for the welfare of the community. As a Corporation, it is in the power of the Council to initiate special legislation for the ever-increasing requirements of the City, and the great Trusts now administered by the Council were formulated, promoted, and fostered by corporate enterprise. The necessities of a city such as Glasgow in many matters of civic government and police are in advance of, and different from, the demands of the country as a whole. It thus happens in many instances that powers have been conferred on the Magistrates and Council of Glasgow more comprehensive and stringent than those granted under the general police legislation of the country. In this way Glasgow, as well as other great cities, has been a pioneer in legislation since, frequently, the powers first demanded by, and conceded to, the City have in course of time been extended to the country at large.

But it is not only their own legislative undertakings which demand the attention of the Corporation of Glasgow in their Parliamentary relations. The property, rights, and privileges of the citizens are subject to perpetual assault by the schemes of Bill-promoting companies, by private associations, and by individuals who seek to obtain to themselves Parliamentary sanction and monopoly for objects affecting the public service and welfare. In this connection, it is the dealings of the great Railway Companies which
require to be most closely and jealously scrutinized. Great centres of population are at once the chief trouble and chief source of revenue of the Railway Companies; and to obtain facilities for their traffic they would unhesitatingly disregard public convenience and private right, were their operations not carefully observed by local authorities. And at all times associations and companies are springing up, thirsting to serve the human race and to pocket 10 per cent. by their philanthropic zeal. The operations of such associations begin sometimes in a manner humble and innocent enough; and before either magistrates or the public are well aware of their existence, they may have so rooted a monopoly and the right of public recognition that they form a very troublesome obstacle in the attainment of some general public benefit. While these adventures and adventurers require to be watched with a jealous eye, it is fair to say that such speculative associations and companies are frequently the pioneers of schemes of great public usefulness and social benefit. Untrammelled as they are by the fear of the ratepayer, and free to risk the loss of their money, while all the time hoping for substantial gain, they can investigate and experiment in ways from which a Town Council is precluded. For many reasons it is forbidden for a Council to be a pioneer, and it is only when the public benefit of an invention or of an undertaking has been fully demonstrated and established that councillors are warranted in taking up such device or scheme.

The telephone may be cited as a case in point. When that invention was merely in its experimental stage, no community would have dreamt of demanding municipal control for its development. Even when it passed that stage, and a few tentative wires were stretched in Glasgow by private enterprise, it appeared a simple and entirely harmless undertaking calling for no municipal interference. But when the heavens began to be darkened by countless wires, when the lives of street passengers, in stormy weather, were placed in jeopardy, when the roofs of vast stretches of property were being trampled over without leave obtained, and when a gigantic monopoly was firmly established by a private company, then came the necessity for municipal inquiry and supervision. And when the genuine and enduring public usefulness of the invention was demonstrated, then arose the question whether it should not be placed, by license, under municipal control. Had it been demonstrated that the range of the invention was confined to the limits of a city alone, and that connections, linking together the empire, were impracticable, then a good case might be made out for the municipalization of the telephones; but immediately it was demonstrated that Glasgow can be telephonically linked with Edinburgh, London, and Dublin, the absolute right of the State as final authority became unquestionable.

In its corporate capacity the City of Glasgow has a high and well-merited reputation as a hospitable and generous host. We live in an
MUNICIPAL GLASGOW

age of conferences, conventions, and associations, and there is not a con-
ceiveable charitable, educational or scientific object which has not now its
protective and fostering association, seeking year by year the patronage
and protection of some great municipality. To all such associations, showing
any substantial claim to perform useful public work, the City is ready to
extend cordial welcome, though it must be said that the multiplicity of
conferences renders the task of entertainment somewhat tiresome. A city,
as well as a private host, has a right to choose its guests, and that right
has hitherto been exercised in Glasgow with generous discrimination. The
entertainment of individuals eminent in the service of the State, of bene-
factors to the City, or of leaders in thought and action, is also a recognized
duty of the Corporation, which it discharges with adequate hospitality and
grace. The highest tribute of respect it is in the power of the municipality to
offer to any person is to confer on him the freedom of the City. This dis-
tinction, of course, is purely honorary, but therefore much more highly
prized, and more sparingly conferred than, when in early times, it was
accompanied with substantial rights and privileges. That in the conferring
of such honours the Corporation is not animated by any political motive
is evident from the list of honorary burgesses enrolled since 1880. It
embraces men of all shades of politics, and men eminent in very different
walks of life. The succession of names is sometimes remarkable. Sir
Stafford Northcote, the Duke of Albany, and Mr. W. E. Forster entered
in 1882; John Bright and the Marquis of Lorne were enrolled in 1883;
H. M. Stanley and Lord Rosebery were made burgesses in 1890; the
Marquis of Salisbury and the Marquis of Bute in 1891; Lord Roberts
in 1893; Sir George Trevelyan early in 1894; and Mr. Arthur James
Balfour, received in 1896, is the youngest honorary burgess.

The entertainment of distinguished personages, the Monarch, members
of the Royal Family, and foreign princes and potentates belong to a different
category. In these cases it is the City which is honoured, and the con-
descension is duly appreciated and esteemed.

The charities of a Corporation cannot be dispensed in the manner and
for the purely personal purposes of the benefactions of wealthy individuals,
and when a city makes a gift it must be as impersonal as the donor, and
in aid of some adequate public object. It was not always so with the
gifts of the Corporation, for in the ancient minutes such entries as the
following are of frequent occurrence: "to ane puir man," "to puir Inglis
men," "sustentation of ane puir woman in the tolbuith," "to ane gentleman
called Frisson," "to ten Dutchmen quha was robit be pirotis," "to five
puir Frenschmen," and so on. Such entries as these would scarcely satisfy
the exacting eye of the modern auditor.

The Common Good charities of the Town Council take the form of
subscriptions to local associations and societies for the promotion of purely
public purposes such as Agricultural and Horticultural Societies, the Humane Society, Hospitals, etc. Occasionally, in exceptional circumstances, large subscriptions have been made from the Common Good for public purposes, e.g., as when in 1867 £5000 was subscribed towards the building fund of Glasgow University. But even for the relieving of pressing and extensive public distress the Common Good is never now drawn on, and as we shall have occasion to show the Lord Provost and Magistrates in semi-official character find a much more productive and perennial source of help in the general body of the citizens, when an appeal is made under the too-frequently recurring conditions of widespread distress and destitution.

The Lord Provost and Magistrates have been constituted the trustees and administrators of numerous mortifications, bequests, and gifts, the capital sums of which are in the City Treasury or invested by the Corporation. These, of course, are administered for the special and diverse educational, religious, and charitable purposes for which the funds were originally bestowed, and the position of the Town Council towards such endowments is little more than that of a public trustee. Under this head the most important Trust is the Mitchell Library Funds benefactions, which will be dealt with in a separate chapter. Several educational mortifications of considerable amount, formerly administered by the Town Council, have now, by order of the Educational Endowments Commission, been handed over to the charge of a special body, the City Educational Endowments Board, and these also will be subsequently dealt with. The others scarcely call for any special comment. Their capital value is for the most part limited in amount, one fund being no more than twenty guineas, and the total is only about £70,000. These Trusts are no source of profit to the Corporation; on the contrary the interest allowed on the capital sums is much in excess of the amount realized from ordinary investments. The list embraces the Hospital of St. Nicholas, the most ancient charitable organization in Glasgow, dating from the middle of the fifteenth century; but the institution is now represented by the meagre capital sum of £712, from the proceeds of which a few doles of £3 yearly are paid to certain aged citizens. The Magistrates and Council also hold in trust an entire island in the west of Argyllshire, the Island of Shuna, bequeathed by Mr. James Yates in 1829 under the condition that one-fifth of the free annual rents be retained by the magistrates, to be applied "either in public buildings or the melioration of those already built, or in any other charitable or useful purpose" within the City; two-fifths to the University for the Chairs of Natural Philosophy, Moral Philosophy, Botany, and Mathematics; one-fifth to the Anderson's College, and one-fifth to the Public Infirmary of Glasgow.

But while some of the Trusts are of hoary antiquity and may have an interest in the history of the community, and some possess other features
of interest, in no case is the Trust of large public importance, nor does any one require comment in relation to its administration by the Corporation. In relation to these funds the hands of the Council are tied; and what might be suggested to pious donors, who contemplate making the Council their Trustee, is that they might fitly and safely leave much greater latitude in the destination of their benefactions than has been done by testators who have passed away. What is at this moment a good cause and a pressing necessity may in a few years have lost both validity and urgency, and charitable funds inflexibly ear-marked may become a perplexity and a nuisance. The Town Council, popularly elected and acting under the fierce blaze of public criticism, is not likely to mal-administer Trust funds, and were the Council tied by the spirit only and not by the letter of a Trust the stream of charity might be directed along a more beneficient and fertilizing course than is now possible in administering many small Trusts.
CHAPTER X.

MAGISTRATES AND JURISDICTIONS.


Between the Town Council of Glasgow and the police of the City the magistrates form the connecting link. As is shown in another chapter the Police Establishment of Glasgow, when instituted, was placed under a Board entirely distinct from the Town Council. It is only within quite recent years that the Town Council became, through identity of personnel, virtually the Police Commissioners, and indeed it was not till November, 1895, that the Commission was merged in the Council, and became the Police Department of the Corporation of Glasgow. But through all the ninety-five years that the Police Board or Commission thus existed as a separate body the bailies of the City were constituent members of the Board, and the Lord Provost was ex officio its chairman. It was indeed in connection with the conduct of the police business of the City that their magisterial activity, specially in latter days, was principally exercised.

The supreme magisterial control of the City we have already seen was, in early times, in the hands of the bishops and archbishops. After the Reformation it was only by slow degrees that entire and undisputed right to appoint the magistrates passed into the hands of the Town Council. It is curious to find that the reformed clergy no sooner felt their power securely established than they began to assert and to exercise co-ordinate judicial authority with the Civic Magistrates. The General Session of Glasgow assumed jurisdiction over the manners and morals of the people,
with the right to inflict corporal punishment, to levy fines, and to imprison for breaches of the moral law. The better to consolidate their power the session in 1599 enacted that, in future, all chosen provost and bailies should be enrolled as elders for their year of office. Under the Presbyterial enactments all breaches of the seventh commandment were punished with varying degrees of severity, from carting through the town up to ducking in the river, imprisonment, etc. For scolding women—flyters—the session appointed the punishment of the branks and jougs, all games were strictly prohibited on Sundays, failure to attend church met condign punishment, as did also the habit of profane swearing and "banning."

With such ecclesiastical assistance a provost and three bailies managed the ordinary judicial business of Glasgow, civil and criminal, in mediaeval times. With the growth of the City the number of magistrates from time to time increased, and the power of the Kirk Session as a co-ordinate civil magistrature declined till all appearance of authority over person or estate on the part of the ecclesiastical authorities was extinguished. Local jurisdictions are now confined to the Justices of the County of the City, to the Dean of Guild Court, to the magistrates, and to the sheriff and his substitutes. It is with the strictly municipal body, the magistrates, that we have now to deal.

Under the City of Glasgow Act, 1891, by which the boundaries of the Municipality were extended over a number of previously constituted Police Burghs, etc., it is ordained that "the number of magistrates of the City and Royal Burgh shall be fifteen, of which one shall be Lord Provost and fourteen bailies." These magistrates are elected by the Town Council from their own number, they continue in office for three years, or for such shorter period as they remain members of the Town Council without re-election. They have, of course, all the privileges and duties of Town Councillors, and in that capacity they possess no exceptional rights beyond the courtesy of precedence on the Council roll. But as magistrates they are invested with special powers and functions, which are above and apart from the office of Town Councillor, and in their magisterial capacity their actions are not subject to the review of the Council. The magistrates, invested in chains and robes of office, are answerable for their judicial and other official acts only to the supreme courts of the country, or to Her Majesty's Secretary of State for Scotland.

In the progress of time the rights and duties of the bailies have undergone fundamental changes with changing conditions, but from first to last their central function of maintaining the King's peace has never varied. More by desuetude than by actual abolition or change of law, many judicial functions formerly appertaining to the magistrates have now ceased to be exercised. And, moreover, a good deal of the magisterial interference that was brooked during the seventeenth century would not, at the end of the nineteenth, be dreamt of by the most conservative and paternal of bailies.
On the other hand, modern progress and the complexities of modern life have called into existence an almost boundless range of duties and obligations for a magisterial bench, which had no existence nor counterpart in the slower days, and under the more primitive ways of our forefathers.

Till quite recent times the Burgh Court of Glasgow, presided over by the magistrates, and guided by the Town Clerk as assessor, exercised civil jurisdiction in personal actions involving sums not less than 30s., and ranging up to unlimited amounts. In the early years of the century as many as 2000 such cases were dealt with in the course of a year, but by 1830 the number had fallen to about 700 yearly. The bailies also held a weekly small debt court, under the assessorship of the Town Clerk, dealing with civil claims of from 5s. to 40s. In the year 1812 there were adjudicated upon, but in 1830 the number had fallen as low as 400. These figures must not be taken to indicate a decrease in the litigiousness of the Glasgow public in that interval, for it was only the growing power of the Sheriff Courts which induced complainers to seek in them the legal redress and assistance which in the earlier days they obtained through the Burgh Courts alone. In these later days the activity of the Burgh Civil Court, which meets twice weekly, is confined to the issue of warrants of ejectment against troublesome tenants.

In criminal jurisdiction likewise no less radical have been the changes. In former times there existed in Glasgow a Burgh Criminal Court, the whole work of which now has been absorbed—on one side by the Sheriff Court and on the other by the Police Courts. In the early part of the century the Burgh Criminal Court dealt with about 500 cases yearly; in 1820, a year of much excitement and unrest in Glasgow, there were more than a thousand criminal causes heard before the court. By the year 1832 the number had decreased to a little more than one hundred.

In virtue of their office the town clerks of Glasgow were clerks and assessors in the Burgh Criminal Court, and they also claimed and exercised the same rights in the Central Police Court, which was the original Police Court of the City. That right was recognized by the Burgh Extension Act of 1846, under which powers to appoint assessors to the district courts then established was granted, and the rights of the town clerks to sit as assessors in the Central Court were reserved. These rights they continued to exercise till under the Police Act of 1862 they were abolished, and compensation was granted to them for loss of office. This criminal jurisdiction on the part of the magistrates of Glasgow is now no longer exercised, and, beyond the interesting ejectment proceedings in the Burgh Court, the judicial duties of the magistrates are restricted to and regulated under the Police Acts of the City, which form a series of statutes extending from 1866 to 1895.

The statutory duties of the magistrates are discharged by them partly in their corporate capacity, and partly as individuals. Under the Police Act
the magistrates are constituted a distinct committee under the chairmanship of the Lord Provost for the discharge of certain statutory duties which devolve on them as a body. In their individual capacity they act as judges in the Police Courts, or in any other judicial function competent to Burgh Magistrates. In the discharge of their important and laborious duties of dealing with police crimes and offences, the magistrates have the assistance of certain Town Councillors, to whom magisterial functions of a restricted nature may be specifically committed. Under Section 22 of the City of Glasgow Act, 1891, the Town Council are empowered to appoint any of their number who have already held the office of Lord Provost or bailie to act as Judges of Police, and such appointments, when made, continue valid as long as the judges so appointed continue to be members of the Town Council without re-election. In this way a large supplementary body of councillors are endowed with limited magisterial authority, enabling them to occupy the bench in any Police Court in the City, and to exercise all the functions competent to the River Bailie. In a city where courts are numerous, and the calendar of police offences is extensive, this relief to the magisterial staff is of great value. Under the Sheriffs Substitute (Scotland) Act of 1875, powers were obtained also to appoint Stipendiary Police Magistrates for Glasgow, and in that year an appointment was made to the office, the Stipendiary taking the work of the Central and St. Rollox Courts. But on the death of the first incumbent of the office no application was made to the Scottish Secretary for a new appointment, and it was only under the Corporation and Police Act of 1895 that modified provision was made for regulating the office and duties of the Stipendiary Magistrate. Should the Corporation now desire that office to be re-established, they are empowered to make application to the Secretary for Scotland for the appointment of one or more such officials, and for each new appointment a separate application has to be made. These Stipendiary Magistrates when appointed hold office during Her Majesty’s pleasure, and they have all the jurisdiction and powers competent to the bailies as magistrates. It is also ordained that they shall be ex officio justices of peace of the county of the City, and they may be called upon to perform the duties of such justices.

The statutory duties of the Magistrates Committee are varied and important. They are the source and centre of all police power and activity in the City. To them in conjunction with the Sheriff of Lanarkshire is assigned the duty of appointing the Chief Constable of the City, and they have also the right to inquire into his conduct, and if they see cause to dismiss him; but under certain conditions there is an appeal to the Lord Advocate. They appoint the Registrar of Police and the Inspectors of Weights and Measures, and they retain the power of dealing with these inspectors and with the Superior Officers of Police whom the Chief Constable has power to suspend only. The Magistrates Committee has also the sole power of
appointing special constables, who may be called out on occasions of emergency to aid the police in suppressing rioting and in dispersing tumultuous crowds. To the Magistrates Committee is also entrusted the right to send, on the requisition of competent authorities, detachments of constables to districts or counties beyond Glasgow, in cases of emergency or serious disturbance of the peace. The Chief Constable has also the same power of sending assistance to authorities outside the municipal limits when he deems the circumstances demand prompt and immediate help.

The issuing of certificates and licenses forms an important feature in the duties of the Magistrates Committee. Apart from their functions in connection with the public-house licenses, regulated by the general legislation of the country, the Committee have under the local Acts the duty of licensing persons for the carrying on of various pursuits, trades, and occupations affecting the public. They have the supervision of the persons holding such licenses or certificates, and power is granted them to suspend and to revoke or cancel any license during the period of its currency on cause shown. The Glasgow Police Acts require that all owners and drivers of hackney carriages, cabs, stage coaches, and tram-cars shall be licensed by the Magistrates Committee. Every person who desires to retail gunpowder and fireworks must first have a license for his premises and for himself personally, and every individual carrying on the trade of broker, pawnbroker, street porter, public carter or carrier, and chimney sweep must do so under the sanction of a license issued by authority of the Committee. Under the Police Act of 1892 they are made the licensing authority for theatres, public shows, and public billiard rooms, their license is required for the erection of sky signs; and they also, under various statutes, make bye-laws for lodging-houses, for the regulation of Glasgow Green and for the ordering of trace boys and men in connection with the tramway service in the City. For the conditions under which such certificates and licenses are granted and held there are numerous and detailed provisions, and penalties are exigible for trading in any such capacity without license, and the infraction of any of the conditions is punishable with varying severity up to forfeiture of license. The licenses continue as a rule good for one year from date of issue, and once every two weeks or thereby courts for the consideration of applications are held by the magistrates.

Under the City of Glasgow Act, 1891, it is provided that the magistrates of the City and they only shall have the right to grant, transfer, and renew public-house certificates under the various Public-houses and Publicans Certificates Acts, subject to the confirmation of new certificates by the Joint Confirmation Committee and to the right of appeal to the justices in the case of any license, whether granted, renewed, or refused. The Confirmation Committee is a statutory body established under the Publicans Certificates Acts of 1876 and 1877, and it consists of three burgh magistrates and
three justices of peace of the county of the City. The principal licensing
court of the year is that held in April at the time when the whole of the
licenses fall to be renewed, and before the term at which the changes in
tenancy and occupancy principally occur. At stated periods throughout the
year, generally six times, licensing courts are held, at which licensed premises
which for any reason change hands during the currency of the year are
dealt with, and the licenses, if transferred, hold good till the following spring
licensing court.

The Magistrates Committee are also invested with power to take special
measures for the prevention and mitigation of infectious disease, to order
proprietors to carry out any work reported as essential by the Medical
Officer of the City, and to impose penalties for neglect to carry out their
orders. They are also empowered to frame bye-laws for the regulation of
public lodging-houses, to secure their periodical white-washing and cleaning,
for promoting proper ventilation therein, and for securing the separation of
sexes, and enforcing of order and good conduct on the part of those occupy-
ing them.

But the principal scene of magisterial duty at the present day is in the
Police Courts of the City. Excluding the Marine Police Court, which is
presided over by the River Bailie and his depute, there are distributed
throughout the City eight separate Police Courts corresponding with the different
divisions and stations of the police. These are the Central District Court,
corresponding with the Central Police Office and A Division of the Force,
the Western Court with B Division, the Eastern Court with C Division,
the Southern Court with D Division, the Northern Court with E Division,
St. Rollox Court with F Division, Queen’s Park Court with G Division,
and Maryhill Court assigned to H Division. While the bailies had the
assistance of a Stipendiary Magistrate for Police Court duties, the work of
the Central and St. Rollox Courts was performed by that official, and as a
temporary arrangement the duties of these two courts may be said to be in
commission for the present and are generally confided to the Police Judges,
ex-bailies appointed to that office under the City of Glasgow Act, 1891,
as already mentioned. The business of the other courts is so arranged
that daily duty falls upon four bailies only, and in the discharge of his
judicial duties each magistrate has the assistance of an assessor who sits
with him and also acts as Clerk of the Court. The staff of assessors at
present numbers six, who, with one exception, are qualified solicitors in
practice in Glasgow, although the provisions of the Act under which they
are appointed do not demand any specific qualification.

The public prosecutor in these Police Courts is the Procurator Fiscal of
Police, an officer appointed under the Order Confirmation Act, 1877. Under
the provisions of that Act the Chief Constable, the District Superintendents,
and the Police Lieutenants are, in the absence of the Fiscal, entitled to
prosecute in his stead, and the practical consequence is that in all district courts the local official, generally the superintendent, is the prosecuting agent. The Procurator-Fiscal conducts the business of the Central Court, and when cases of an exceptional nature arise in any of the districts, he attends to their prosecution in the court in which they are dealt with. The jurisdiction of the magistrate sitting in a Police Court is restricted to a class of crimes and offences which are termed "police offences" in contradistinction to "penal offences," which fall to be dealt with by the Sheriff and the Justiciary Courts. "Police offences" are myriad in their number, and the catalogue gives some colour to the allegation that Glasgow is a police-ridden city. What is more, scarcely a year passes without some local enactment coming into force by which the formidable catalogue is increased; and yet the stranger may be assured that decent citizens are to be met with who have every day of their life passed through the streets of Glasgow, shared in its business and pleasures, and taken an active part in public duties, who have never had the slightest unpleasantness with the police and who have not had occasion to see the interior of a police office. The crimes and offences of which the police take cognizance are not much less varied than they are numerous, and many of the charges investigated by the bailies do not imply any personal disgrace on the part of the person called on to answer the charge. Stepping over a grassy border in a public park is not a criminal action, yet it may involve a summons to appear before a magistrate and the imposition of a fine or even a sentence of imprisonment. By some misadventure the chimney of the most careful and prudent housewife may take fire, but however innocent she may feel of wilful and culpable neglect, she is bound to answer for her misfortune before the magistrate, and she is even liable to a pecuniary penalty or to seven days' imprisonment. Much more culpable would she be were it proved that she wilfully set her chimney on fire, and for such an offence she would probably be subject to a maximum penalty of thirty days' imprisonment. But even that offence falls within an entirely different category from stealing, resetting, harbouring bad characters, dealing in obscenities, using filthy language, and practising filthy habits, with the hundred other charges which are taken cognizance of by the Police Magistrates. The maximum penalties, either by the way of fine or imprisonment which the magistrate may impose, are specified under the various Acts. Whilst there are offences for which there are special statutory powers to impose heavier penalties, in general the maximum imprisonment which can be inflicted by the Police Magistrates is sixty days or a fine of £10.

The number of persons apprehended in Glasgow and dealt with by the magistrates during 1894 was 58,173, of these 39,075 were males and 19,098 were females. This large total would give alarming results if dealt with in a superficial way by statistical comparison. It might be thought to show, for example, that almost one person in every ten of the population appeared
yearly in the police court to answer for crimes and offences, and that in the course of about ten years the whole population underwent that degradation. The fact, of course, is that the police have their regular customers who come with melancholy steadiness before the magistrates charged with the same class of offences.

With the serious cases which are embraced under the technical category of "penal offences," the magistrate is entitled to deal only to the extent of granting warrant for search and for other necessary purposes of justice; the accused is brought before him at the first court, and warrant may be granted for detention in custody usually for not more that two days, and thereafter the person is either discharged or remitted to a higher authority, the sheriff, and the case reported to the County Fiscal or other proper officer. If, in the course of any trial of a police offence, it appears to the magistrate that the charge comes properly under the heading of a penal offence, or if the gravity of the case appear to warrant or demand a heavier punishment than it is in the power of the bailie to inflict, he may stop the proceedings and report the case for trial to the County Fiscal or other authority with the view of having it determined in a higher court.

The most fertile sources of Police Court work are charges of assault and disorderly conduct, under which headings no fewer than 22,555 persons were dealt with during 1894. "Drunk and incapable," it is grievous to confess, form about one-third of the whole of the cases dealt with by the magistrates, and it is safe to say that were the drink element eliminated from the City at least three-fourths of the duty of the magistrates would disappear. For it cannot be doubted that the bellicose and outrageous behaviour of a large portion of the fighting and rioting offenders is directly due to the excitement and recklessness caused by undue indulgence in alcoholic stimulants. Eliminating the drinking and fighting elements, and putting aside the hopeless habituals whom the police have always with them, the criminals and offenders of Glasgow are reduced to a fractional proportion of the inhabitants. When we bear in mind that Glasgow grows principally by accretion, that it draws into its borders many discordant nationalities and elements, that the new population have little community of aim, that their social bonds are loose, and that they have no local patriotism, the fact that Glasgow is so free from criminal infection speaks eloquently for the good government of the City and for the restraining moral influence of its population.
CHAPTER XI.

THE POLICE OF GLASGOW.


To many good citizens the term Glasgow police means little more than that embodiment of law and order, the constable, as he walks the streets clothed in the official blue symbol of authority. To these citizens there comes once a year a disagreeable reminder of the Glasgow police in the form of a demand for the due payment of police rates, and that claim being satisfied that ratepayer imagines that there his relations with the police of Glasgow begin and end. Viewed from these two points alone the police of Glasgow cannot be expected to evoke much popular enthusiasm or to be the object of ungrudging support. And the lower we descend in the social scale the greater will be found the popular antagonism to the police, till in the shady circles verging towards the regions of filth, vice, and crime the very name “police” is hated as much as it is feared.

Here we have a striking instance of imperfect knowledge and perverted sympathies: of the oft demonstrated fact that the people do not know their best friends, and that they are not prepared to accept, with good grace, what is for their real welfare. For of all the departments of municipal
activity the police is that which is throughout the most considerate towards
the humble, helpful of the helpless, kind to the sick and afflicted, and watchful
over the heedless who rush towards danger and temptation. The police of
Glasgow, needless to say, does not begin and end with the patrolling of
the streets by a regiment of constables. The department takes cognizance
of the health and well-being of the citizens from the cradle to the grave.
It concerns itself with the purity and wholesomeness of the food and drink
supplied to the people, with the healthy condition of the houses in which
they dwell, and of the factories and workshops in which they labour; it
provides, at a cheap rate, houses and decent lodgings for a large number
of the very poor; in many ways it encourages personal cleanliness and
comfort; it protects the poor from the ravages of infectious disease, and
cares for them when overtaken by such afflictions; it prohibits employment
unduly dangerous to life; it prevents oppressively prolonged labour; it
provides open spaces and playgrounds in congested localities; and in many
cases it provides decent Christian burial for the dead of the wretched and
unfortunate. To the police also the public owe the lighting of the streets,
lanes, courts, and staircases of the City, the paving of the streets, the pro-
viding of drains and sewers, the cleansing of the City, and many other services
equally to rich and poor; but the greatest and most beneficent of the
activities of the police are in the interests and on account of the poor, and
of those who cannot help and defend themselves.

The police department of the Corporation of Glasgow has vast and
varied ramifications, and to it are confided many duties of vital importance
for the security of life and property in the largest sense, and for the smooth
and harmonious course of daily action in an arena so densely packed and full
of activity as is the City of Glasgow. The detail in such a department
is very great, and to bring it all under even condensed notice will demand
much space.

Throughout the nineteenth century, from 1800 till 1895, the Corporation
was relieved of its primal duty, as a burghal authority, of watching and
warding. The duty indeed had been performed in a perfunctory spirit in
the previous centuries by the Council, and with the dawn of the nineteenth
century, the growth of the population, and the consequent increase of the
turbulent lawless element in the City, the ancient patriarchal system of govern-
ment was no longer tolerable. Towards the end of the eighteenth century
a spirit of lawlessness had developed in the population, and being without
police organization the magistrates were powerless in the presence of any
unruly mob. The aid of the military authorities had to be called in, and
order was only restored after an excessive display of force, the destruction
of much property, and sometimes after fatal bloodshed. In 1778 the Town
Council made an attempt to organize a civil force by the appointment of
an inspector of police who had a few men under him, but there were no
revenues out of which to support this meagre and rather insufficient force; and so it came that, after two or three years’ experiment, the force was dissolved, and the duty of guarding the City again devolved entirely on the burgesses. In 1790 the Council enacted the establishment of “a night guard and patrol to watch and guard the streets,” a necessity of “the great extent and populousness of the City.” The town for this purpose was divided into four districts, and every male citizen between the ages of sixteen and sixty years, paying £3 of rent and upwards, was, in rotation, bound to take patrol duty or to pay half-a-crown for a substitute. The services of nine men for each district—thirty-six in all—were nightly requisitioned for this police duty. A Bill was also promoted in Parliament for regulating the police of the City, but its rating powers evoked so lively an opposition on the part of the citizens that it failed to pass into law, and it was not till 1800 that an Act of Parliament instituting a Police Board for Glasgow was obtained.

The Police Act of 1800 was an epoch-making statute in Glasgow. For the first time it imposed a rate on the assessed rental of property in the City, and that much-burdened, long-suffering being, the ratepayer, was by its operation called into existence. In the next place it was our first real Reform Act—it gave the citizens some control over and voice in the election of their representatives. Thirdly, it conceded the principle that rating and representation go hand in hand; the Town Council itself was a close body, and to it the power of imposing rates was not confided; the Police Board was a representative body with rating power. Further, it took the first step towards the formation of the great Public Health and Sanitary Department of Glasgow by recognizing as a public duty the cleaning of the streets of the City. And lastly, it may be pointed out that under this Act the government of the City was first differentiated and specialized, other branches at a later date grew out from the parent stem, the Town Council; and all again, Board, Commissioners, and Trustees, were in 1895 reunited into a homogeneous whole—"The Corporation of Glasgow."

The Board of Police, as constituted by the Act of 1800, consisted of the Lord Provost, Magistrates, Dean of Guild, Deacon Convener, and twenty-four Commissioners chosen by ballot by ratepayers within the twenty-four wards into which the City was divided. The Board was empowered to assess tenants for the purposes of the Act, the rates being graduated according to rents, and rising from 4d. per £ on rents betwixt £4 and £6 to 1s. on rents of £15 and upwards. Towards the revenue of the Board the Town Council was also bound to contribute not less that £800 yearly from the ordinary funds of the town, a modest compensation for the relief of the Common Good of all police charges, which in earlier times fell to be defrayed from that source. The Act also extended the royalty of the City over the lands of Ramshorn and Meadowflat, etc., lying north-west of the ancient City, and over the
Provosthaugh and other lands on the south-east, most of which form parts of the Glasgow Green of the present day.

Certain of the powers in the 1800 Act expired in 1807, and in that year a new Act was passed which was practically a continuation for fourteen years of the previous measure, with certain modifications of the qualification of Commissioners, and with an increase in the graduated rating powers, which raised the maximum rate of assessment to 1s. 3d. on rents of £15 and upwards. Again in 1821 the Act was renewed with certain amendments, the most important of which was the appointment of two resident Commissioners in each ward, who were to exercise constabulary powers, and to have a general superintendence of their respective districts; but these were not members of the Board, nor had they otherwise any share in the management of the police affairs. Their qualification and the method of their election were the same as in the case of the Commissioners elected for the Board of Police. This Act also was, in certain of its provisions, terminable in fourteen years. But before its period expired the growth of the City demanded another Extension Act, and in 1830 the magisterial and police authority of the City was by statute extended over the lands of Blythswood, and over Easter and Wester Craigs, the property of the Merchants' House. Out of these annexed territories nine additional wards were formed, and to the Police Board an additional Commissioner for each was appointed, besides two resident Commissioners as in the case of the original wards. These two latter Acts, expiring in 1837, were in that year altered, amended, and renewed for the limited period of five years. Under the statute the qualification of electors was modified, and it was provided that every qualified elector should also be eligible to the office of Commissioner. The management of the statute labour service was by the 1843 Act transferred from the special Statute Labour Trustees and vested in the Police Board; and for that service a power of levying a rate not exceeding 3d. per £ on rental was granted. The Town Council further was relieved of the annual payment of £800 to the police funds, on account of the lapse of a source of municipal revenue in abolishing an impost of one-sixth of a penny on every pint of ale or beer sold within the royalty and the Gorbals. The statutory power of levying that ale tax expired in 1839, and there was no attempt to renew it.

The Police Act of 1843 assumed something of the formidable dimensions of the police legislation of the present day. It contained 287 clauses, many of which had numerous sub-sections. Under its provisions the boundaries of the burgh were again extended; the City was now divided into thirty-six wards with, as previously, one general Commissioner and two resident Commissioners for each. The Act of 1846, which extended the municipal boundaries and absorbed the Burghs of Anderston, Calton, and the Gorbals, finally extinguished the Board of Police Commissioners. The Town Council was now a popularly elected body, and there remained no longer any reason
for the election of two representative boards. In the place of the Police Commissioners, a Police and Statute Labour Committee of the Council was instituted, composed of Magistrates, Dean of Guild, Deacon Convener, and eighteen other councillors of the City. But it was provided that everything in relation to police and statute labour in the City should be kept separate and distinct from the affairs of the Corporation, and that neither Town Clerk nor Chamberlain should be eligible to hold office under the Committee. The statute further required the establishment and maintenance of police offices and police courts in the Calton, Anderston, and Gorbals districts; the courts to be presided over by magistrates of the City, and the appointment of assessors of the courts was also sanctioned. The police and statute labour provisions of the Act of 1843 were incorporated with it, and, as regards these sections, the Act was made terminable in eighteen years. Police legislation was renewed and amended in 1862, when a Board of Police was again constituted, but it was nothing more than the Police Committee of the previous Act incorporated under a new name. The Act which now extended to 426 clauses was made terminable after five years. In 1866 what is in effect the present Police Act of Glasgow was passed, and under its provisions the Police Board was continued as previously constituted, but by an Act obtained in 1877 the so-called board was abolished, and the entire Town Council became Commissioners of Police. But although the personnel of the Town Council and the police authority was thus made one, they still remained, in their spheres and functions, entirely distinct, with separate organization, staff, revenues, and accounts. It was not till the Glasgow Corporation and Police Act of 1895 was passed that the police, as well as the several other trusts and commissions, nominally distinct though personally the same, were all fused into the Town Council and united under the official designation of the Corporation of the City of Glasgow. But the accounts of the police are still required by statute to be kept distinct and separate, although otherwise police business may now be managed and disposed of at an ordinary meeting of the Town Council, and the Town Clerk and his assistant are eligible to undertake the management of the police department work.

The whole of the police affairs of the City are now regulated and directed by a long series of Acts of Parliament, which date from 1866 onwards. So far as concerns general and permanent organization and police powers and jurisdiction the most important of these is the statute of 1866. Next in importance for police purposes is the “Order Confirmation Act” of 1877, under which the municipal and police government and jurisdiction of the City are united in the Magistrates and Council. Enlarged police powers were obtained under several subsequent Acts which dealt with sanitary matters—1890—Extension of the Boundaries—1891—and Sewage—1891. A Glasgow Police (Further Powers) Act was passed in 1892, under which important powers were
obtained for licensing theatres, public shows, and billiard rooms; and improved powers for dealing with gambling, street betting, lotteries, and many miscellaneous matters were obtained under that statute. Under the Buildings Regulation Act, 1892, enlarged powers were conferred on the police, and finally the Corporation and Police Act of 1895, in addition to abolishing the distinction between the Town Council *qua* Corporation and the same body *qua* Police authority, gave additional powers to the constabulary in several directions.

The police force of Glasgow was originally organized on a quite modest scale. Under the Master of Police there was a staff of three sergeants, nine officers, and 68 watchmen, and the first police office of the City was the session house of the Laigh or Tron Kirk. Why a session house should have been selected for the active emissaries of the Civil Magistrate it is difficult to guess, but so it was; the old civic guard of the burgesses had also their rendezvous in the session house of the same Tron Kirk, a circumstance which led to the destruction by fire of that venerable pile. No doubt the session houses being at that time the distinctly recognized property of the municipality were at least cheap if not quite suitable and appropriate offices for the police, and let it not be forgotten that a century ago the functions of the elder and the constable were much more intimately related than they are in the present day. The power of the police officer was a mere amplification of the rule over the life and conversation, the manners and morals of the citizens claimed, and sometimes exercised by the elder. The sixty-eight watchmen were employed on night duty alone, and the continuity of police authority was maintained by the nine officers, one division of which a sergeant and three men was on duty in the office throughout the four and twenty hours—the second similar division was having rest of equal duration—and the third, four men all told, took all the outside duty of the day. The sixty-eight night watchmen have a more adequate look, but they were mostly elderly men of the Dogberry type sent out under heavy great-coats with hand lanterns and heavy wooden batons, who passed the greater part of their time in the wooden sentry boxes which the paternal Commissioners thoughtfully provided for their protection, and probably also for their repose. In these they doubtless passed much of their time, fondly hoping that the citizens were all as quiet and peacefully disposed as they were themselves.

At the time of the institution of the force the salary of the Master of Police was £200 yearly, the three sergeants were paid at the rate of £40, the day officers received £30 yearly, and the wages of the night watchmen were 10s. weekly. Taking the average of the first four years the expenditure on the force reached £2554 yearly, an annual charge per inhabitant of 83½d. The revenue of the Commissioners in the first year amounted to £5296, out of which the charge for cleaning, lighting, and other duties laid on the
Commissioners had to be defrayed. The official statement of revenue for the year ended 29th August, 1801, is a model of brevity:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Amount</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sum contributed by the City of Glasgow</td>
<td>£800 o 0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Amount of Assessments</td>
<td>3770 19 6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dung of the Streets Sold</td>
<td>576 5 0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Amount of Fines</td>
<td>126 19 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interest on Money lodged with Bank of Scotland</td>
<td>22 0 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>£5296 4 0</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

By the year 1815 the police establishment of Glasgow had considerably expanded and differentiated. The whole expenditure of the year amounted to nearly £10,000; but in that was included the cost of cleansing, lighting, and of protection from fire. The constabulary establishment comprised a Master of Police at a salary of £280, a clerk, a collector and treasurer, and a surveyor; the day officers numbered nineteen men; there were seventy-eight watchmen with twenty men additional as patrols; the entire cost of the department for salaries, wages, and allowances being £4854. From assessments the Police Board collected about £8000, an allowance of £800 was received from the Town Council and police fines exceeded £269. When we come to the year ending June, 1833, we find the police establishment very materially developed. To the superior officers there are then added two surveyors and a surgeon, there were three lieutenants, three constables, one sergeant-major, and forty-five officers; of special criminal officers there were six, and the number of watchmen had risen to 129. The whole income of the establishment amounted to £14,747, of which £13,010 was from assessments, £800 from the Town Council, and £455 from fines levied in the Police Court. The expenditure on the constabulary equalled £7430, and the remainder of the revenue went for cleansing, lighting, and the fire department.

The modest accommodation of the Tron Kirk Session House did not long prove sufficient for the growing organization and necessities of the Glasgow police establishment. Very soon a move was made to the Herald close in Bell Street, and there, one stair up, police business was carried on till its increase again gave occasion for another change, this time into Candleriggs Street. That change of premises was also only a makeshift, and in 1822 the Commissioners acquired the site in South Albion Street on which the Central Police Office now stands. The building erected thereon was completed and opened for business in 1831, and since that time, with frequent and great extensions, it has continued to be the central and principal police office of the City.

Till 1846 the South Albion Street Police Office was the only constabulary station and police court in the City; but, in the meantime, parliamentary
Glasgow had extended on every side far beyond the area of municipal and police authority. The communities of Gorbals, south of the river; Calton, lying to the east of the City, and Anderston, on the west boundary, had grown up, they had severally obtained Police Acts and distinct organization; and while in 1832 they were incorporated in the City for parliamentary purposes, in respect of local government they were separate and independent. The Barony of Gorbals was first constituted a Police Burgh by Act of Parliament in 1808, and during the short term of its existence it enjoyed the luxury of no fewer than four Acts, the last having received Royal assent in 1843. The Calton burgh and police authority was constituted under an Act passed in 1819, and at the time of its absorption the force in that burgh was regulated by the provisions of an Act obtained in 1840. The Police Act for the Burgh of Anderston was passed in 1827. These various Acts contained provisions for the establishment of boards for the maintenance of police and Police Courts, with powers of assessing, and provision for cleaning and lighting, etc., in effect the same as in Glasgow; and police offices and courts were, under them, instituted in each of these communities. By what was known as the co-operating clause in the Glasgow Police Act, the officers of all these police establishments were authorized to act in any place within the whole Parliamentary boundaries, and in case of riot, tumult, or other emergency, all four forces could be called on to act together. And further, a register of the crimes and offences within the entire parliamentary limits was kept in the Glasgow Police Office, to which the several police and criminal officials had at all times access. Under the 1846 Annexation Act the whole of these distinct jurisdictions and establishments were abolished; but it was enacted that police offices and courts should be provided and maintained in each of the three districts, Gorbals, Calton, and Anderston, and the magistrates of the City were ordained to officiate in each of the courts as might be necessary in addition to sitting in the daily courts of the City. To meet these increased duties the number of magistrates was increased to nine, the Lord Provost and eight bailies.

The absorption of the three suburban burghs by the parent City in 1846 led to a large nominal increase in the police force of Glasgow. At the time the Act became operative there was in Glasgow a police staff numbering 291 persons, of whom 178 were night constables and 68 were day officers, and 12 men were in the criminal or detective department. The Anderston staff numbered 28, in Calton there were 21, and for the Gorbals a staff of 48 was in existence. These, with 34 belonging to the Marine or Clyde Police, brought up the whole police force of the City to 422 men, and at that figure it stood when the establishments were re-organized and consolidated under one chief constable with district superintendents.

When in 1848 the accounts of police expenditure for the first complete year of the combined force were made up, the total cost of the service was
THE POLICE OF GLASGOW

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found to amount to £23,220, the largest item being the wages—from 14s. to 23s. weekly—of night constables £11,309, and of day officers—15s. to 23s.—£5,900. For clothing there was paid £1,276, the salaries of superior officers absorbed £1,810, and for the maintenance of the detective department the expenditure was £954.

The abstract statement of the revenue and expenditure and balance accounts of the Glasgow Police Commissioners for the financial year 1894-95 forms a very marked contrast to the modest first financial statement issued in 1801. In their first statement the Commissioners in a few lines dealt with a revenue and expenditure of about £5,000; the revenue of 1894-95 amounted to almost £600,000, and the expenditure exceeded that large total. The statements for the year embraced eleven closely printed folio pages of the report by the Finance Committee, forty-one folio sheets of abstracts of income and expenditure, and balance sheets of the various departments, and an appendix of fifteen pages of minor accounts, and of statistical tables and information relative to the work of various departments, the collection of rates, etc. The expenditure for the year on the police establishment proper amounted to £122,527, of which £90,652 was paid for wages of constables, and £45,42 was the expense of the detective department. The salaries of superior officers, in which are included the Procurator-Fiscal and the seven assessors of the Police Courts, amounted to £11,721; for clothing there was expended £5,307; the contribution to the Police Pension Fund was £1,656; and for sundries £8,447 was paid. In reduction of this large expenditure there was received from the Government as the Imperial contribution towards the pay and clothes of the force £45,374; fines levied in the courts yielded £11,191; and for services of constables and sundries there was produced £4,180. These items, in all amounting to £60,746, reduces the actual local cost of the police force and establishments for the year to about £61,780, equivalent to a charge of about 1s. 9½d. for each inhabitant for police order, protection, and security. Were we to take into account the grants in aid of local rates under the Education and Local Taxation (Scotland) Act, 1892, and the Local Taxation (Customs and Excise) Act, 1890, which together yielded £19,251, the charge per individual would be reduced to about 1s. 2d; but these grants are paid to the general funds of the police department.

The entire constabulary at the end of 1894 consisted of 13,555 persons, of whom 7 were women—female turnkeys. In that number there were comprised a chief constable at a salary of £900, 9 superintendents with salaries ranging from £232 to £352, and 27 lieutenants of police with salaries from £122 to £202. In the detective department there were 2 inspectors with salaries of £180 and £202, 7 sub-inspectors and 33 officers with wages rising from 36s. 6d. to 47s. 6d. weekly. In the street force there were 50 inspectors, 74 sergeants, and 1,105 constables with weekly wages rising in the case of the constables from 23s. 10d. to 29s. 8d., sergeants 32s. 6d.
to 34s. 6d., and inspectors from 36s. 6d. to 42s. 6d. In addition to these the establishment carries a physician to the force, 9 district surgeons, clerks, waiters, storekeepers, lamp trimmers, and other indoor functionaries. Of the grand total of 1355 on the police roll, 1139 were natives of Scotland, 187 were Irishmen, 26 were Englishmen, and 3 were of foreign extraction. Beyond these there were on the establishment 25 constables privately employed at banks, post office, theatres, and other public establishments, 26 female house cleaners and searchers, a window cleaner, 2 stokers, and a coal porter, so that the entire establishment under the Glasgow Police as at 1st January, 1895, numbered 1410 persons.

That the constables are men of stature is evidenced by the fact that they averaged 5 ft. 11¼ in. in height, their average age was 34 years, and while the largest proportion have served from 1 to 10 years, one officer enjoyed the distinction of having been in the force more than 40 years, while the average length of service was 10 years over all. In a service which demands prudence and self-control in an eminent degree it is only to be expected that some proportion of the men appointed will be found wanting in the qualities which should distinguish a constable, and, therefore, it is not surprising that in the early years of service a certain number of resignations are sent in, and that it is found necessary to dismiss some recruits altogether from the force. In 1894 there were 35 resignations of constables, and 25 were in that year dismissed, all with service of less than 5 years. As against that 173 men were during the year rewarded for meritorious conduct, such as bravery and special intelligence and activity, for the saving of life, and for the recovery of valuable property, etc. Nearly every member of the force has undergone a course of ambulance instruction, and received certificates of competence from the principal Casualty Surgeon of the City. When it is considered that about 2000 serious accidents are reported to and dealt with by the police yearly, and that in 1894 these involved 394 deaths from accident, suicide, or from sudden dying in public places, the importance of this instruction becomes evident. In dealing with that grave amount of suffering and distress, the skill and knowledge acquired in ambulance classes is of incalculable value in alleviating pain, and there cannot be a doubt that the prompt and skilful handling and treatment of grave cases not infrequently results in the saving of life itself.

Police officers are required to live within the division to which they are appointed, and a most important feature of their duty is to acquire information regarding every household and person within their "beat." Each constable is furnished with a "range book" containing the names and addresses of occupants within his district; and it also gives the house address of occupants of shops, warehouses, and works on the "beat" in which no person sleeps or resides. He also is bound to keep a list of empty houses, and of houses from which occupants are temporarily absent,
and to note where keys are to be found in cases of fire or other emergency. In proximity to the various stations the police department provides dwelling-houses for 108 married men and their families at moderate rents, and lodging-house or barrack accommodation is provided for 134 unmarried constables in East Clyde Street, in the Southern Police Buildings, and in Hillhead Police Buildings. In these bachelor establishments, for the modest charge of 1s. 9d. weekly, the single constable gets a comfortably furnished dormitory, he has his food well cooked, and punctually and neatly served, in a common mess-room, and he has the use of a general reading and recreation room. The men of each mess appointment of two of their number monthly to purchase the required food, and the whole expense is divided and paid each pay day. The men on day duty occupying these lodging-houses must not be out later than 11.15 without the special permission of the chief constable, the district superintendent, or the officer in charge of the establishments; and no beer, wine, or spirits can be taken inside the door without an order from the surgeon. Sufficient bath room, lavatory, and other cleaning accommodation is provided, and the regulations, without being oppressively minute, are sufficient to secure decent personal cleanliness, comfort, and social order.

The Glasgow police service offers in point of pay, promotion, and pension fair attractions to young men of intelligence and steady habits. Every office up to that of chief constable itself is within the limits of their ambition, and a man of discretion and zeal is bound to rise in the service. A constable on joining must not be more than twenty-five years of age; but men transferred from another force, or who have served in the army or navy, may be appointed up to thirty years of age. In addition to his uniform clothing, the recruit receives on appointment 23s. 1od. per week; and, barring misconduct, his pay is increased by 1s. 2d. weekly during his second and third years of service. Then after two years further he receives another 1s. 2d. weekly, and three years later 1s. 2d. again is added, and in three years more he receives a further 1s. 2d., making 29s. 8d. per week as the highest wage of an ordinary constable after eleven years’ service. But should an officer show peculiar aptitude, he may be elevated to a higher rank and pay without regard to the time he has served; and in the interval of eleven years in which the commonplace man is occupied in creeping from third to first class, many who began with him will have attained the rank of sergeant or inspector, and some even will be in a higher grade. When hurt on duty the constable is entitled to full pay while he is disabled, and all, whether hurt or sick, receive medical attendance and medicine free of charge. All constables are required to become members of the Sick and Funeral Society, from which sick allowance and funeral expenses are paid. Seven days’ leave of absence is granted yearly to every constable after one year’s service, and after three years the holiday allowance is increased to ten
days. A great attraction of the service, and a powerful stimulus to steadiness, is the liberal scale of pensions provided under the provisions of the Police (Scotland) Act of 1890. An ordinary constable or sergeant is entitled after twenty years approved service to a pension equal to one-third of his ordinary pay, with one-sixtieth in addition for each year's service up to twenty-eight years, after which two-sixtieths are added for each additional year's service, but no pension may exceed two-thirds of the pay on which he retires. All officers above the rank of sergeant must be sixty years of age before they can claim their pension, unless physical failure compel their earlier retirement. To a constable who is incapacitated for the performance of duty before becoming entitled to a pension, a gratuity or allowance may be given, not exceeding one month's pay for each completed year of service. Pensions, calculated under special scales and conditions, are provided for men so injured in the discharge of their duty as to be incapacitated for further service. To a constable accidentally injured and partially disabled a pension is given of one-sixth of his pay if his service is not more than five years, for a service of from five to ten years he receives a fifth, service of between ten and twenty years entitles him to a third, and for more than twenty years he is paid one-sixtieth for each completed year of service. The total disablement of a constable by accident entitles him to a more liberal scale of pension. For a service of less than ten years he obtains a pension of one-fourth pay, service of between ten and twenty years entitles him to one-third, and above that period he is paid one-sixtieth for each year's service with five-sixtieths added, but no pension can exceed two-thirds the annual pay. Partial disablement of a constable by wilful injury entitles him to a still higher scale of pension. In such circumstances with under ten years' service he receives a pension equal to one-third of his pay, with from ten to twenty years' service he receives half-pay, and for more than twenty years the scale is one-sixtieth for each year with ten-sixtieths added, but the pension must not exceed two-thirds of the annual pay. Total disablement by wilful injury entitles the constable to a pension not less than provided for under the partial wilful disablement scale, and not more than full pay according to the decision of the police authority. Should a constable lose his life in the discharge of his duty his widow becomes entitled to a pension, and his children till they attain the age of fifteen, receive allowances which may be increased on a graduated scale according to the rank of the officer. The widow, so long as she remains such, receives £15, and each child £2 10s.; and if there is no widow the child's allowance may be increased to £5. The widow of an inspector may receive £25, and of any of the officers of a higher grade the widow may be paid £30 yearly, and for the children of such officers £5 may be paid till they attain fifteen years of age.

The liberal scale of pension and the comparatively early period of life at which the ordinary constable becomes entitled to retire are testimonies
to the fact that a constable, like a soldier, must be strong, active, and intrepid. The duties are, in general, commonplace, monotonous, and unexciting enough; but suddenly there may arise circumstances in which he must face, without flinching, the most deadly peril, and bring into operation all the capabilities of a sound physique. When desperadoes have to be dealt with, when sudden commotion or riot occurs, when any great accident or catastrophe clouds the community, the constable's post is the post of danger, his every faculty must be alert and supple, his judgment cool, and his courage unflinching.
CHAPTER XII.

STREETS AND BRIDGES.


It may be assumed that in early times the streets of Glasgow, excepting at the places appointed for the various markets, were still and silent. Public conveyances and private carriages were unknown within its borders, and wheeled traffic was confined to barrows, and lumbering, ungainly carts, of which the number was probably very limited. The streets were in no condition to bear a perpetual rush and roar of traffic, nor were they required to do so. The business world moved slowly in mediaeval times, and so did the business vehicles. The tear and wear of the public roadways would therefore be slight, notwithstanding which it is more than probable, that the highways were badly kept, for the art of road-making was then ill understood, and the municipal authority spent but little on the maintenance of roads. It is unlikely that any causewayed streets existed in Glasgow early in the sixteenth century, certainly causeways were far from common in the last quarter of it; but from that period onward we find frequent reference to the formation and extension of street causeways. The operations are referred to in the year 1576, and a year later, 15th November, 1577, the Common Good not bearing the strain, the Council resolved to stent the inhabitants to the extent of two hundred pounds, “to big the calsayis.” Following up this resolution, the Council in July following borrowed from the Burgh of Dundee a “Calsay-maker” named Walter Brown, and the provost and bailies
came under solemn obligation to deliver "fra thame and thair service the said Walter to the prouest Baillies and Counsell of Dundey within the brucht thairof but fraude or cullour of ony sort." A skilled causeway layer must, at that period, have been a rare and highly-prized tradesman, when Walter Brown became the subject of such a solemn bond between the municipal potentates of two important communities. The glory has indeed departed from the office of paviour, and the Lord Provost and magistrates are not now asked or expected to return to the Green Island the causeway makers, who offer in abundance to exercise their skill on our streets.

Subsequent minutes show that in 1597 the causewaying of the Trongate was ordered to be finished at the expense of the occupiers "both back and front" there. In 1605 the Council expressed dissatisfaction with all the causeways in the town, and a resolution was passed to employ two "calsay bigers," with a man to help them, and to equip them with a sufficient supply of stones. To meet this expense it was resolved to impose a tax of ten shillings on every inhabitant "for the space of ane yeir and ay and quhill the calsayis be compleit." Occasional references to the subject of the "calsays" throughout the century show that the work was being continued. Thus, in 1662 the Council resolved to build over St. Tenow's (Enoch's) burn "a handsome little brig with ane pen," and to have the causeway carried westward to it—that is to the foot of the modern Buchanan Street—from the West Port. With this object it was resolved to employ the "calsay layer" in Rutherglen, who was to work westward till he met the others laying the causeway from the little brig towards the West Port. It may be assumed that the causeways of the main thoroughfares were completed by 1728, in which year two individuals contracted to keep up, maintain, and uphold the whole causeways of the public streets, wynds, vennels, lanes, highways, and roads, within and about the City and territories thereof for a term of fifteen years for a sum equal to £66 sterling yearly.

The causeway work of the eighteenth century was, as compared with what we are now accustomed to, of a very primitive and inefficient character. But it is not to be forgotten that Macadam had not yet lived, that the art of road making was in a most rudimentary condition, and that such roads as existed were, by bad weather and moderate traffic, rendered almost impassable quagmires. Causewayed roads such as they were, therefore, were not only a vast improvement on the piles of ill-assorted rubbish which did duty as ordinary roads, but they were an absolute necessity of a City growing both in size and traffic. The causeway stones were not dressed and squared as we now see them, nor was there any elaborately prepared foundation on which they were set. The street surface was simply prepared in the section of a high-pitched convex curve, and the art of the causeway layer was displayed in fitting together over that surface the irregular blocks of stone he used, so as to present a comparatively uniform smooth surface
with closely-fitting and well-compacted joints. As compared with modern causewaying it was like rubble building, or rather like dry-stone dike building, as against dressed masonry. At each side of the causeway there was formed a channel or "syver," in which the surface water was supposed to find its way to the nearest open ditch or stream, for there were neither drains nor sewers in the City at that time. The water channels were generally choked with filth, deposited sometimes of set purpose to make dung, and there being no foot pavements the only safe and dry path for passengers was on the "croon of the causeway."

Side pavements for foot passengers were a luxury unknown in Glasgow till towards the end of the eighteenth century. The first foot pavement seen in the City is said to have been laid in 1777 by Mr. John Brown, Master of Works, on the east side of Candleriggs, between Trongate and Bell Street. Next year Mr. John Wilson paved the front of his shop in Hutcheson's Hospital building on the north side of the Trongate. Other occupiers must soon have followed the example set by Mr. Wilson, for in an early view of the Trongate from the Tolbooth westward, issued probably about that time, a foot pavement is shown extending continuously from the old Hutcheson's Hospital, now Hutcheson Street, along the north of the Trongate to the Tolbooth. From the further end of the Tontine Coffee House, and along the front of the Tolbooth the pavement, bounded with stone posts, is widened out beyond the line of the King William statue and this broad place constituted the famous "plainstones," a space which, about the third quarter of the eighteenth century, was monopolized by the Tobacco Lords, and within which no common burgher dare set foot. In 1780 the owners of the south side of the Trongate, between the Tron Kirk and Stockwell Street, paved the front of their properties, and as a reward for their public-spirited action, the Town Council instructed the Master of Works to erect nine street lamps along the line of street so paved.

The Police Act of 1800 made provision for the complete foot-paving of the sides of all the streets of the City at the expense of the owners of the facing property. The regulations, which then received parliamentary sanction, are in effect the same as those now in force. The clause imposing on owners the burden of providing and maintaining foot pavements runs thus:

"And whereas the said City of Glasgow has become very populous, and in consequence of the number of persons and carriages passing and re-passing on the streets thereof, great inconveniences have arisen from the want of proper foot pavements, and many of the inhabitants, sensible of these inconveniences, have been at the expense of making foot pavements opposite to their respective houses and grounds. And whereas it would be greatly for the benefit and convenience of the inhabitants of the said City, and of all persons resorting thereto, that foot pavements were made on the sides of the streets, both within the ancient royalty and within the lands hereby annexed,
that the foot pavements and streets were properly cleaned, and that all obstructions and nuisances were removed, and the same prevented in future. Be it therefore enacted, that the owners or proprietors of all houses and other buildings, or of gardens or grounds on which buildings are not erected, which are adjoining to and fronting any street, square, or other public or principal place within the said City, shall at his, her, or their expense, cause the grounds before their property respectively, on the sides of the said streets, squares, and other public or principal places, to be well and sufficiently paved with flat, hewn, or other stones, in such manner and in such form as the Dean of Guild Court—after visiting and inspecting the grounds, and hearing parties concerned—shall by decrees to be pronounced by the said court from time to time, direct and appoint: the breadth of the said foot pavements not to exceed twelve feet in streets of sixty feet wide, eight feet in streets from forty to fifty feet wide, and six feet in all streets below forty feet wide; and that the whole foot pavements in the same streets shall be of the same breadth; and that it shall be in the option of the owners or proprietors of gardens or grounds, within the said City and liberties thereof, on which buildings shall not be erected, either to pave opposite their property respectively in manner aforesaid, or to causeway the foot pavements before them with whinstones until their said gardens or grounds shall be built upon, but no longer. Provided always that such parts of the said foot-path as are opposite to wynds, lanes, or closes, which are cart or carriage entries, may also, in the option of the proprietors, be paved with whinstones.”

Power was given to the Dean of Guild Court to have pavements laid in accordance with these provisions at the expense of recalcitrant owners.

By a rather anomalous arrangement, foot pavements thus came under the care of the new Police Board, while the causeways and roads remained a charge of the Town Council. Under a Statute Labour Act, passed in 1772, the Magistrates and Council were empowered to ascertain what persons were chargeable for repairing roads, etc., and to call on them to perform statute labour service. The Police Act of 1800 recognized and continued the obligation of the Town Council to pave and keep in repair the public causeways, and to defray the expense of such work from the Common Good, and from funds raised by the conversion of the statute labour, as was the practice previous to the passing of the Act. An Act passed in 1807 fixed the rates of the conversion of statute labour service at 2s. yearly for house rents under £5, for rents between £5 and £10 the conversion money was 3s., and on all higher rents it was 5s. yearly. Heritors and possessors of land further were assessed at a rate not exceeding 1s. per acre, and owners of horses not used in husbandry were required to pay £1 1s. for each animal kept, or in lieu thereof, to furnish yearly three days’ labour of a man, a horse, and a cart. In 1816 the gross collection of road money in Glasgow was
only £1832, non-agricultural horses being then charged at 15s. each, and land at the rate of £3 for each ploughgate of sixty acres.

In 1820 the Town Council ceased to be the responsible Road Trustees of the City, and did not again become qua Corporation the controlling body till November, 1895. Under an Act passed in 1820, a special Board of Road Trustees, consisting of fifteen members, was established. It comprised the Lord Provost, or, in his absence, the Senior Bailie, the Dean of Guild, and the Deacon Convener, with four representatives chosen by the Town Council, four from the Merchants' House, and four from the Trades' House. At the same time certain re-arrangements were made in the rating power, with the view of increasing the revenue, while giving relief to the poorer classes of the citizens. The rates, it was enacted, were to be levied from householders, from male lodgers, including sons over eighteen years of age living with their parents, from heritors and possessors of lands within the royalty, and from keepers of horses therein for purposes other than those of husbandry. A graduated scale of payments was fixed for house rents ranging from £4 to £100 and upwards, the occupiers at the lower end of the scale paying 2s. 6d., and those occupying the highest rented houses paying £1 11s. 6d. yearly. Lodgers also, according to the class of house in which they lived, were charged at from 2s. 6d. to 10s. yearly, heritors and owners of land were rated at 1s. per acre, and for every non-agricultural horse its owner had to pay £1 1s. yearly.

By the Police Act of 1837 the special Statute Labour Trust, created in 1820, was abolished, and the entire charge of streets and roads was confided to the Police Board. In place of the conversion of statute labour charges till that time levied, the Police Commissioners were authorized to impose a statute labour rate, not exceeding threepence per pound on the rental of all premises subject to public rates, an obviously more equitable and profitable method of raising revenues than the cumbrous plan it superseded. At the same time the charge on owners of land and of non-agricultural horses continued to be leviable as provided for in the earlier enactments, and so the power continued till in 1863 the separate charge against owners of land was abolished. The charge on the keepers of horses disappeared under the Act of 1866, and by that statute the maximum amount of the statute labour rate was raised to fourpence per pound, at which it now stands.

In 1884 the provisions of the Roads and Bridges (Scotland) Act were adopted by the Police Board, under which there is unlimited power of rating; and the proceeds of the local Statute Labour rate are now only applied to the payment of interest and sinking fund on the debts incurred previous to that year, and towards the making and maintenance of sewers in the City.

The Statute Labour obligations of the Police Commissioners under these Acts applied only to the maintenance of public streets of the extended royalty. Within the limits of the City there were certain turnpike roads
kept up by the levying of tolls on wheeled traffic, and all others called private streets still remain a charge against the owners of the property along their sides. The Act of 1843 empowered the police commissioners to compel the proprietors in such streets to pave, causeway, and maintain in proper repair the portions of the street opposite their tenements and property to the middle of the roadway from each side.

Any private street may be taken over by the police department, registered as a public street, and maintained in all time coming by the Statute Labour Committee, provided it is first causewayed and otherwise constructed to the entire satisfaction of the Master of Works. Under somewhat similar conditions also the Statute Labour Committee have power to take over and thereafter maintain pavements which have been put into a condition satisfactory to the Master of Works. The cleaning of pavements not later than nine o'clock in the morning daily, Sundays excepted, is still a statutory duty of occupiers, under a penalty of five shillings.

A great proportion of the paving and causewaying work of the City is done by the contractors who work under the supervision of the Master of Works and his officers. The City is for statute labour purposes divided into seven districts, the contracts running one, three, five, or seven years according to agreement. Owners in private streets may get their work done under certain of these contracts in their various districts. The manner in which streets and pavements or side-walks are treated varies with the varying conditions of traffic, etc. Thus wood pavement, which is very expensive to lay, and in the climate of Glasgow also exceedingly short-lived, has been tried in one section of Buchanan Street, and there with but indifferent success, for the very heavy traffic it has to carry quickly produces marked inequality of surface, and in wet weather the roadway is covered with little pools of water. Steep streets, on the other hand, where through traffic is an impossibility, are paved with rubble causeway, or they are simply macadamized. In the suburbs unpaved side-walks are kept in condition with gravel, granite chips or furnace ash. In secondary streets freestone pavements, small in section and somewhat lumpy are tolerated; but all streets of any importance must be paved with large flags of Arbroath or Caithness pavement, level and closely fitted, or in certain cases granolithic and other cement pavements are laid.

Paving stones of granite are used for the streets having the heaviest and most destructive traffic, for streets in which the tear and wear is less severe whinstone, porphyrite, or other igneous rock is employed. The granite for Glasgow streets comes almost exclusively from the Crae quarries on the shore of Loch Fyne, Argyllshire. Whinstone is principally brought from Croy and the Airdrie district. For the stores of paving stones used in Glasgow the Statute Labour Committee generally enters into direct contracts, offerers being bound to deliver the material at various
points in the City in such monthly quantities as may be agreed on. Dressed sets must be all of definite specified dimensions, squared, level, parallel on the sides, and properly gauged. Of such dimensions there is a considerable range. The smallest size specified is a 4-inch cube, the next is four inches square on the head and five and six inches deep. The ordinary oblong dressed paving sets are required to be 3 and 3 1/2 inches broad, and they range from 6 to 9 inches long, and from 5 to 8 inches deep. Along with these contracts are also taken for the supply of granite and whin channel stones or wheelers, curbstones, etc., all larger and heavier stones squared and dressed according to the necessities of the position they are to occupy. In contracting for rubble causeway stones it is specified that the stone supplied shall be 8 inches deep, not less than 4 to 7 inches nor more than 9 inches on the head, and that the bed of the stone shall have at least two-thirds the area of the top.

The simplest and least expensive—needless to say also the least efficient—causeway work contracted for by the Statute Labour Committee is the rubble work which exercised the ingenuity of our ancestors. Such causeways are required to be laid with due attention to level and street curvature over a bed of at least 3 inches of sharp clean river or pit sand. However well laid, such a causeway is of necessity easily injured, it is freely percolated by rain, which disturbs the subsoil, the individual stones become loose and rock about, and they sink unequally, producing a bumpy, uneven roadway. Of square dressed work the simplest treatment contracted for consists of laying sets of 7 to 9 inches long, 3 1/2 inches broad on the head, and 5, 6, or 7 inches deep, on a bed of 2 inches of clean sharp sand, the work being subsequently grouted with either lime, cement, or pitch. A causeway properly pitch grouted becomes practically waterproof, the subsoil is thus cut off from the influence of surface water, and the stability of the surface is increased in a remarkable manner. For the most elaborate and durable stone causeways the street is first excavated to a depth of from 9 1/2 to 15 1/2 inches, according to the bottoming and the depth of the paving sets to be laid. Over a properly levelled surface is spread a bottom of 4 to 6 inches of the best whin road metal, grouted with hot pitch, and beaten with a rammer into a uniform mass with a smooth properly curved surface. Or instead of pitch a grouting of cement may be used, in which case the mixture is one part of sand, one of Portland cement, and three parts of whin metal. The surface, prepared either with pitch or concrete, is paved with square dressed sets, assorted according to size both as to width and depth, and set on a bed of clean sharp sand, in no place less than 1 1/2 inches thick. The work is grouted with a cement, consisting of one part of Portland cement to two of sand, or with pitch or pitch and chips as may be required. Thereafter it is beaten down with a 35 lb. beater, again grouted and blinded with a thin layer of gravel. A street so treated becomes a compact united
mass, impermeable to water, and fitted to wear uniformly under heavy traffic.

The foot pavements of the City are formed of flag-stones from Caithness, Arbroath, or Kilsyth, and of hard freestone from several local quarries. Granite concrete is also coming into extensive use, and to a limited extent only; asphalt is employed. For the most important streets with heavy traffic Caithness flags are generally specified, and those contracted for, on account of the City, range from not less than 4 inches down to not less than 1½ inches in thickness. Such stones must be all dressed to accurately rectangular form, they are laid on a bed of three inches of clean sharp sand and jointed with lime. Freestone used for pavements of secondary importance must be not less than 4 inches in thickness. It has the advantage of wearing with a rough surface, which gives a good grip to the foot of the passenger, affording both comfort and safety in any street with a steep gradient. When a granite concrete pavement is laid the surface is first excavated to a depth of 9 inches. A bottoming of broken stones or bricks from \( \frac{5}{8} \) of an inch to 2 inches in size is laid to a depth of 5 inches, over this is spread a uniform layer 3 inches thick of a concrete, consisting of three parts of stones or brick, broken as above, two of sand and one of Portland cement. The surface is finished with one inch of granite concrete, formed of equal parts of clean granite chips and Portland cement. The concrete work is done in short sections, each of which is kept free from its neighbour at its edges by the insertion of a slip of pasteboard between them, and each section must be sufficiently hardened before the next beyond it is proceeded with. Concrete pavements are exceedingly durable, but though originally roughened they wear to an uncomfortably smooth and slippery surface, and the difficulty of breaking and repairing the concrete so as to get at pipes which may be under the surface is a distinct disadvantage in its general use.

Within the City and on its confines there are numerous bridges which naturally come within the authority of the Statute Labour Committee. Some of the less important bridges have been built by private or semi-private effort; some on the boundary line between City and county have been built and are maintained at a cost mutually shared in certain proportions, but the principal bridges within the City are public property, now kept up in the same way as the streets, of which they really form an integral part.

The Clyde in, or on the borders of Glasgow, is spanned by seven public bridges, and, besides, three railway bridges cross it at different points. In their order coming down the stream the public bridges are Dalmarnock Road Bridge, Rutherglen Bridge, M'Neil Street Suspension Bridge, Albert Bridge, Victoria Bridge, Portland Street Suspension Bridge, and Glasgow Bridge. It is remarkable that not one of these bridges spanning the Clyde at present in use is quite fifty years old. Dalmarnock Bridge, reconstructed
at the expense of the County of Lanark and the City in equal proportions, and opened for traffic in May, 1891, at a cost of £30,500, is the main throat connecting the Middle Ward with the City. Rutherfison Bridge, which forms the link between the ancient burgh and Glasgow, originally thrown over the river in 1776, is now in course of reconstruction, the City being liable for fully three-fourths of the expenditure, which, it is estimated, will amount to £70,000. M'Neil Street Suspension Bridge, erected in 1855, connects Glasgow Green with the south-east quarter of the City, and forms a convenient access for foot passengers between the eastern districts on both sides of the river. The Albert Bridge forms the first great public line of communication between the north and south sides of the river. It connects the end of the ancient Saltmarket Street by the roadway between Glasgow Green and the Court House with the district of Hutchesontown, which was laid out and feued towards the end of the eighteenth century. To serve that district a bridge at this point was begun in 1794, and when nearly completed in November, 1795, a great flood carried away the entire structure. In 1808 a service bridge of timber was thrown over the Clyde a little higher up, which did duty till, in 1829, a new stone bridge was erected from designs of Mr. Robert Stevenson. This structure, called Hutcheson's Bridge, opened in 1830, had but a short life of thirty-eight years, and ceased to be used in 1868. The foundation stone of the Albert Bridge was laid in 1870, and in June of the following year it was ready for traffic, having cost about £65,000. The Victoria Bridge forms the next great artery between the north and south of Glasgow, passing from the end of Stockwell Street to Main Street, Gorbals. It occupies the position of the most ancient, and for centuries the only Clyde bridge in Glasgow. In the early part of the fourteenth century a timber bridge is said to have crossed the river at this point, which in 1345 was replaced by a stone structure of eight arches by Bishop Rae, then Lord of the City. For five centuries that venerable pile continued to do service. In 1777 it was widened by 10 feet, giving then a roadway of 22 feet in all, and again in 1821 it was further widened by Telford to 34 feet, but in 1847 the ancient and picturesque bridge was cleared away. The present handsome and spacious structure substituted for it, begun in 1851, was at a cost of more than £40,000 opened in 1855. The Portland Street Suspension Bridge is a convenient footway for passengers, about equi-distant from the Victoria and Glasgow Bridges. It was erected in the position occupied by a temporary footbridge, used while the Glasgow Bridge was being reconstructed in 1833, and for which it was substituted in 1846. The most important and busiest of all the bridges of the City, however, is the Glasgow or Jamaica Street Bridge. Excepting the Caledonion Railway Bridge, which runs parallel with, and immediately below it, the Glasgow Bridge is the last erection which crosses the Clyde stream. Further
down in the Harbour of Glasgow the river is burrowed under by a subway reached with hydraulic lifts, and there are numerous ferries for passengers besides an elevating platform steam-ferry for vehicular traffic. The original Jamaica Street Bridge was begun in 1767, and opened early in 1772, but the pressure of traffic became such that within sixty years there arose a necessity for its reconstruction. A new bridge from the designs of Thomas Telford was therefore begun in 1833, and although that structure at the time of its opening in 1836 was the widest and most spacious bridge in the United Kingdom, it has again within sixty years been condemned as insufficient to carry the traffic which presents itself. Partly on that account, and partly from insecurity of the piers owing to the scour created by the deepening of the river, the Glasgow Bridge is once more undergoing a process of reconstruction, and although a core of Telford's work will remain, the bridge, when completed, will be to all intents and purposes a new structure at a cost of little less than £100,000; the estimate for reconstruction alone, exclusive of the service bridge, being £81,170. Further, it may be mentioned that the Clyde is crossed within the City by the railway bridges of the Glasgow and South-Western and the Caledonian systems, and it is at two points burrowed under by the Glasgow Subway line.

At St. Rollox the Monkland Canal is crossed by a bridge, which, now entirely within the City, was formerly on the boundary line, and fell to be upheld by the Joint Committee of the County Road Trust of Lanark and the Statute Labour Committee.

Over the Kelvin the ancient Partick Bridge on the Old Dumbarton Road was removed in 1893, and a new structure substituted for it at the expense of the Caledonian Railway in connection with its Dumbartonshire lines. The principal Bridge connecting Glasgow with the Burgh of Partick—the Dumbarton Road Bridge—was, after re-construction, opened in 1877, and the structure then abandoned by a deviation of the road is now within the Kelvingrove Park. In the park the Kelvin is crossed by two other bridges, the property of the Parks Department of the Corporation, one of which, a stone bridge, was opened in 1895. On the northern extremity of the Kelvingrove Park the Hillhead district is connected with the City by Woodlands Road Bridge, originally built in 1853, which has been re-constructed within the last two or three years by the Caledonian Railway Company in connection with the Central Railway Works, towards which work the Corporation contributed £750. The most important of the Kelvin Bridges is that over the Great Western Road, a handsome and spacious structure, rebuilt at a cost of £52,000, opened for traffic in 1891. Higher up the Kelvin there are the Belmont Street Bridge, Queen Margaret Bridge, a footbridge near Kelvinside Station, Kelvindale, and, on the bounds of the City, Garscube Bridge.

On the south border one bridge only touches the extended boundaries of
the City, Millbrae Bridge on the White Cart, where that stream, for a short distance, forms one of the southern boundaries of the City.

In the balance sheet of the Statute Labour Department the bridges are entered as an asset valued at £184,857. Glasgow Bridge, in its present condition, figures for only £6000; the Portland Street Suspension Bridge is entered for £5000; the Victoria and Albert Bridges are each put down at £40,000; M'Neil Street Bridge is represented by £2500; and the City's proportion of the Rutherglen Bridge, so far as constructed, comes to £32,000. The City's proportion of the cost of the Dalmarnock Bridge is stated at £15,160; and the expenditure on the Kelvin Bridge, Great Western Road, was £51,878. Repayments to a sinking fund have reduced the amounts standing against the three latter bridges by about £7800. The other bridges of the City, as they have not formed charges against the Capital Account of the Police Department, do not appear in the column of assets in the balance sheet.

Unfortunately the roads and streets of the City do not exhaust the responsibilities of the Statute Labour authorities of Glasgow. Under the old system of toll collection the County Roads Trusts were generally in a bankrupt condition, and when, by the passing of the Roads and Bridges (1878) Act, the toll system was abolished, a portion of the liabilities of turnpike roads around Glasgow amounting to £67,000 was laid on the broad back of the City. Nor was this all; the City was also burdened with an annual payment for the maintenance of such roads, under the plea that the vast traffic it creates imposes an intolerable burden on the rural districts, through which these roads pass and which they serve. Therefore, in terms of the above Act, an annual payment is made to the County Councils: Lower Ward of Lanarkshire £5336, to the Middle Ward £1334, and to the upper district of the County of Renfrew of £4447.

While the great part of the heavy work of making and repairing the roads, streets, and footpaths of Glasgow is executed by contractors, the Statute Labour Department still gives direct employment to a large staff of men for jobbing on the streets. The number necessarily varies, but it may be assumed that from 200 to 250 are steadily employed, consisting chiefly of labourers, causewayers, surfacemen, and steam-roller men for macadamizing roads, stonebreakers, foremen, and inspectors. Two steam road-rollers are kept in constant work on the macadamized roads, and cartage work done by contract gives employment to about thirty horses daily.

The total ordinary expenditure of the Statute Labour Department for streets and bridges in 1894-95 amounted to £76,271. On the maintenance and repair of streets during the financial year ended 31st May, 1895, there was expended £47,464. In this total the larger items were: Cost of granite, road metal, etc., £15,173; wages, £11,389; payments to contractors for repaving, £8969; cost of management, £4164; carting, £2740; and asphalt, £1776.
For new paving work there was charged to capital expenditure £5,879, being £2,821 for contractors, £2,142 for materials—granite and whinstone—and £100 for cartage. The difference between the sum spent on streets, £47,464, and the total expenditure of the department was made up in payments to County Roads Trustees for the maintenance of roads converging on the City, payable under the Roads and Bridges (1878) Act, which amounted to £11,118, to interest on debts £6,891, contributions to Sinking Fund £10,277, and small payments for the maintenance of minor bridges, etc. From the 15th of May, 1856, till the 31st of May, 1895, there was expended from capital on the permanent way of streets, after deducting all contributions received from road trusts or other public bodies, and from proprietors for the transfer of private streets to the police authority, no less than £599,313. That expenditure, let it be understood, is on new work, and is exclusive of the cost of the upkeep, repair, and improvement on existing streets, all charged to ordinary current expenditure.

To meet the expenditure on the maintenance and repair of streets the assessment at the rate of 4d. per £ yielded in 1894-95 a sum of £62,418. For work done on behalf of private proprietors, of the water, gas, and other municipal departments, and for railway companies, and receipts from miscellaneous sources, there was received £12,031, and from rents, interest, and other small items there were receipts which brought up the total revenue to £73,470.
CHAPTER XIII.

SEWERS AND SEWAGE.


There were no public sewers in Glasgow previous to 1790. Happy City! Little did our ancestors know when they proceeded to supply themselves and us with these great malign conveniences of modern city existence what perplexing problems they were preparing for their successors. When they began to pour their innocent trickles of household and street drainage into the wimpling Molendinar, they did not foresee the time when that romantic burn would become a stream of noisome and pestilential liquid which we are glad to have covered over and hidden from our sight. They did not foresee that each local tributary of the Clyde, and every main sewer would pour into its basin such floods of fermenting and loathsome mixtures as would make the main stream for miles nothing better than a huge open sewer, and its banks an almost intolerable nuisance. They did not know that the drains and sewers they proceeded to make were to be arteries for carrying away the most essential ingredients of fertility from the soil, that thereby most surely would the land be impoverished, and that streams were to be poisoned and the air polluted with that which, in its proper place, would make the harvest reaper sing with joy. They did not perceive
that in forming their house drains they were opening up a channel into
the heart of every dwelling, whereby new and formidable diseases, with
stealthy step, would fasten on their unsuspecting victims, working incalculable
havoc and death in the population. A sewer is the most recklessly selfish
contrivance sanctioned by civilization, and civilized society has to pay
a heavy price for its use.

But drains and sewers are a necessary feature—if also a necessary evil—
in the economy of a modern city. The convenience of having filth carried
away by solution or suspension in water is enormous, and there is scarcely
any risk people will not expose themselves to rather than deprive themselves
of so essential a convenience. For indeed a system of drains and sewers
into which all liquid detritus is poured is in a modern city nothing less
than indispensable. Our population is too great and too closely packed
together to permit of the working of any other at present known method of
dealing with and carrying away the liquid waste and cleansings of a house-
hold. The soil pipe is the most convenient and the most reckless structural
appliance in the economy of a household. The householder gets rid of
his or her troublesome and offensive matter, it is outside his walls immediately
it is produced, and therewith he thinks the matter is at an end. It is not
so, for his sins assuredly find him out. The sin of the individual is punished
on the community, and the gigantic evils which are the inevitable outcome
of this immense indispensable selfish convenience are among the most per-
plexing problems of modern city life.

In 1790, then, there were no sewers in Glasgow; there was, of course,
no gravitation water, and the surface drainage with the meagre waste from
households and from works found its way, by ditches and open water-courses,
into the burns and river. "In 1798," says Cleland in his Annals of Glasgow,
"common sewers began to be formed in the City." It is improbable that
the work of formation was carried to any great extent in the eighteenth
century, for the Council had no more than the spare or surplus funds of
the common good with which to build these comparatively costly structures.
Nor, indeed, was it till the year 1807 that any other resources became available
for sewer formation. The Police Act of 1800 gave the Town Council
formal powers to construct, should they so determine, common sewers, drains,
and water-courses within the City and liberties thereof; but it was provided
that the whole expense of making and maintaining such sewers, etc., and
all compensation to private proprietors from damage resulting from the
necessary operations should be paid "from the common and ordinary funds of
the community." Under the Statute Labour Act of 1807 the making and
maintenance of sewers, etc., and the forming of roads and streets within the
royalty, were duties transferred to and imposed on the Town Council, and
they were empowered to apply the Statute Labour Conversion funds collected
by them for these purposes. From that time onwards the making and main-
tenance of public sewers has remained a charge of the Statute Labour Department. Writing in 1816, Cleland mentions with pride that "common sewers, large enough to admit adult persons to clean them, extending 4 miles 7 furlongs and 10 poles, are formed in the streets," and of these he gives a detailed list. Under the Police Act of 1843 the Commissioners were empowered to compel proprietors to construct private drains and sewers from their properties, leading into the common sewer at the point and in the manner they may direct, and no person was allowed to lead any drain into a common sewer without the previous consent of the police authorities under a penalty of five pounds. The same Act gave them power to compel the owners of premises without the royalty but otherwise within the jurisdiction of the Police Commissioners, at their own expense, to construct and maintain drains and sewers to the satisfaction of their officials.

By the police legislation now in force the sewers of the City are distinguished into three classes: (1) Public sewers which serve for the drainage of a public street or road; (2) common sewers which conduct the drainage of a private street or court into a public sewer; and (3) private sewers which include house drains and sewers for the drainage of lands and heritages into a common or a public sewer. Public sewers are made and maintained by the police authorities; but the proprietors of lands and heritages on which buildings are erected ex adverso the street or road are bound to relieve the police of the expense of the construction, provided the sectional area of such sewer is not greater than 7 1/2 square feet. The extra expense entailed by building a sewer of greater capacity is borne out of the Statute Labour Assessment. The making, maintenance, and cleaning of common sewers is a charge against the proprietors in private streets and courts, who are bound to make, alter, and keep them up to the satisfaction of the Master of Works, and by agreement with the proprietors holding more than half the frontage and representing more than half the value in any private street, the Magistrates and Council may contract for the making and maintenance of the sewer of such street. In the case of private sewers the Master of Works is empowered to ordain proprietors to make suitable drains and sewers, and to connect them with rhones and conductors for roof water, carrying the whole under his direction into a common or public sewer. The Buildings Regulation Act of 1892 gives powers to the Police Commissioners to declare common sewers and private sewers, which drain the lands and heritages of more than one proprietor to be public sewers, and thereupon the burden of maintaining and renewing such devolves on the Commissioners to the relief of the proprietors. This provision does not affect ordinary house drains, connecting direct with a common or public sewer.

The drains issuing from any house have to satisfy the Sanitary Inspector as well as the Master of Works, and from time to time he may require
them and their connections to be investigated by means of the smoke test. Outbreaks of enteric fever or of diphtheria give special occasion for such sanitary tests, and the great percentage of leaking and imperfect connections, which are revealed by smoke testing, give ample warrant for official interference.

So far for household sewage. But in a great manufacturing community there are vast quantities of effluent refuse—the spent liquors of chemical works, tanneries, and dye works, and the refuse from distilleries, breweries, etc., which have to be dealt with. It is convenient that such liquors should be run into the ordinary sewers of the City, but the refuse of many works, if so disposed of, would create an intolerable nuisance. For dealing with such cases the police are armed with special powers. In the first place, they have power to prohibit any person from pouring refuse either directly or by means of a private sewer into the Clyde, the Kelvin, or any of their tributaries, should such, in their opinion, injuriously pollute the water. Next, should the refuse of any trade or manufacture, in their opinion, be of a nature, which by mixing with ordinary sewage would cause noxious or offensive effluvia, they may cause a special public sewer to be built for carrying away such refuse, and they are empowered to order all producers of such noxious refuse to connect with such sewer, and rateably to bear the expense of its construction. And manufacturers draining either into ordinary or special public sewers are compelled to use all practicable means for preventing the generation of noxious gases from or by means of the refuse from their works.

When the sewers were first made the entire water supply of Glasgow was derived from street wells, and what found its way through the sewers into the streams was almost entirely surface drainage. Water-closets at that time were practically unknown within the City, the "sanitary fittings" of the modern plumber, happily, were unheard of, and even the humble kitchen sink was comparatively little used. Till the Loch Katrine supply was introduced Glasgow had indeed little water to spare for other than primary requirements, and consequently it was not till after the middle of the nineteenth century that domestic water fittings became abundant, and water began to be used on a lavish scale. Since that time water-closets have come to be more generally used in Glasgow than in any other large town, and the latest development of the system is found in the Police Amendment Act of 1890, which gives power to the authorities to compel owners of houses, however small, to fit up in connection with their properties "adequate and suitable water-closet accommodation, properly supplied with water, trapped and ventilated, to prevent leakage or effluvia therefrom." Further, the drainage from numerous public works—dye works, tanneries, paper works, breweries, and distilleries—adds no inconsiderable quota to the total fermenting and putrid volume which is poured through the sewers of Glasgow.

Till the middle of 1884 practically all the noxious filth of the City
found its way into the river Clyde through the drains and sewers, and that at the point where the river, ceasing to be a rapid inland stream, becomes a sluggish tidal basin with resurgent waters which find their way slowly onwards to the great sea. The volume of filth then and yet thrown into it renders the river little better than a huge open sewer, the contents of which exhale an evil odour perceived a long way from its banks, and which, churned up by propellers and paddles of steam-vessels, yield, in summer, an almost intolerable stench. Truly the price we pay for our highly-organized condition of city life is very heavy! The never-lifted pall of smoke which darkens the sky is bad enough, but the streams in which not only all aqueous life is poisoned, but which also exhale poison from their festering contents, are much graver evils.

The condition of the Clyde has for many years been a matter of grave concern to both the local and imperial governments. The investigations and suggestions by local committees, by deputations, and by experts have been numberless. So long ago as 1853 Mr. J. F. Bateman and Professor T. Anderson were instructed to report on the disposal of the sewage of the City, and after five years of deliberation they presented a report of an inconclusive character. Again, in 1866 the same gentlemen, associated with Mr. J. W. Bazalgette, were instructed anew to deal with the subject; and the report thereon presented recommended the carrying of the sewage in a gigantic conduit to the sandy coast of Ayrshire. The cost of this scheme was too great to be faced by the Council of the period, and once more the question slumbered till in 1874 a Royal Commission was issued to Sir John Hawkshaw to investigate the subject. In 1876 his report was issued, recommending the carrying of the sewage of the whole Clyde basin by a series of intercepting sewers and a large outfall sewer to Farland Head, there to be poured into the sea. The estimated expense of the comprehensive scheme was £2,500,000, with an annual upkeep of £8000. Based chiefly on that report a Bill was formulated by the Town Council in 1877 for the establishment of a Clyde Conservancy Board, with the view of dealing effectively with the pollution of the river, but it was found impossible to get such an agreement among the numerous authorities concerned as would warrant proceeding with the measure. Glasgow, without question, is the greatest sinner, and, after long delay, she has set herself seriously to the great duty of cleansing her hands and sewage. A favourable opportunity for beginning the work and of experimentally demonstrating the practicability of such an undertaking occurred in connection with the construction of the Glasgow Central Line of the Caledonian Railway Company. That line running underground from east to west, roughly parallel with the river, cut across the line of main sewers running into the river, and it became necessary, at great expense, to intercept these and carry the sewage in sections to special points of discharge. One of these great mains conducting
the sewage of about a fifth part of the City was carried to the Clyde at Dalmarnock, and on a tongue of land there, embracing about 28 acres, it was resolved to construct works for dealing with and purifying 10,000,000 gallons of sewage per day. Parliamentary powers to this effect were obtained in 1891, and in May, 1894, the works were in operation.

The tongue of land on which the Dalmarnock sewage purification works are planted is formed by a sharp bend in the river. On the east side the ground is bounded by the Caledonian Railway Rutherglen branch, and Swanston Street passes to the river side in a straight line through the centre of the works. The main sewer, carrying the drainage of a population of 215,000 persons and of an area equal at present to 2154 acres, but which may ultimately include 3465 acres, passes into the works, and is led into an entrance chamber 17 feet by 9 feet, with a depth of 16 feet 1 inch. In this chamber all bulky floating matter in the raw sewage is caught on a wrought-iron grid before it passes eastward into the machinery building by three invert channels, which are carried under the precipitating tanks and aerating beds. At its entry into the five-feet channel which leads into the catch-pits, the sewage flows through rotary screens of cast-steel with bars five-eighths of an inch apart. One such screen is placed at the mouth of each of the three inlets, and the floating matter caught on these revolving screens is raised by lifting-plates and deposited in a wrought-iron trough, whence it is passed into a self-tipping bucket and carried on to the destructor furnace. So sifted the sewage flows on into the two catch-pits, each 47 feet 10 inches long by 20 feet broad and 10 feet deep. Here the heavy suspended matter falls to the bottom, which is in each catch-pit formed of three V-shaped ridges and channels, and along these channels there continuously work an endless compressed steel-chain scraper, which pushes forward the deposited matter to the sunk elevator troughs, from which it is raised by elevating buckets and tipped into a railway waggon on the floor level. The sewage is now free from floating detritus and heavy suspended matter, and therewith the first stage in the purification is completed.

From these catch-pits or settling tanks the sewage now flows through a 10 feet channel into the pump wells, where by means of four powerful centrifugal pumps, capable of raising a million and a quarter gallons per hour, it is raised into the mixing pit in which the chemical precipitants are introduced. These consist of a solution of sulphate of alumina and lime in the proportion of two parts of alumina to one of lime. The amount of these ingredients required for the thorough purification of the sewage varies widely with the varying condition of the liquid dealt with. For ordinary domestic sewage which has a light grey colour, 5 grains of sulphate of alumina and 2½ grains of lime per gallon treated may be sufficient to produce a colourless and innocuous effluent. But when the sewage treated has a dark-brown or blue colour, owing to the admixture of colouring matter and tannin from
dye-works and tanneries, of which there are several in the district, the proportion of chemicals necessary may increase four-fold, rising to 20 grains of alumina and 10 of lime, and thereby, of course, adding enormously to the expense of treatment. The milk of lime and the solution of sulphate of alumina are prepared with sewage water pumped into the mixing boxes in the lime room and the alumina room respectively.

The mixing pit measures 10 feet square by 8 feet deep, and is provided with a centre tongue going down to within 3 feet 6 inches of the bottom. Under this tongue the sewage, mixed with the chemicals, has to pass, and thereby the ingredients are thoroughly mingled. From the mixing tank it passes by the outlet channel to the precipitation tanks, of which there are two sets of twelve, each tank having a capacity of 81,000 gallons. The precipitation tanks are worked on the intermittent system, one set at a time being charged; and each tank occupies about seven minutes in filling. The operation of precipitation occupies about three-quarters of an hour, and, when completed, the floating arms are lowered, and the clear water flows off over the aerating beds, leaving in the bottom the sludge, to which we shall hereafter return. Over the stepped bottom of the aerating beds the water flows in thin sheets, so as to expose a great and constantly changing surface to the atmosphere, and then, by three syphon pipes, it passes under Swanston Street to the filter beds on the west side. From a 20-feet main channel the water is distributed by four 5-feet channels into the coke filters, of which there are twenty, each 40 feet by 10 feet, and 3 feet 6 inches deep. Through these it passes, and thence it goes to be distributed over forty sand filters, each 40 feet by 38 feet, and 2 feet 3 inches deep. From the sand filter the water is taken to a 20-feet effluent channel, whence, through five flap valves, it passes into the outlet chamber, and so into the Clyde.

The sand of the filters, as it becomes dirty and clogged, is washed with precipitated sewage water in the sand-washing machine, and used over and over again. The coke, when too dirty for further use, is used as fuel for raising the steam in the boilers connected with the machinery department, to which we must now return in connection with the further treatment of the sludge left in the precipitating tanks.

The precipitated sludge is carried from the tanks back into the machinery room through a channel having a fall of 3 inches in 100 feet, and it is received into a vast tank under the floor of the alumina mixing room. From this it is raised by a centrifugal sludge pump into a range of three sludge settling tanks, in which a further separation of solid and liquid takes place to the extent of about 50 per cent. The supernatant fluid is run off into the pump well containing the untreated sewage, and the sludgy mass left is drawn into a tank under the lime room. The sludge is no longer in a condition to be lifted by pumping, and, to get it from the tank into the two
sludge mixers on the floor of the lime room, a sludge ram worked by compressed air has to be employed. A charge of the low-pressure ram which conveys the sludge to the mixers consists of 1800 gallons. In the mixers there is added to the sludge a proportion of hot lime to facilitate the subsequent pressing. From these mixers the sludge runs by gravitation into a range of four high-pressure rams, by which it is shot to the upper floor, on which there is a series of seven filter presses, each capable of delivering 25 cwts. of pressed sludge cake. The filter presses are of the ordinary form—a range of quadrangular corrugated plates, 3 ft. 6 ins. square, canvas covered on each side. Between these the sludge is pressed with a power equal to 90 lbs. per square inch, and the water which exudes is caught in a trough and carried into the mixing pit. The pressed cake is dropped through shoots into railway waggons placed below, and, mixed with ashes and street sweepings, it is disposed of as farm manure. On the upper floor there is also placed a large cast-iron tank, into which crude sludge may also be raised and mixed with dry ashes to make a manurial compound without the necessity of filter pressing.

The general results of the sewage treatment may be gathered from the following statement, reduced by Mr. R. R. Tatlock from a series of daily analysis extending over a month from 10th August, 1894. It was found there was removed:

<table>
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<tr>
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<th>-</th>
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<th>-</th>
<th>19.84 grains per gallon.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Suspended matter,</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>19.84 grains per gallon.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Organic matter,</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>71 per cent.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Albuminoid ammonia,</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>25 per cent.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Colour,</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>69 per cent.</td>
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</table>

These figures vary within narrow limits from month to month, but as already mentioned a satisfactory effluent can be obtained only by the use of varying and sometimes excessive quantities of precipitating chemicals. On this point Mr. Tatlock remarks: "On Sundays and during Fair holidays where the sewage that runs into the works is practically entirely of a domestic character, the cost of chemicals per million gallons does not exceed from 10s. to 12s., which is little more than half the cost originally anticipated, viz., 18s. 6d. per million gallons. On the other hand, there are now many working days upon which the cost to produce a good effluent cannot be less than 54s. per million gallons. I do not know whether it is my duty to offer any suggestion, but I consider it desirable that even in the meantime it should be ascertained from which works these colouring matters and tannin are discharged." Perhaps no better testimony to the generally innocuous character of the effluent can be cited than the fact that the works' manager had kept live gold-fish in it apparently in perfect health for several months.

In the annual résumé of new work issued by the Lord Provost in December, 1895, his lordship makes the following observations on the year's workings
at the sewage works: "It may be of interest were I to throw into paragraph form a brief statement of the statistics of the year's work to 31st October last, and to set alongside of the figures showing the quantities dealt with during the last three months of the period and the cost of treatment, the relative figures for the corresponding quarter of the previous year. The total quantity of sewage which passed through the works was over 29,422 million gallons, or 13,134,094 tons, being an average of over eight million gallons, or 35,984 tons per day. From that liquid sewage there was extracted, by precipitation, 156,864 tons of crude sludge, which was reduced by filter pressing to 12,921 tons. In addition to that quantity, 1749 tons of sludge were raised from the catch-pits by the elevators. These two quantities made a total of 14,670 tons of solid sludge, which was handed over to the Cleansing Department for disposal. By that department there was sold as manure 6074 tons, and despatched by rail as unsaleable refuse 8396 tons. The quantity of sewage dealt with, and the working expenses per million gallons, during each three months, August to October, 1894 and 1895, were as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Aug. to Oct., 1894</th>
<th>Aug. to Oct., 1895</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Total sewage dealt with</td>
<td>551,785,000 gallons</td>
<td>828,942,000 gallons</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average daily quantity</td>
<td>5,997,663 gallons</td>
<td>9,010,239 gallons</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average daily weight</td>
<td>26,775 tons.</td>
<td>40,224 tons.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pumping</td>
<td>£0 15s. 0d.</td>
<td>£0 11s. 6d.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Precipitation, including chemicals</td>
<td>£1 14s. 2d.</td>
<td>£1 7s. 4d.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Filtering</td>
<td>£0 7s. 11d.</td>
<td>£0 7s. 4d.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pressing sludge</td>
<td>£0 14s. 1d.</td>
<td>£0 10s. 1d.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The total capital expenditure on the works and machinery up to 31st May, 1896, amounted to £111,400. The land acquired cost £37,800, but £2340 thereof was charged against the Cleansing Department for accommodation it obtained. On works and machinery there was spent £81,170, but this amount again is subject to a deduction of £5220 paid by the Cleansing Department. The ordinary expenditure for the year ended 31st May, 1896, amounted to £18,282, in which amount is included £3333 paid to the Sinking Fund in redemption of debt, and £29,49 of interest. There remains £12,000 as expenditure connected with the working establishment, of which sum salaries and wages absorb £3879, the account for sulphate of alumina and for lime amounted to £4382, and filter materials cost £664, and the remainder is made up of numerous minor charges. The sludge yields no revenue, indeed, there is a charge of £295 for the removal of 8876 tons, which was not considered worth its own carriage, and the whole expenditure is met by an assessment at the rate of 1½d. per pound, which produced in the year in question £18,858.

The experience of sewage purification at Dalmarnock is completely satisfactory. It is demonstrated that, at a reasonable cost, the Clyde and its
SEWERS AND SEWAGE

tributaries can be again rendered tolerably wholesome and sightly, though we may not yet look for salmon in the much-churned water of the river, nor hope to see trout leaping in the Kelvin as it flows through Kelvingrove Park. No alternative now is left to the Corporation but to proceed with the treatment of the sewage of the whole of the City, and prudently it has resolved to deal with the vast work in a sectional manner. So long ago as 1877 the lands of Mountblow and Dalmuir were acquired at a cost of £106,000, with a view to their utilization in connection with the purification of the river, a task even then recognized as inevitable. The site on the north bank of the Clyde near New Kilpatrick is admirably chosen for its destined use. The property naturally divides itself into a shore section 125 acres in extent, lying between the Forth and Clyde Canal and the river, and higher level land, 111 acres, stretching upwards to Mountblow House. Parliamentary powers have been obtained to occupy the low-lying shore section with the sewage purification works, and therewith it will be possible to treat the whole remnant sewage of the north of Glasgow, and pass the purified effluent into the Clyde. Into the main sewer all sewage coming from the area north of its line, not only of Glasgow, but also from its western limits onwards to and including Dalmuir, will be received and treated. On that side it is calculated 77 per cent. of the sewage of the entire area dealt with will be caught, and as it will be treated throughout by means of gravitation, the serious expenditure due to pumping will be to that extent avoided. For the low-lying districts between the route of the sewer and the river there will be provided a subsidiary intercepting sewer, from which the flow, about 23 per cent. in amount, will be raised by pumping into the main, and in this way the entire sewage of the drainage area from Buchanan Street to Dalmuir will be dealt with.

It is quite obvious that the City has before it a serious and expensive task, but it is equally clear that its accomplishment is within view. But the cleansing of the Clyde basin does not end with the sewage of Glasgow. From Lanark downwards to the sea the valley is thickly populated, and an increasing flood of sewage, of inky coal-washings, and of manufacturing detritus will continue to be poured into the river and its tributaries. There cannot be a doubt that the several communities will be also called on to do what Glasgow is in the way of accomplishing, and within a reasonable time this foul blot on our civilization will have been removed.
CHAPTER XIV.

THE FIRE BRIGADE.


Like other respectable institutions the Fire Brigade of Glasgow can trace its history into comparatively remote antiquity. Its beginnings are to be found in the days of mechanically small things; its progress was for long chequered and uncertain; its organization in early days was loose and incoherent; and its efficiency was correspondingly uncertain and meagre. But it must be remembered that in early days the means of contending with fires, which we now possess, were not available. Water could be obtained from wells, pumps, or streams only, the means of throwing it in powerful jets and large quantities were unknown or in their primitive and rudimentary condition. At the same time also we must recognize the fact that house property, in former times, was built with little regard to warding off fires; houses were largely built of wood and covered with thatch, and fires and lights were less carefully guarded than in modern times. Our ancestors, it is true, did not possess the too-convenient fire-raiser, the lucifer match, and they were free from the risk of coal-gas, petroleum, and electric light, all fertile sources of modern conflagrations. And while fires were in olden times both more numerous and comparatively more disastrous than in our own day, it must not be forgotten that the property exposed to fire risk was in no case covered by insurance, and that fire loss fell with full and undivided force on the
unfortunate owner of the consumed structure. The buildings, no doubt, were simple in construction and not difficult to re-erect; many single modern warehouses contain more goods within their walls than was to be found within the whole City in the seventeenth century, but these facts notwithstanding, a fire at that time meant complete material ruin to the victims of the conflagration.

Glasgow, like most mediaeval towns, suffered severely from conflagrations which under favouring conditions obtained a hold, and grew in proportions that fairly baffled all attempts to control their destructive energies. The most disastrous fire, of which we have any record, broke out on 17th June, 1652. It began on the east side of the High Street, thence it ran down to the Cross, where it leapt across to the Saltmarket, and extending to the Bridgegate, Trongate, and Gallowgate, in the course of two days it consumed nearly one-third of the town. In the minute of the Council describing the fire “it pleased God to raise,” it is said that “after compt. it is fund that their will be nei four scor closes all burnt, estimat to about ane thousand families, so that vnles spidie remidei be vseit and help soght out fra such as hes power and whois harts God sall move, it is lyklie the townie sall come to outer ruein: and thairfore they have concludit and appoynted that the proveist, with Johne Bell, to ryde to Air to the Inglisch officers thair, quha hes bein heir and seen the towns lamentable conditoune, such as Collonell Overton and vthers, and to obteine from them lettres of recommandatioune to suche officers or judges wha sitis in Edinburgh, to the effect the samyne may be recommendit be them to the parliament of Ingland that all helpe and supplie may be gottin thairby that may be for supplie of such as hes thair landis and guids burnt.”

By this fire the town was so impoverished that in their straits the magistrates appealed to the other Corporations throughout the country for charitable aid, to which a generous response was made; and for the relief of the sufferers a grant of £1000 sterling was appropriated by the Parliament of the Commonwealth of England, out of the treasury of the sequestrations in Scotland.

Although the fire-extinguishing appliances at the disposal of the magistrates had proved miserably inadequate to cope with this great fire, it must not be assumed that the City was entirely destitute of means and precautions for dealing with fire. In February, 1643, the minutes bear that the Treasurer had “ane warrand for the soume of syftie-twa pundis xij.s. moneye deburst for the twa dossane of lather buccats and hail charges of the hom-bringing therof, in cariage of them to the shipe for fraught and carieing of them home.” Again, in 1649, the Council instructed “Thomas Allane and the Maister of Work to provyd bucketis incais of danger, and recommendis to the Hospitaller to doe the lyk.”

But it was borne in on the Council by disastrous experience that the
precautions they had hitherto taken were utterly inefficient, and a minute passed on 28th February, 1653, reveals some of the causes of failure, which, grievous to say, were theft and malicious mischief; and it enacts a measure which to this day is operative, although it has long ceased to have any connection with fire prevention. The minute reads thus: "The forsaidis magistratis and counsel, takeand to thair consideratioun the great necessitie they stand in from tyme to tyme for want of lether buccatis, seeing all they had of that kynd ar all stoline away and brockine, and to the effect that some of them may be had and provydet for, it is statute and ordainit that every persone wha sall enter burges or burges and gild brother heirof sall pay fyve pundis by and besyd his ordinar fyne, to helpe to buy the said buccatis."

The "fyve pundis to helpe to buy the said buccatis," exacted from every new burgess by this statute, continues still to be paid by every freeman burgess of the City: 8s. 4d. sterling (£5 Scots) in the name of bucket-money, being an item in the burgess' fine. The duty of providing the buckets was after the imposition of the charge confided to the Dean of Guild, and in 1654 one hundred buckets were brought home according to the Town's order, and the Dean was instructed "to see to the commodious placing and hinging of them." He was also instructed to provide common ladders out of the unexpended bucket money, and these ladders were to be conveniently distributed throughout the City. In November, 1655, it was reported that of the ladders, five long and one short were stored in the Hie Kirk, six were placed in the Grammar School Wynd, eight were assigned to the Flesh Market, and in the Hospital sixteen were stored.

The dread inspired by the 1652 fire did not quickly pass away, and the question of prevention and control occupied for a long period much of the attention of the Council. On 5th April, 1656, a drastic order in the matter of ladders was enacted in the Council in the following terms: "The saids provest, bailleis and counsell, taking to thair consideratioune the great hurt and prejudice this brughe hes sustained at several tymes heirtofoir through the occasioun of suddent fyre, and that the want of ledders to be in reddines at sutch tymes has producit sade and wofull effectis, and thairfoir they, for preveining the lyk in tyme cumyng, does heirby enact, statute, and ordaine, the heritouris of every clos of landis within this brughe to mak and have in reddines ane sufficient leddir, and to hing the samyn in ane convenient boundis within themselves, to the effect the samyn may be in reddines at all occasiouns, and that betwixt and Witsonday nixtocum, wnder the pain of twentie pundis ilk persoune, wnforgivin, by and attour they sall be subject to doe the samyn: and for the better taking tryall that obedience be given heirto, divers honest men ar to be nominat and appoyntit in evrie quarter for takein noteice heirof."

At first the "bucket money" appears to have been rigorously applied towards providing the means for coping with fire, for which it was originally
exacted, and the duty of dealing with the fund devolved on the Guildry, the five pounds Scots being divided equally between the Merchants' and the Crafts' Hospitals. As the demand on the fund was by no means steady, the exaction soon came to be regarded as a convenient contribution to the revenues of the two houses, and as early as 1668 the Council is found acknowledging that the Merchants' and Crafts' Hospitals "hes the benefit now of the haill buckit monye, they appoynt the said twa houses and their collectors to caus mak ane hundreth lether buckits, and the buckit monye to run in the old channel." But notwithstanding the significant instruction about causing the money to run in the old channel, for nearly a century and a half the bucket money was a mere perquisite of and source of revenue to the Merchants' and the Trades' Houses, and the latter body continues to receive, at this day, its share of the money which burgesses have to pay on entry in name of these primitive appliances for fire extinction. In 1789 the Town Council stirred up the question of the application of the fund. By minute dated 23rd July, 1789, the Council pointed out that the expense of maintaining fire-engines in the City was considerable, that bucket money was paid to the Merchants' House and Trades' House for procuring and keeping in repair buckets for fire extinguishing, that buckets are now obsolete, but that fire-engines cost much to keep in order; and the Council therefore arrived at the opinion that the two houses should "appropriate as much of the said bucket money for keeping the fire-engines in repair as will be necessary for that expense." Committees of the Town Council and of the two houses were appointed to consider and report on that proposal, but a masterly inactivity seems to have prevailed, and we hear of no issue of their deliberations. In 1807 the bucket money question came up again for consideration in connection with the police legislation of that year, under which the establishment of a Fire Brigade was confided to the Police Commissioners of the burgh, and the Committee of the Council and the two houses were unanimously of opinion that the bucket money should revert to its original use, and for that purpose that it should be accounted for to the Commissioners of Police, instead of being paid to the Merchants' and Trades' Houses. Of this destination of the bucket money the Merchants' House unanimously approved, and the collectors were instructed forthwith to pay over to the Commissioners the part of the bucket money accruing to the house from the entry of burgesses. The conscience of the Trades' House has not continued so tender, and among its minor sources of revenue bucket money now appears. In 1833 the Commissioners of Police sought a conference of the interested bodies on the subject of the refusal of the Trades' House to hand over the bucket money according to their original agreement; but the Merchants' House, having regularly made the stipulated payments, declined to interfere, at the same time plainly hinting that the Trades' House ought also to stick to the bargain.
Following the fortunes of bucket money has led us away from the object for which buckets and bucket money were originally provided in Glasgow. We have seen that following the great fire, what would appear to be ample provision of leather buckets and ladders were secured. In 1656, the year in which every owner of property was ordained to keep a sufficient ladder attached to his premises, the Council agreed with James Colquhoune, a man of mechanical ingenuity, for the construction of an "ingyne for casting of watter on land that is in fyre." James was sent to Edinburgh at a cost of £23 14s. Scots, to inspect such an engine already there, and in May of the following year there was paid out of the bucket money £25 sterling (£300 Scots) "for the pryce of the ingyne laittlie maid be the said James Colquhoune, for the occasioune of suddent fyre in spouting out of water thairon." Immediately thereafter the first fire-station of Glasgow—a humble wooden shed—was set up. On 13th June the Council "concludit that the ingyne laittlie maid be James Colquhoune, be saittit near himself, and the Mr. of Wark to mak ane hous of daillis thereto." From this it would appear that James Colquhoune was not only the maker of the first Glasgow "ingyne," but he was expected to act as fire-master also.

It is melancholy to find after such ample and even oppressive precautions against fire, that within a few years the City was again afflicted with another conflagration, only less disastrous than that of 1652. The fire occurred on the 2nd November, 1677, and this second calamity appears to have greatly depressed the magistrates, who in their minute of 4th December thus improve the occasion: "The said day the said Magistrates and Counsell, taking to their serious consideratioune the great impoverishment this burgh is reduced to, throw the sad and lamentable wo occasioned by fyre on the secund of Nov. last, that God in his justice, hath suffered this burgh to fall under, and lykwayes the most pairt of the said burgh being eye-witnesses twyse to this punishment for our iniquities, by this rod, which we pray him to mak us sensible of, that we turn from the evill of our wayes to himselfe, that so his wraith may be averted, and we preserved from the lyk in tyme to come: And becaus such things ar more incident to burghs and incorporatiounes, by reasone of their joyning hous to houssis, and on being inflamed, is reddie to inflame ane uther."

Thatched roofs and wooden frame buildings, doubtless, were responsible for the frequency and destructiveness of these fires, and recognizing this, the magistrates prohibited the erection of wooden buildings.

A great fire occurred in the Gallowgate in 1684, for the staying of which neither fire-engine nor buckets appear to have been of service. Wet hides were taken out of the tan pits in a convenient tannery, and were stretched over the thatched roofs and the walls of the threatened houses, and subsequently the Council ordered "reparation to be mad to John Waddrop for the loss of his hydes that was taken out of the holes for this purpose."
But possession of a fire-engine and fire-station did not satisfy the Town Council of Glasgow that they had yet adopted all precautions needful and practicable for coping with conflagrations. The subject again came before the Council in December, 1688, when it was “statut and ordainit be the said magistratis and counsell, that everie heritor and uthyr responsible persons within the burgh caus mak and provyd ane sufficient lether buckit and put their awine names thervpon, and to have them in readdines at all occasiounes in their awine houses, and in tyme of suddane fyre—quhilk God avert—that they send out the said buckits with their ablest servands for quenching of the said fyre, and to carie water therwith, and the said buckits to be in reddines betwixt and the Fair of Glasgow nixt, under the paine of twentie pundes monye, to be exactit aff ilk contraveiner and that intimatıoune be made herof throw the toune to touk of drum; As also to inhibit and discharge all maner of persones to mak and repair to their barnes for threshing therin their victuall aither morning or evining, unles they have a lantrone or bowet with thame, for preserving the candle or light they sic with, for eshewing of skaith may come thereby as doolfull experience hes laitlie taught, and that under most severe punishing of their persones, and benisching of thame this burgh in all tyme thereafter.”

Throughout the eighteenth century we do not find many circumstances connected with fire prevention recorded in the annals of Glasgow. The merchants and the crafts continued to draw the money from burgesses, and the magistrates and Council paid the charges which arose. In 1725 we have it on record that a London-made fire-engine was obtained for the City, and on the 25th September of that year the Dean of Guild was refunded £50 he had expended in payment thereof. In 1726 an agreement was entered into between the magistrates and the owners of the sugar houses in Glasgow, which throws some light on the organization then existing for coping with fires. The terms of the agreement were, “that upon the towns exeeming their servants from keeping of the town guard, in respect their labour and work in the sugar house necessarily requyres their working in the night time as well as throw the day, they, in lien thereof, agree and condescend that the suggar boyler of each of their sugar houses, with their servants, which will be ten, at least, from each sugar house, shall be ready at all tymes when fire happens in the city, or their being advertised by the drum, or bell, or first allarm thereof, to attend the Magistrats, and give their best help and assistance. The town provyding each suggar house with four slings, and stands and buckets. So that upon the first occasion of fyre, they shall come to the place with them filled with water, and thereafter observe the orders and directions of the Magistrats, and others whom they shall appoynt.”

In the same year (1726) we have the first local mention of insurance against fire in the following minute of the Town Council: “Considering that
there is an agreement signed by several of the heretors within the burgh, for a mutual insurance of tenements and houses from losses by fire, do agree that the town's corner house at the Cross be lykeways insured."

In 1747 the City was in possession of three fire-engines, but that equipment was not sufficient to control a fire which burst out in Gorbals in June, 1749, whereby the greater part of Main Street, as it existed at that time, with its adjoining thoroughfares, was consumed. According to the Glasgow Journal of the time, there had not happened within sixty years a fire whereby so much devastation was occasioned. Public subscriptions were set on foot for the relief of the sufferers, and liberal subscriptions were received from churches in Edinburgh, and from other sources.

At the beginning of this century Glasgow was in possession of six manual fire-engines, two of which were presented by the Sun Fire Office, and probably others were similarly obtained, with about 1000 feet of leather hose. They were, of course, in every way less efficient than those now in use. The engines were distributed through the City thus: A, in the Meal Market; B, at the Potato Market, King Street; C and D, at the north end of the Wynd Church, on the south side of the Trongate; E, at Hutcheson's Hospital; and F, in Laing's Callander Close, Gallowgate Bridge. The keys of the places in which the first four were placed were to be found in the houses of slaters; and, there being then no permanent fire establishment, it was to such tradesmen that the authorities principally looked for help in case of conflagration. The promptitude of a modern fire brigade could not, in the circumstances, be expected, and the water for fire-quenching having to be drawn from streams and wells, it is not marvellous that fires exhausted themselves more than they were controlled and extinguished. "On a fire alarm being given," says Dr. John Aitken, "the fire drum was beat off from the main guard house, Candleriggs, by the regimental drummer on duty. On midnight alarms he was escorted by two men of the military guard; and it was usual for the guard to turn out to assist at fires by keeping the ground clear, and on occasions of large fires, and of several hours' continuance, we had a reinforcement of sometimes two or three hundred men from the infantry barracks for the same purpose, viz., to keep a clear space and course for the men employed."

Under the Police Act of 1807, as we have seen, the superintendence of fires was transferred from the Town Council to the Commissioners of Police, and that body proceeded to organize the Department in a more worthy manner than had hitherto been attempted. A special superintendent of fire-engines—one Basil Aitchison, who had already been employed putting fire-cocks in the streets—was, in 1809, appointed, and he was instructed to have all the engines, pipes, etc., put in proper repair. In 1811 it was reported that forty fire-plugs were distributed throughout the City, and in 1816 the number had increased to 152. The growing efficiency of the Fire Department
naturally entailed greatly augmented expenditure, to the alarm of the Fire Committee of the Police Commissioners, who, to curb expenditure, resolved in 1817 to dismiss the staff attached to the engines then stationed at Townhead and Dallas Court, and to employ two men to attend to these engines at a salary of a guinea each yearly. They reduced the men attached to the other two engines to eight for each, and the salaries of the masters of four engines were reduced to two guineas per year. The committee estimated about that time that they had under their charge apparatus worth nearly £1000 sterling, and the yearly cost of the fire establishment was the modest sum of £300, but at that time the yearly number of fires averaged only fourteen.

In 1825 there were in Glasgow five fire-engines, but three of them were old, and their value for fire extinction was probably illusory. It is not a matter for wonder that complaints as to the efficiency of the department were so loudly expressed that the Fire Committee were obliged to bestir themselves. A chronic warfare had for many years been waged between the Fire Committee and the local fire insurance offices regarding the cost and maintenance of the establishment, and in December, 1825, something like an ultimatum was presented by the Fire Committee to the insurance companies. The Police Commissioners contemplated the discontinuance of the Fire Department entirely, but in the end a communication was made to the Fire Offices intimating that £1600 was required to complete the stock of the department, and the Fire Offices were expected to contribute towards raising this sum. It was suggested that the more powerful offices should each contribute one engine with a distinctive uniform and badge for those in charge of it, so that the public would be advertised of the liberality of the several offices. No result followed the conference over these proposals, and the animosity of the Commissioners continued to slumber on. At the same time they added to their expenditure by increasing the allowance to carters who conveyed the water butts to the scene of fires. The number of firemen was increased from thirty-five to fifty, and the superintendent was allowed a great-coat.

A detailed code of regulations and instructions for the Fire Department was sanctioned by the Police Board in January, 1834. From these regulations we learn that once every three months all the firemen, engines, butts, and carts, etc., were called out for practice and inspection by the Fire Committee. The men employed were to be of preference such as were by their trades acquainted with buildings, and they were, as far as possible, to be resident near the Police Office in Albion Street, where the engines were then kept. The firemen were each supplied with number tickets and a badge, and they had a signboard—FIREMAN—attached to their dwellings. Sixteen carters living near the police buildings possessed of good horses were also selected by the Fire Superintendent, and to them signboards with their names and FIRE
BUTT CARTER were supplied. They were instructed in the method of opening and closing fire-plugs, and on an alarm of fire the watchmen on their beats immediately gave them notice; but beyond these advantages they had to take their chances with other owners of horses, because the first fit horse which arrived at the engine-houses was selected for employment, and paid for according to the scale of premiums in force.

Immediately on an alarm of fire being given, four fire-drums were sent out through the four quarters into which the City was divided, warning carters, firemen, and the public generally. For the first engine which appeared at the fire, the men who had it and the hose in charge received a premium of 10s. amongst them; for the second, 8s.; and for the third, 6s.—provided they were dragged to the scene by the men themselves. When horses were employed the premiums went to the owners of the animals or the men paid for their hire. While on duty at fires the branchmen were paid 4s. for the first hour, 3s. for the second, 1s. 6d. for the third, and for every succeeding hour 1s. Ordinary firemen received for the first hour 3s., for the second, third, and fourth 1s. each, and for all after at the rate of 6d. If extra assistance was hired from the crowd, the persons employed received a ticket, and were entitled to half these rates of payment.

In 1834 the insurance companies suggested the presentation of a fire-engine from Philadelphia, but it does not appear to have been obtained; and again, in 1837, in connection with the Police Bill then in Parliament, the fight between the Commissioners and the companies was resumed. On this occasion the fire companies offered to contribute £400 yearly towards the expenses of the establishment, but this offer was declined. Under their Bill the Commissioners sought a renewal of the powers they had under previous enactments to charge the half of the fire expenses up to a maximum of £15 against the owners of the property to which the brigade might be summoned. In this the insurance companies combined to oppose the Commissioners, and the previous powers were withdrawn; and in place the Commissioners were empowered to enter into agreement with any public bodies, companies, or with private persons as to the charge for the engines. Thereupon the Commissioners resolved to limit their expenditure by reducing the Fire Department to two engines and four butts, and at May next year to discontinue the establishment entirely. In pursuance of this policy, they actually, in June, 1838, declined to pay the firemen's wages, and it was only after an interdict against their action was obtained at the instance of the Town Council that matters were allowed to continue on old lines. Soon after this (in 1840) a superior fire-engine and a staff of men were provided by the West of England Insurance Company, the Police Board affording every facility for the new engine obtaining all alarms of fire. Under the Act of Parliament passed in 1843, the old arrangement for paying for the services of the Fire Brigade was resorted to—half the total cost, up to a maximum
payment of £15 within the City; and the whole expenses, plus 25 per cent., for services outside the City bounds.

The introduction of Loch Katrine water in 1858 into Glasgow gave an opportunity for greatly developing and improving the fire-extinguishing agencies in the City. The first steam fire-engine for Glasgow was obtained in 1870 from Shand, Mason & Co., a firm which subsequently supplied both manual and steam-engines to the department. In 1878 a system of electrical fire alarms, on a plan devised by Mr. R. S. Symington, was introduced throughout the City, and, notwithstanding the occasional malicious misuse of the signalling apparatus, the method of communication proved of incalculable value. The example of Glasgow was quickly followed in other cities, and now, of course, such agency is fully supplemented with telegraphic and telephonic communication between stations and from private houses, offices, etc.

Since 1891 the Brigade have carried portable telephones on their engines, by which, in connection with the fire alarm wires, telephonic communication can be at any point established, and the location and extent of fire can be announced to the offices, and, if necessary, additional assistance summoned. The Glasgow Brigade, it is believed, was the first to make use of the portable telephone in its organization.

In 1873 the Fire Committee were constrained to purchase and maintain a stud of horses for the special use of the Fire Department, and more important still, in 1878 the Fire Brigade became a standing permanent force. Up till this time the employees were men engaged in other occupations, who might or might not be available when need of them was the sorest. Now every fireman is permanently employed as such, living in the property of the Police Board, or in a house rented for him in immediate proximity to his fire-station, and he is at all times at call; and not only is he housed by the Department, but he is provided with uniform clothing, boots, helmet, and belt, and he is daily exercised in working and attending to the efficiency of the beautiful engines he has to work, and in the complex system of inter-communication, by which, in the briefest space, his presence and services may be brought to bear on any point. All this is done for an expense of not less than £12,000 yearly to the Police Board.

In addition to the chief station at College Street, and superintending stations in the northern district at St. George's Road, and at the south side at Warwick Street, there are seven other fire-stations throughout the City, although at two of them no steam fire-engine is kept. On the staff there are a chief officer, 3 superintendents, 7 station foremen, and 98 engineers, firemen, and coachmen—in all 109 persons. For the service there is maintained a stud of 34 horses, 10 steam fire-engines, and 4 manual engines. There are 10 large hose and ladder carriages, 5 tool, etc., carriages, 5 hand hose reels, and 4 fire-escapes. The total length of hose, leather, and canvas at the
disposal of the department is 43,970 feet, and throughout the City there are
on the water mains no fewer than 5,407 fire-cocks and valve hydrants. Of
street fire-alarms there are 124, and there are 29 more private alarms
under the control of warehousemen and public companies. The number
of fires yearly averages about 450, and in 1894 the fire loss was only
£36,500, although, taking an average over ten years, the yearly loss rises to
£106,800.

It would be as absurd to place to the credit of the Fire Brigade the
small fire loss of £36,500 in 1894 as it would be to blame the establishment
for the very considerable total of £206,000 in 1888. In their nature fire
losses must range between wide limits, and under certain conditions the most
perfect imaginable organization is incapable of arresting the destructive force
of fire, which has established a hold on highly inflammable and valuable
property. Nevertheless the average worked out by Mr. William Paterson, the
chief officer, for two decennial periods are not without significance as to the
increased promptitude and efficiency of the Brigade in later years. The
outcome is shown in the following table:

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<tr>
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<th>1875-1884.</th>
<th>1885-1894.</th>
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<tr>
<td>Loss per fire,</td>
<td>£349 8 6</td>
<td>£239 5 10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Loss per 1000 of population,</td>
<td>232 15 4</td>
<td>178 2 11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Loss per £1000 of rental,</td>
<td>36 14 1</td>
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In connection with fires there was established in 1873 by the Fire
Insurance Companies a local Salvage Corps, which works in harmony with
the Fire Brigade. The Corps at first consisted of 7 men and 2 horses, but
has from time to time been increased till in 1895 it stood at 20 men and
5 horses.
CHAPTER XV.

PUBLIC LIGHTING.


In a sentence at once vague and ambiguous, the laborious Dr. Cleland in his Annals of Glasgow writes, "In the year 1717 street lamps were first used in Glasgow of a conical form." The grammar of the statement may be passed over, but if it is thereby meant that a general system of public lighting was then in operation or inaugurated, the assertion must be challenged. Public lighting at that period was not common even in great cities, and as Glasgow was but little more than an overgrown village, it is most unlikely that the magistrates with their impoverished exchequer spent any of their revenues on street illumination. That there was a certain amount of public lighting in Glasgow in the latter half of the eighteenth century is made certain by the fact, that the Town Council in the year 1767 expressed the opinion that it would be beneficial to the inhabitants if additional lamps were provided, and the town much better lighted than it then was; but they lamented that the condition of public income and expenditure did not permit of that and other desirable ameliorations. Later in 1775 the magistrates had under their consideration the propriety of promoting in Parliament a bill for, among other things, the better paving and lighting of the streets. That public lighting was both limited and inefficient at a date subsequent to this is evident from the fact that in 1780 lamps were first placed on the south side of the Trongate, although that was then a principal street of the City. These lamps were erected as a reward for the formation of a foot pavement by local proprietors between the Cross and Stockwell Street,
and their erection was accompanied with the announcement that should the proprietors to the west of Stockwell follow, in pavement laying, the public-spirited example of their fellows to the east thereof, the same reward and recognition would be accorded to their labours. In views of the Trongate executed before the end of the century lamp pillars are shown extending along both sides of the street.

The lighting of the public streets became a statutory duty only under the Police Act of 1800, although in that crude but revolutionary statute the duty is implied rather than expressed. The clauses which deal with the subject empower the Police Commissioners to affix to the walls of houses, etc., lamps and lamp irons. It gives them ample power to punish any person guilty of wilfully breaking or damaging the lamps and their appurtenances, or anyone who shall wilfully extinguish the lights within the same, and it also provides for compensation for the accidental breaking or injury of the lamps; but the statute makes no provision whatever for the lighting of the lamps, nor for the maintenance of a Lighting Department. From the point of view of modern parliamentary counsel, indeed, the entire statute would be regarded as a most defective and unworkable measure, but obviously at the beginning of the century the spirit rather than the letter was regarded, and, having power to erect lamp-posts, to punish roysterers whose boisterous spirits found a safety-valve in knocking them down; and specially having got fitting punishment prescribed for the extinguishing of the lights, sufficiently implied and warranted the duty and expense of putting the lights in.

Of necessity the lighting of the streets at the beginning of the nineteenth century must have been feeble and ineffective. "No light was there, but only darkness visible." "Here and there," says Peter M'Kenzie in his Reminiscences, "in the lone streets there might be observed the feeble twinkling of a few oil lamps on their elevated wooden pedestals, but nothing else in that shape could be discerned unless the moon and the bright stars of Heaven broke the darkness and dispelled the gloom." The art of illumination was at that time in no way advanced from the primitive condition in which it was amongst the ancient Athenians. It is wholly in the nineteenth century that the many marvellous developments in illumination have taken place, improvements which, probably more than any other range of modern discoveries and developments, have increased public security and social order, and promoted social intercourse. So far as regards street lighting, the improvements began with the introduction of coal gas as an illuminating material, for there never was any thought of adapting costly and complex lamps, such as the Argand, for burning heavy oils in street lanterns. Gas was first turned on in a street lamp in Glasgow on the 15th of September, 1818. With only a rat's tail burner, consuming one cubit foot of gas per hour, the lighting, no doubt, judged by recent standards, would make a very
miserable show, but as against the oil lamps it superseded the gas was an enormous advance in brilliancy, economy, and convenience.

The Police Accounts for the year 1844-15, enable us to estimate the cost, and to conceive something of the efficiency of the lighting establishment of one of the latest years of oil lamp lighting. That year began with a stock of street lamps numbering 1274, and during the season 106 were added to the number, bringing the total up to 1380. The lighting staff then consisted of a superintendent, who was paid at the rate of £145 per annum, with—for a season of thirty-seven weeks—eleven lamplighters who received each 16s. weekly. For the summer season of fifteen weeks the services of two men only were required, and during that period there must have been very little lighting in the streets, for while the cost of oil, tow, and wick for the turn of thirty-seven weeks was £1337, the expenditure on these lighting materials over the summer of fifteen weeks came to something less than £20.

With the introduction of coal gas, the duties of the Lighting Department were very much simplified. No more carrying about of oil through the streets, or filling of lamps and of trimming of wicks. The contract for the supply of gas went to the Gas-Light Company or companies, and the lighting and extinguishing only, with the care of posts and lanterns, remained in the hands of the officials of the Lighting Department. So matters continued, till in 1869 the gas-works of the City were acquired by the Corporation. The last contract made by the Police Commissioners for the supply of street gas was entered into with the City and Suburban Gas Company in May, 1858, and it continued till that and the other company were absorbed by the Corporation. For the year, May 1858-59, cost of gas for the public lamps was £5764. During the first year the Corporation had the gas of Glasgow in their own hands, 1869-70, the sum expended by the Police Commissioners on public lighting was £18,963, but of this amount £8030 was represented by gas supplied for the lights of common stairs. From 1862 till 1867 occupiers were required either to contract for stair lighting by paying a fixed sum for a supply in the street mains, calculated generally on the understanding that lights should be extinguished at eleven p.m., or, without it, to lead a pipe from the meters within their own houses. After 1867 optional contracting for the lighting of public stairs ceased, and the duty of stair-lighting entirely devolved on the department.

As regards the lighting private courts, passages, closes, and common stairs previous to 1862, the law was that should the Commissioners deem it expedient to light such spaces out of the public assessments, they were authorized to provide lighting upon receiving an application from the occupiers, or from such a number of them as paid at least one-half the rent of the whole premises to be benefited by the lighting. The expense of the lamps and lights was
then to be charged proportionately against the occupiers, and paid in such manner as the Commissioners should determine.

The Police Act of 1862 laid on the Police Board the duty of lighting all streets, roads, and courts within the City, whether public or private; but in the case of private streets and courts they were empowered to levy an annual payment not exceeding 25s. for every lamp erected and lighted in a private street, and to recover the same rateably from the proprietors whose property should be served by the lighting. That Act also gave the Board power to enforce the regular and sufficient lighting of all common stairs during such hours as they should from time to time determine. Under this provision the Public Lighting Department were to take charge of the lights on all ground floors and one stair up, leaving to the upper flat to lead a supply from their own meters, or to contract with the gas companies. The charge made by the department was at the rate of 25s. yearly for each light. The scheme was found not to work smoothly in practice. Complaints were incessant, and much of the time of the officials of the department was occupied in investigating complaints and in attending as witnesses in the Police Courts in the prosecution of occupiers on charges of neglected or insufficient lighting of stairs.

The experience gained in the working of the Act of 1862 led to further modifications when the Police Act of 1866 was sought. By the terms of that measure the duty of lighting and maintaining approved lamp posts, lamps, etc., for private streets and courts is laid on the proprietors, and the maximum charge by the Lighting Department for lighting is reduced to 15s. yearly for each lamp. Similarly in the lighting of common stairs, owners are bound to provide gas pipes, brackets, lamps, and burners to the satisfaction of the inspector of lighting, and the extinguishing of stair lights became wholly the duty of the department, a maximum charge of 10s. per light being leviable from the proprietor or proprietors of the dwellings served by the common stair. The proprietors are entitled to recover the charge of 10s. actually levied from their tenants, and to retain 20 per cent. of the whole for their trouble of collection and their risk of loss.

The system of common stair lighting is carried on at a heavy loss to the Police Department. The duty gives employment to 347 men, and for the year ending 31st May, 1895, the cost of wages, gas, etc., was £24,650, while the sum received from landlords was not more than £14,870. The lighting of private streets and courts similarly costs about £5300 yearly, and the revenue at 15s. per lamp comes to not more than £3150. The deficit under these two heads of £12,000 or thereby becomes a public burden, made up out of the proceeds of the ordinary police rates.

The new Act came into force in May, 1867, at which time there were 2058 stair lights in charge of the department, and 7200 attended to by the occupiers, in all 9258 lights in common stairs. Within the first year
PUBLIC LIGHTING

under the new system stair lights increased to 15,335, a growth of nearly 75 per cent., and ever since the increase has been steady and continuous, till in the early part of 1896 the number of common stair lights burning each night in Glasgow is not fewer than 39,000.

The streets of Glasgow are by no means brilliantly lighted as compared with those of other cities, and yet the expansion and improvement of public lighting even within the last twenty years have been on a scale almost prodigious. But as the public became accustomed to conveniences and advantages, they became increasingly exigent in their demands, and every improvement led to the demand for more. The resources of science have been directed towards the problems involved in the artificial illumination of large spaces, vast possibilities of development have been revealed, and in the competition of rival illuminating agencies each medium has been worked up to increasing degrees of perfection. Gas has been threatened by electricity, and in the conflict and competition thereby evoked the older and more familiar agency has developed new and valuable resources. The general result is that public lighting which twenty years ago would have been regarded as sufficient, if not brilliant, will now no longer be tolerated. The growth in the demand for and supply of improved lights may fitly be illustrated by comparing the conditions of street lamp illumination in 1877 with those of the year 1896. In the earlier year the public lamps in Glasgow numbered 7916, and they were supplied with rat-tail burners, about two-thirds of which—5155 in number—consumed only one foot of gas per hour, 2468 were calculated to burn two feet, 285 were for three feet, and there were only eight lamps in which as much as four feet per hour were consumed. In all, these lamps burned 41,428,000 feet in the year. Now, in 1895-96, there are 13,672 public lamps consuming in the year 129,472,000 feet of gas, there are only four public lamps burning as little as one foot per hour, 8973 consume two feet, 3827 have three feet burners, there are 237 burners which consume five feet, 260 for six feet, and smaller numbers for a consumption which goes up to twenty feet per hour, for which large amount there is one burner. And these numbers are exclusive of the powerful electric light in the principal thoroughfares, which supplanted many high-power burners along their line of installation.

Since 1877 the ordinary flat flame burner has supplanted the rat-tail for street lamp lights. In the interim experiments have been made with many forms of burner, such as Siemen's Regenerative, Sugg's Argand, and others; but such advantages as these promised did not appear to warrant their general adoption, and they were not persevered with.

Since the end of February, 1893, a certain number of the principal streets and places in the central district of the City have been lighted by electricity by means of arc lamps. Of these 112 are now in use, lighting the line of Sauchichall Street from Charing Cross to Renfield Street, and
thence through Union Street and Jamaica Street, through and over Glasgow Bridge, Argyle Street, and Trongate. Buchanan Street and George Square are also lighted by electricity. The cost of the electric energy supplied by the Gas and Electric Lighting Department of the Corporation for street lamps in 1895-96 amounted to £2850.

Since the latter part of 1893 an experiment has been in progress for the testing of the employment of the Welsbach incandescent mantle in the lighting of the streets. At first ten lamps were fitted up with Welsbach burners in St. Vincent Place, and these having proved satisfactory both in steadiness and amount of light and in economy of cost, the system is now being tried on an extended scale in Gordon Street, Blythswood Square, Bain Square, and Bridgeton Cross, and in the long line of Bridge Street and Eglinton Street. In all 164 Welsbach burners, fitted each with a by-pass for lighting, were in use early in 1896 with perfectly satisfactory results, except in the case of Bridgeton Cross, where excessive vibration proved very destructive to the mantles.

In all the Lighting Department of Glasgow during the winter 1895-96 attended nightly to the lighting of 56,905 jets, of which 13,672 were in public lamps, consuming 129,472,000 cubic feet of gas at the cost of £15,745; of lamps in private streets and courts there were 4204, having a consumption of 25,267,000 cubic feet valued at £2844; and of stair lights the number was 39,029, consuming 100,172,000 cubic feet of gas of the value of £11,867. In all the consumption of gas for public lighting amounted to 254,912,000 cubic feet, the price of which was £30,456. The whole cost of the lighting establishment for the year ended 31st May, 1895, was £61,553, or deducting a small revenue from broken lamps, scrap, etc., it may be stated in round figures as £60,000. To meet that expenditure there is the charge for private lamps at 15s. each and for stair lighting at 10s. per jet, which together yielded £18,000, leaving the balance £42,000 to be made good from the general police rate.
CHAPTER XVI.
CLEANSING.


The cleansing of the City was not one of the primal obligations of the burghal authorities of Glasgow. In mediaeval times when the City was of limited extent, when the houses were small, when gardens and open spaces were numerous, and when what are sometimes mistakenly called "sanitary conveniences" were unknown, the necessity for corporate interference in cleaning was not an indispensable requirement for the well-being of the community. The City then was in the condition of many rural villages at the present day yet untouched by the county councillor, where in matters of cleaning, sanitation, and water supply each dweller is a law unto himself. In the seventeenth and the early part of the eighteenth century Glasgow had the reputation of being a clean, sweet, well-ordered City, and visitors contrasted it in these respects most favourably with other towns throughout Britain. Such gratification as can be derived from the comparison must be subdued and tempered by the reflection that other cities must have been shockingly dirty, indeed, when Glasgow was esteemed a non-such of wholesome cleanliness.

For, indeed, the records present us with a picture lamentably short of a present-day ideal of sweetness. The inhabitants of Glasgow had an old-established and almost ineradicable habit of planting their middens on the street close by, and convenient to, their doors. Again and again, with painful but fruitless iteration, the Town Council fulminated minutes against
this "uncomely" habit; but threats of fines, of escheating of the "fulzie," and other penalties notwithstanding, the practice was persisted in. Removal of these middens was ordered by the minute of date 20th October, 1599, which runs thus: "It is condiscendit be the bailleis and counsale and thocht meitt be thame present that thair salbe inhibitioone maid that na middingis be wpoun the Highegate fra sydwall to sydwall wpoun the foirgate in ony syde thairof nor ly langer nor xlviiij houris, bot to be transportit af the same, with certificatienoun gif thai failely to tak the same awaye, the haill fuilley salbe escheitt and tane awaye be ane commone carter man to the weill of the puir." Here, it will be seen, is a threat to appoint a public scavenger, the profits of whose labours were to be devoted to works of charity.

The visitation of the dreaded plague in 1646-47 led to extraordinary cleaning measures on the part of the Town Council. Special cleansers were employed for cleaning the foul houses and people in the town, a horse was bought for use in carrying away soiled clothes and sweepings from the town, the cleaning of houses was to be done at the sight of the bailies, all able to bear the expense were to be charged; a second horse was delivered to Gilbert Currie for "clenging" the streets, and he was to be paid 23s. Scots for each day he worked with man and horse, besides two pecks of corn weekly to sustain the horse.

The slope of the High Street, and the upper parts of the town were favourable to the flow and escape of surface water by such channels as it could make; but when houses were built westward from the Cross by the Trongate, the fall towards St. Tenowes or St. Enoch's Burn, to which a channel or syver was made, was slight, and surface water was easily dammed back. It is very significant that occupiers took advantage of this condition to choke up the gutter with straw and "fulzie," thereby to make and enrich manure. To remedy this an edict was issued by the magistrates in accordance with a minute dated 5th May, 1655.

"It being maid knowne to the saids magistratis and counsell that the great abundance of red layed without the West Port had fallin in the guitter and stoppit the current of the water, so that sundrie people on the north syd of the Trongait were forcit to mak brige stones for entrie to thair houssis, the foirsaidis magistratis and counsell thairfor does heirby inact, statute and ordaine, that thair be no more red laid downe in that pairt heirefter; as also that every heretor or tennent wha hes either kill or borne on the north syd of the gait thair, betwixt the west gavill of Hutchisons Hospitall and the Kowlone mouthe, be chairgit at all occasiounes to red the passadge of the water thair foiranten themselfis, and that vnder the payne of fiyne pundis, and to be poindit be the officers thairfor how oft and swa oft as they shall contravin."

Eleven years thereafter the same mucky condition continued, and again
the magistrates ordained that every heritor and tenant of the lands nearest “the syre keep the same free ilk ane foir against themselfis.”

When the threats, warnings, and penalties of the magistrates were ineffective in abating so portentous a nuisance as door-step and street middens, there is reason to fear that their edicts for the cleaning of the public streets would meet but scant honour and obedience. Orders of this nature, nevertheless, repeatedly appear in the Council minutes of the seventeenth century, their frequency giving cause for suspicion that they were neither promptly obeyed nor rigorously enforced. As a sample, the minute of 19th January, 1656, may be quoted:

“The saids magistrates and counsell, taking to their consideratioun the foulnes and clattines of the commoune calsay, quhilk wald be eisilie mendit give evrie nychtbour and foir frunt wald tak pains to clat the calsay weiklie forainent thesmelvs, therfoir it is enactit, statut and ordenit, be the saids provest, baillies and counsell, that evrie indwaler in foir frunt, in evrie place through the haill towne, sall dight and clat the calsayis forainent thesmelvs, weiklie, betuixt the guter and the crowne of the calsay, and that weiklie, vnder the pain of fourtie schillings Scottis to be exactit of ilk contra-veinar; and siclyk that na maner of persowne lay fulyie on the calsayis whill first they have horssis redie to take away the samyne, vnder the pain of ten pundis wnforgivin; and ordeins this to be intimat through the haill towne be towck of drume.”

Further unpleasant light is thrown upon the habits of our ancestors in respect of public cleanliness by the order issued by the magistrates in 1696, prohibiting the casting out at windows, by day or night, of dirt or filth of any kind. Whether the cry “Gardyloo” was in Glasgow, as in Edinburgh, sufficient to transfer to the unfortunate passer all the responsibility for the consequences does not appear, but the habit pointed at by the prohibition is entirely in keeping with the established practice of disposing of filth in the most summary and reckless manner.

Any improvement in the decency and cleanliness of the streets which may have been effected during the eighteenth century was due only to the improved habits of the people. It was not till the passing of the Police Act of 1800 that the cleaning of the streets and the removal of filth came to be looked on as a public duty, and enjoined by statute. It is worthy of passing comment that in this enactment we have the first step in that municipal communism which in the nineteenth century has developed in many directions, which has entirely altered the relations of the Town Council to the people, which has been productive of incalculable benefit to the poor and the helpless, and has made the City really a community.

The newly-established Police Board at first appointed no separate cleaning establishment. The superintendence of cleaning was entrusted to the Master of Police, and his staff of night watchmen had the double duty of guarding
the streets and keeping them clean. Twice a week, for two hours at a time, the night-watchmen had to ply the broom and wheel-barrow. In summer, when the days were long, watch duty ceased at four o'clock, and then from that hour till six one-third of the force ceased to be constables, and became scavengers. In winter patrol duties ceased at six; the watchmen went home to bed, and at noon they turned out for their two hours' street-cleaning work. In 1804, however, a separate staff of fourteen scavengers was appointed, but they in their turn were required to assist the watchmen in preserving the peace on holiday occasions. In the year 1815 the entire scavenging establishment consisted of sixteen men, fifteen of whom received 11s. per week, and one—a foreman—had 4s. more. In all the wages' bill of the year was £469, and the expenditure in carting, implements, rent of dunghills, etc., was £454. The receipts for manure sold amounted to £418, so that the entire cost of City cleaning, such as it was, little exceeded £500. At a later period the cleaning of the City was put into the hands of a contractor, and so it continued till, in 1868, the Police Board again organized a Cleansing Department under their own immediate supervision.

The Police Act of 1843 conferred on the Commissioners enlarged powers of dealing with cleaning. They were by it authorized to appoint an Inspector of Cleansing, to provide for the “watering, sweeping, and cleansing of the streets, lanes, and passages,” and also to make regulations for the “watering, sweeping, and cleansing of closes, thoroughfares, and areas for the purpose of disinfection and otherwise promoting the health of the inhabitants therein.” But all the filth that the citizens chose to accumulate within their grounds continued to be their private property, and as such could be stored up with all its pestilential energy until such times as it was convenient to traffic with farmers for its removal. The Police Act of 1862 vested all such filth and refuse in the Board, which was removed by a contractor till 1868, when the Cleansing Department was organized on its present basis.

Under the Act of 1866 the cleaning of private streets and courts, which up till that time was the duty of the proprietors, was transferred to the Police Board, and power was granted to levy a rate of a penny per pound on the rental from the proprietors so relieved of the duty of cleaning.

The Cleansing Department of Glasgow, as organized in 1868, is under the management of a statutory official, the inspector or superintendent of cleansing. He is responsible for the cleanliness of the streets and courts within the City, for the regular collection, removal and disposal of the City manure, and generally for the complete state of efficiency of the department. He employs a staff of 1089 men, 740 on day and 349 on night duty.

For the purposes of cleaning, the City is divided into fourteen districts extending over a total area of 11,861 acres. These are supervised by 15 district and 30 divisional foremen, 15 of the latter for night and 15 for day work. Of carters there are on the night shift 148, and for day
service 83; there are 77 street sweepers employed by night and 195 by day; close sweepers working through the day number 204, and of wheelers there are 99. At the despatch works there are employed in all 129 men, the men employed at the farms number 52, there are 39 at the St. Rollox workshops, and the office staff numbering 18, completes the list. The horses owned by the Cleansing Department number 265, and the vehicles, in all 405, comprise 273 refuse carts, 12 soil and fish refuse vans, 6 lorries and spring vans for delivering feeding, tools, etc., 60 watering carts, 33 sweeping machines, and 21 carts used at the farms for agricultural purposes.

In 1868 the only ground owned by the Commissioners for cleansing purposes was at Dalmarnock Road, on which there was a depot for the storage of City manure. Here also stables for the stud of the eastern district were built. The depot has long ago been abolished, but the stables, etc., of the eastern district still occupy the same site. In the same year (1868) the premises at Parliamentary Road, long the principal establishment of the department, were taken over from Mr. Drummond, whose contract for the cartage and disposal of the refuse then terminated. The premises consisting of stables, granary, etc., were altered and extended on various occasions to give accommodation for stores and workshops. But to meet the requirements of a greatly extended City, stables had to be erected in convenient centres of various districts. As the result of these changes the Parliamentary Road premises are now only partially occupied, and the committee contemplate the abandonment of that site, and the erection in the centre of the City of stables, etc., for the Central district, where also would be placed the general stores of the department; the staff and stud required for St. Rollox district would then be removed to the despatch works there, and with these alterations carried into effect, the principal districts would have accommodation for their own staff and stud.

The workshops of the department at St. Rollox Despatch Works have a railway siding direct into the shops, and all waggons requiring repairs are by arrangement with the different railway companies sent thither. The steam power required in these shops is supplied from the boiler at the adjacent despatch works, which is fired with cinders saved from the City refuse.

The sweeping of the paved streets of the City is done during the night, chiefly by rotary horse brushes, of which there are thirty-three in use. The men start at 10 p.m., and work as a rule to 9:30 a.m., with one and a half hours off for meals, but at times they cease earlier according to the state of the weather. The sweeping machines are accompanied by sweepers who gather the sweepings into heaps, and they are followed an hour later, at 11 p.m., by carts to remove the sweepings. The principal streets are thus swept nightly, second-rate streets every alternate night, and those of less importance at intervals according to their requirements. The principal streets are also "picked" during the day, and the "pickings" deposited in
bins sunk into the pavements in the principal parts of the City and the main arteries of traffic leading to the suburbs. These bins, numbering 1382, are emptied during the night, and their contents removed along with the material which has been swept to the side of the roadway by the machines. The sweepings so collected being chiefly composed of horse droppings are mixed with the contents of ashpits, etc., in the despatch works, and sold as City manure. The macadamized roads are attended to by the day staff—the mud being either deposited in convenient tips or trucked to the country, where it serves to fill up hollow ground.

Snowfalls tax the resources of the department to the utmost. On such occasions all the available staff is set to work with the object of having the streets cleared as rapidly as possible, everything else that can stand being left over. The Clyde and Kelvin provide easy and convenient tips for clean snow and sometimes receive great quantities.

Private streets and courts, which prior to 1866 were attended to by the owners, have, since 1868, been swept by the staff of the Cleansing Department. In this work 204 men and 15 overseers are engaged. Every court is swept once, and in many cases twice or thrice daily, as necessity requires. The dirtier courts are regularly hose-washed, for which purpose they are fitted with taps at the expense of the Commissioners. During the summer months these courts and privies are hose-washed daily, and at other seasons weekly or more frequently, according as the ash-pits are emptied.

The watering of streets and roads is overtaken by means of forty-eight ordinary watering barrels, containing 330 gallons; three iron tanks, two of 456 gallons and one of 345 gallons capacity; and nine Willacy's patent revolving disc watering machines, eight having a capacity of 300 gallons, and one of 375 gallons. The ordinary barrels are used in the busy streets, while the Willacy machines are best suited for the quieter streets and macadamized roads on the outskirts of the City, where they moisten a wide area with great rapidity. Watering is also resorted to during the night for preventing dust rising from the sweeping machines, and when the streets are in such a pasty condition as to render machine sweeping difficult.

The collection and removal of refuse—an important section of the work—is dealt with in four sections: (1) Domestic or household refuse; (2) refuse from business premises, such as shops, warehouses, and offices; (3) excremental matter from public works and dwelling-houses; and (4) stable manure and refuse from abattoirs.

Domestic refuse is collected in ash-pits situated in the rear of the several buildings. These are, as a rule, emptied weekly, but in the Central district the pits are attended to twice a week. The men who empty the ash-pits are called "wheelers." They begin work at 10 p.m., and are followed an hour later by the carts. They work, as a rule, in sets of two or three, each set being furnished with a carrying creel and a barrow fitted with
india-rubber tyre on wheel and india-rubber shoes on feet. The barrow is of course used for level places, and the creel where the refuse has to be carried up or down stairs.

Refuse from shops, warehouses, and other business premises in the central portion of the City, and from Hillhead, Garnethill, and dwellings around Kelvingrove Park is removed daily by the morning dust cart service. The refuse collected by this service is taken away in covered carts with crank axles, so as to facilitate the emptying of the specially-manufactured covered buckets into them. They are considerably larger than the ordinary cart, the refuse being comparatively light. This portion of the City refuse is, as a rule, cremated, nothing of manurial value being in it.

The excrementitious matter which does not find its way into the sewers is collected in galvanized pails of regulation pattern, which are removed and replaced by clean ones as often as necessary. Owing to the extension of the water-closet system at the instance of the Sanitary Department, pan closets are being gradually abolished. But there are still in connection with dwelling-houses 3041, and with public works 2434—in all 5475 pails. The vehicles used for the removal of the pails are four-wheeled covered vans. Each van is constructed to contain 30 pails, each of which is covered by a spring cover with a lining of india-rubber tubing. These vans pass along the streets without the slightest effluvium being perceptible. On reaching the despatch station the pails are uncovered one by one, emptied into a tank constructed specially for the reception of the excreta, and then washed in hot water, disinfected, and replaced in the van, which is also hose-washed and disinfected.

The removal and disposal of the refuse from the abattoirs of the City, the manure produced at the stables of the department, that from the stables of the Corporation Tramways Department, as well as that from numerous other stables, involves dealing with about 42,000 tons of highly valuable fertilizing material yearly.

Having at great pains and expense brought together the vast pile of refuse and rubbish which forms the daily accumulation of the department, the next difficulty is now to dispose of it. Formerly it was stored in depots, where there were at times many thousands of tons of refuse, and such mountains of dirt not far removed from dwellings were an intolerable nuisance. No dung depots now exist, and the accumulation of each day must each day be disposed of. The refuse, moreover, collected daily is lighter and more difficult to turn into a marketable commodity than when it was left to putrefy, and to meet those difficulties, Refuse Despatch Works have been erected at St. Rollox (north-east), Crawford Street (south), and Kelvinhaugh (west). The purpose of these works is to separate the inferior material from that of manurial value, to reduce the bulk by the cremation of the former, and so to mix the latter as to form a good fertilizer.
Carts with refuse from ashpits and bins on arriving at the works are weighed. They then pass on to the tipping floor of iron, where there are shoots to the flats beneath for the different classes of material. The ashpit refuse finds its way through one of these into a revolving screen which works in a horizontal position. The finer portions of the refuse pass through the screen into a mixing machine, which also receives a regulated quantity of excrementitious matter from a tank conveniently situated, and also a proportion of sweepings from paved streets. The whole is thoroughly mixed by means of revolving blades, and falls into railway waggons on the siding underneath. The manure thus produced finds a ready sale among farmers, whilst the rougher portions of the material which cannot pass through the meshes of the screen are carried by the revolving process out of the bell-shaped mouth of the screen on to an endless carrier. When passing along this carrier any articles of value, such as iron, meat tins, etc., are picked off and thrown aside. The remainder, chiefly light, useless material, falls from the carrier on to a range of furnaces on a lower level. In this manner the useless refuse which formerly rendered the City manure next to unsaleable is reduced to clinkers, a material in good demand among builders.

During wet weather there is naturally an immense quantity of slushy sweepings collected from the paved streets. In order to utilize this material, which is mostly composed of horse droppings, large iron tanks are provided with means for draining off the water. Into these tanks cart loads of slops are thrown, and when full the tanks are allowed to stand for a day or two till sufficiently drained to be mixed with the prepared manure. Stable manure is dropped from the tipping floor direct into the waggons below, as is also mud from macadamized roads and useless rubbish from the quays and wharves. The stable manure is of course sold, but the rubbish and mud is trucked to tips on the farms of the department at Fullwood Moss and Maryburgh on the Caledonian, and Ryding on the North British Railways.

The process of cremation reduces the quantity of domestic and shop refuse by about 20 per cent., but there still falls to be disposed of by rail 160 waggons or 1080 tons per working day. This total includes all the various classes of material dealt with. Of this quantity about 60 per cent. is sold as manure to farmers scattered over fourteen counties of Scotland, and the remaining 40 per cent., being the unsaleable portion, is sent to tips on the farms of the department. For the transit of the City manure and refuse to the country, 890 railway waggons—the property of the Commissioners—are employed. There is, as a rule, a steady demand for the prepared City manure, unless during seed and harvest time, and at these seasons the surplus manure is sent to the farms of the department.

The primary object of the Cleansing Department in acquiring farms was to provide an outlet for surplus and unsaleable City refuse. The first venture was made in 1879 by the leasing, on a thirty-one years' improve-
ment lease, of 98 acres of bog land—Fulwood Moss, near Houston, on the Caledonian Railway. In 1889 other 25 acres adjoining were added, thus making 123 acres in all. The original portion is held at a nominal rent of 1s. per acre per annum for twenty years, and 5s. per acre thereafter. The smaller area costs £15 per annum. This ground was a bog, which yielded no return whatever to the proprietor. The first step taken by the Commissioners was to have the land thoroughly drained at a cost of £3223, and at the same time a railway was run through it which cost £1315—in all £4538. This capital outlay is being cleared off in equal annual payments, so that it will be liquidated at the expiry of the lease. For some years potatoes were the principal crop, the varieties grown on the Moss finding a ready sale as seed; but of recent years the chief products have been hay and oats, all of which are used in the stables of the department in town. The Moss is now a first-class agricultural subject, and has always shown a profit on the cropping account, the average for three years to May, 1895, having been £287, while during the same period it provided annually an outlet for 23,000 tons of unsaleable refuse.

The estate of Ryding, on the North Monkland branch of the North British Railway, about eleven miles from the City, is 565 acres in extent. This property, which comprises five farms, was purchased in 1891 for £12,575, or £22 5s. 4d. per acre. With the exception of one farm of 103 acres, the lease of which has several years to run, all the land is in possession of, and farmed by, the Commissioners. The soil is, as a rule, poor and clayey, and capable of much improvement. Since the property was purchased the ground has been thoroughly drained, and suitable railway sidings formed. New buildings and offices have been erected at Brackenhurst, the central farm, and the steadings at the other farms have been repaired and renovated. The cropping account of the estate for three years to May, 1895, showed an average profit of £518, and during that period the quantity of refuse deposited exceeded 30,000 tons yearly.

Maryburgh is a small property of 31 acres or thereby on the Caledonian Railway between Glenboig and Cumbernauld, purchased in 1893 for £1000. The object of this purchase is to provide an outlet for surplus City refuse loaded on the Caledonian north line.

There is a marvellous contrast between the cleansing establishment of the close of the nineteenth century and that with which the century began. A fundamental problem in public health, cleanliness, and decency has been resolutely dealt with, and it has been solved in a thorough and masterly manner. If Glasgow cannot claim to be the originator of the modern methods of treating city refuse, it at least deserves the credit of having adopted with ungrudging spirit the most practical and efficient of appliances, and of having equipped the service on an ample and comprehensive basis. All this means large expenditure, and it is not to be wondered at that the
cost of the department has during the century crept up from two or three hundred pounds to a net amount of nearly one hundred thousand. In the year ended 31st May, 1896, the expenditure on general cleansing was £98,361, and on cleaning private courts and streets there was spent £13,363—in all £111,724. The receipts of the department amounted to £33,814, so that the total cost of the service was little short of £80,000. In reduction of this total there was collected from the special assessment at one penny per pound on proprietors for cleansing private streets and courts the sum of £12,493, which leaves a little less than £67,500 to be met out of the general police assessment of the City. In the balance sheet the value of the heritable property held by the department is entered at £163,804, and the movable property, horses, carts, railway waggons, railways, implements furniture, etc., is valued at £71,627.
CHAPTER XVII.

BATHS AND WASH-HOUSES.


The foundation of the sanitary system of Glasgow was laid in 1800, when the duty of cleaning the streets was assumed by the Police Commissioners. Since that time the duties of the Town Council and Police Commission in relation to public health and sanitation have multiplied amazingly, and their activities have branched out in many directions. The cleaning of the City itself was not, indeed, at first undertaken in the spirit of sanitary amelioration, and it is only in our own later days that its fundamental importance as a factor in public health has been recognized and acted on. But from the small beginnings of street sweeping how vast a structure has been raised, and in a sense how systematically and logically has the work been developed! The advance of the sanitary army has been planned with obvious care, one after another the citadels of dirt and disease have been assailed, and still with unswerving courage and hope the war is carried into the dismal regions, whence issue pain, disease, and death to the poor, the ignorant, the helpless.

We clean the streets, and within the municipal bounds every space open to the free air of heaven. We compel householders also to clean the common stairs of tenements, which may be regarded as an extension of the street to each separate house door. But further, in ordinary circumstances, we may not go. The Englishman's house is his castle, and so is the Scotsman's. But much more we can do to promote the personal cleanliness, comfort, and health of the poorer citizens. The luxury of a bath is not to be thought of in connection with houses of one or two apartments, and
in such the washing of clothes can only be done at the cost of much domestic discomfort. Man, we fear, is naturally a dirty animal, and so is woman, and the almost godly virtue of cleanliness requires to be encouraged and oft inculcated. For this cause, and as a part of their great sanitary scheme, the Police Department have erected and equipped in various districts of the City the Corporation Baths and Wash-houses, specially for the benefit of the poorer classes. They are valuable institutions which deserve to be better known and more fully appreciated by the class in whose interest they are maintained.

There are few towns in the kingdom which will compare with Glasgow in respect of dirt for its abundance, and its finely adhesive qualities. Both atmosphere and streets, it is true, are frequently washed by copious rains; but that, notwithstanding, the air is perpetually laden with smoke, which forms a dense cloud for many miles away in the track of the prevailing wind. And the atmosphere is so permeated with moisture that the smoke particles not only acquire adhesive properties, but the surfaces with which they come in contact are prepared to receive, retain, and absorb all manner of dirt from the air. Personal ablution, frequent and thorough, is on that account a necessity, and the amount of clothes'-washing which the conditions demand raises the humble industry of the washerwoman to a foremost rank among employments and occupations.

In the circumstances it is fortunate that the water supply of Glasgow is ample for every citizen, even were all to become scrupulous as to purity of person and linen, which at present is not the case. And it is of a quality for cleansing purposes and for baths which cannot be excelled; it has saved the thrifty housewife an incalculable weight of soap, and the luxury of a bath in Glasgow is such as will repay the cost of a long journey. The abundance and excellence of the water supply led to the formation of bath clubs in the City, a species of institution in which Glasgow is the pioneer, and in which indeed it has yet few followers. The essential features of these clubs, which are managed on the principal of ordinary social clubs, consist in the swimming pond and the Turkish bathrooms, with all the necessary apartments and appliances connected with Russian and Turkish baths. Over the swimming ponds there are diving boards, trapeze bars, and other arrangements for physical exercise, and generally reading rooms and recreation rooms are attached to the establishments. Such bath clubs are, however, for the well-to-do, who have in their own homes all the bath appliances required for personal well-being. The baths we have to do with here are the equivalent provided by public authority, and so far supported by the rates, for the benefit of such as desire to wash and be clean, and yet have not in their own homes proper conveniences for effecting such self-respecting purposes.

Power to erect, equip, and maintain public baths and wash-houses as
part of the municipal economy was obtained under the Police Act of 1866. No step towards exercising that power, however, was taken till May, 1869, when the Police Board resolved: "That it be an instruction from this Board to the Sanitary Committee that they shall forthwith provide, at four of the most suitable points of the City, public baths and wash-houses for the accommodation of the inhabitants." Again the matter was allowed to lie dormant till in February, 1875, the Police Board appointed a special committee on baths and wash-houses. Soon thereafter the Baths Committee met for the first time, and in about eleven months afterwards the Police Board—January, 1876—accepted an offer of the Town Council to lease to them the site of the old washing-house on the Green for the erection thereon of Public Baths and Wash-houses. Thereupon an application for water was addressed to the Water Commissioners, who agreed to supply the Board of Police with all the water required for the Baths and Wash-houses free of charge. Both bodies, be it observed, were the same persons acting in different capacities, but that might not prevent the Chairman of the Baths Committee voting against his own application when sitting as a Water Commissioner.

In the meantime while the first permanent baths and wash-houses establishment at Greenhead was in course of erection, the Baths Committee acquired the London Road Swimming Bath, and opened it on 1st July, 1876, which thus was the first bath under direct police management in the City. Hot and cold baths were added to the establishment in autumn of the same year, and the whole cost to the Police Board was about £2250. In the spring of the following year the Kennedy Street Baths building, in the north-east district of the City, was offered to the Committee under the conditions of payment of £630 to debenture holders, and of assuring the payment of a feu duty of £30 yearly. These two establishments continued to be managed by the Baths Committee till in May, 1880, the Kennedy Street institution was leased to a tenant, who soon thereafter also obtained a lease of the London Road Baths. The tenant found his holding unprofitable, but he struggled on till September, 1883, when both places were abandoned as baths. The fact that new bathing establishments had by this time been provided by the Police Board in the east at Greenhead, in the north-west at Woodside, and in the west at Cranstonhill, serves to account for the want of success of the unfortunate speculator.

The Greenhead Baths and Wash-houses were opened in August, 1878, and in the meantime the Baths Committee had been casting about for suitable sites for the erection of establishments in other districts, to which they were committed by resolution of the Police Board. A site on the North Woodside Road, the property of the Improvement Trustees, had been agreed on, but all action in connection with building operations was deferred till 1880. Then the question was revived by a memorial from the ratepayers in the
north quarter of the City craving the erection of baths and wash-houses in the district, and the Magistrates and Council—Police—agreed in July, 1880, "That the erection of baths and wash-houses be proceeded with in the first place on the ground allocated at North Woodside, as decided by the Board of Police, and that the Baths Committee be instructed to look out for suitable ground in the northern, western, and southern districts, to admit of the erection of baths and wash-houses in these districts, and to report." The Woodside Baths, etc., were finished and opened to the public in September, 1882.

While the Woodside building was in progress, ground had been purchased at Cranstonhill, Townhead, and Gorbals for the erection of like institutions in these several districts. The Cranstonhill establishment, the first of them to be dealt with, was begun in 1881, and in May, 1883, it was ready and opened for public use. Thereafter the Townhead Baths opened doors for the bath side only in June, and for the wash-houses in October, 1884, and last of all the Gorbals Baths were opened in April, 1885. The site selected for the Gorbals establishment facing Main Street was sufficient to permit the Police Board to erect on the street line a tenement having on the ground floor a range of shops, and the two flats above were finished as halls. In these, on several occasions, exhibitions of art and industry were held under the control of the Museums and Galleries Committee; but as such occupation was intermittent and to the Police Board unproductive, the halls have now been let for manufacturing purposes.

The original injunction to the Baths Committee to provide baths and wash-houses in the several districts were thus carried out. Four establishments were planted on the north side of the river in the midst of a working-class population—Greenhead serving the eastern district, Townhead being in the north-east, the Woodside Baths are planted in the north, and Cranstonhill in the west end. For the south side Gorbals Baths alone do service, but it is surrounded by the bulk of the humbler tenements on that side of the river, and not unduly remote from any of the industrial population of South Glasgow. The extension of the City boundaries in 1891, bringing in large industrial populations in Springburn district in the far north-east and in Maryhill on the north-west, has given these districts a claim to the advantages of baths and wash-houses. The erection of an establishment in Springburn, estimated to cost £13,680, has been sanctioned by the Police Department, and means for meeting the demands of the inhabitants of Maryhill are now being devised.

The capital expenditure on these establishments at May, 1896, amounted to £119,100, the account for Greenhead standing at £16,120; North Woodside, £17,350; Cranstonhill, £23,360; Townhead, £26,100; and Gorbals, £32,640; but from the shops and halls built in connection with the latter, included in this capital sum, a rent of £320 yearly is obtained.
In each establishment there are two swimming ponds, one of large capacity for males and a smaller for females. These are kept throughout the year at a comfortable temperature, but in the winter they are practically without customers, and attendance at all times fluctuates so steadily with temperature that the statistics of the swimming ponds are as good as a thermometer record. The capacity of the large pond ranges from 73,600 gallons in the case of Greenhead to 104,000 gallons in Cranstonhill, and the depth of water varies from six feet to seven feet at the deep ends, and is between three and four feet at the shallow ends of the ponds. The small or ladies' ponds hold from 20,900 gallons—Greenhead—to 38,500 gallons in the Cranstonhill Baths. Ranged around each pond there are dressing-boxes for the bathers, who are of course supplied with towels in the establishment. Of private hot baths there are first and second classes for males, a separate suite for females, and in the Gorbals, where Jews do principally congregate, there is a Kosher bath set apart for that class of the community. Greenhead has thirty-two hot baths; Woodside, thirty-four; Cranstonhill, forty-one; Townhead, thirty-three; and Gorbals, thirty-three. The proportion of first and second class male and of female varies according to the conditions and the demands of the localities. For the swimming pond the charge is twopence, but boys and girls under thirteen are admitted for a penny each, and cards admitting twelve times can be obtained for females at eighteenpence and for boys and girls at ninepence. Special arrangements are also made for admitting schools, classes, and associations of young persons at reduced rates. For the hot bath the charge to males is, first class, sixpence; and second class, fourpence; and for females, threepence. A reduction of 25 per cent. is made on these rates if tickets in parcels of twelve are purchased at one time. In connection with the various swimming ponds, numerous swimming clubs have been organized throughout the City, and by means of competitions and aquatic displays these bodies do much to encourage healthful and cleanly habits in young persons. Members of such clubs are not only entitled to obtain tickets at reduced rates—thirteen for the price of twelve—but for one night weekly, between nine and ten, clubs get the exclusive use of the pond for their own members on payment of 6s. 8d., which admits forty members, with an additional charge of one penny for each visitor over that number. For women's clubs the charge is 4s. for twenty-four members, and one penny for each visitor additional.

In the wash-house departments from forty-four to seventy-eight washers can be accommodated at the same time. Each washer is provided with a stall, an ample supply of both hot and cold water, and a wringing apparatus. There are also available in each house four centrifugal hydro-extractors, four drying stoves (three only in Greenhead), six washing machines (eight in Cranstonhill), three wooden boilers, and a mangle. Excepting the Woodside establishment, there is a laundry attached to each wash-house, in which dressing and ironing
of linen are done. For the use of all these washing conveniences a charge of twopence per hour is made. Till recently the Baths Committee had on their lists a staff of washerwomen at each establishment paid weekly wages, who did washings in accordance with a fixed tariff. For dressing and starching particularly the services of these women were largely taken advantage of, but as their employment clashed with workshop legislation now come into force, these washers have been dismissed.

The baths and wash-houses can hardly be said to have been hitherto appreciated quite so well as they deserve. In a City so wide as Glasgow it is difficult to advertise the existence and advantages of such institutions to working people especially, and it is also difficult to change the habits of certain classes. Persons living in the immediate neighbourhood of the wash-houses, it is found, use them freely, and just in proportion to the distance of the dwellings is the decrease of users. It has been found by investigation in the Gorbals district that of the women using the wash-house more than one-half lived within a quarter of a mile of it, and only one-fifteenth part of them came from a distance greater than half a mile. There may be several reasons for this. The place and its advantages are well known to those who live in its immediate neighbourhood, the nearer to their dwellings the greater are its advantages, and women do not care to carry baskets and bundles of clothes, dirty or clean, a great distance through the streets of the City. From inquiries made it has been concluded that most of the women customers of the wash-houses do their washings about once every week, and occupy their stalls on an average not more than two hours at a time. By dividing the annual number of washings by fifty-two therefore, the minimum number of female customers of the wash-houses will be arrived at. Dealing with the baths in the same way it has been concluded that the hot-bath customers take their wash with fair regularity once every two weeks, and the visitors to the swimming ponds, in a more lively way, turn up every four days. As the visitors to the swimming ponds are about three times more numerous than those who use the private baths, it may be assumed that the number of individual customers for the two departments are about the same.

In the light of these ratios it will be seen that the proportion of the inhabitants who use either baths or wash-houses, though satisfactorily increasing, is still small. It was not till the year ended May, 1886, that there was a full year’s experience of the working of the whole five establishments. In that year there were 386,570 bathers, 76,718 washings were done, and the total receipts amounted to £6792, against an expenditure of £10,479. Five years later—the year ended May, 1891—the bathers numbered 453,718, the number of washings was 155,221. The receipts were £9110, against an expenditure of £11,992. And again, after a further interval of four years, we find in 1895 the bathers have risen to 527,313, the washings done 197,035; the receipts were £10,228, and the expenditure
From the figures here given we may conclude that in 1886 the number of individual bathers did not probably exceed 15,000, and that not more than 1200 different women made use of the wash-houses. For the year 1895 these figures have increased, so that the number of bathers may now be assumed to exceed 20,000, and that the households represented in the washings number nearly 4000.

It must be confessed that washing and cleaning are not popular operations with a large mass of the poorer among the industrial population, and, were inquiries to be made, it would probably be found that many of those who use the Corporation Baths and Wash-houses do not strictly speaking belong to the industrial classes. The masses must be educated to a healthy dislike of dirt, and the pupils must be caught young.

Throughout its whole career the Gorbals Bath has been used by the children attending the Hutcheson Schools on the south side, but these children are, for the most part, drawn from comfortable middle-class homes. To encourage habits of personal cleanliness in the rising generation, the Town Council repeatedly offered to the School Board the use of the swimming baths for children attending public schools at certain hours weekly free of charge. Since March, 1893, this offer has been taken advantage of, and intimated in the various schools, and in the month of June, 1896, the attendance of school children on free days reached 1359 visits. Gentle compulsion continues to be necessary to induce the children of a humble grade to enter the swimming ponds; but compulsion, not always gentle, is needed to make them attend school and learn their lessons, and the lesson of cleanliness in clothes, person, language, and behaviour is not the least important in the training of the young.
CHAPTER XVIII.

HEALTH DEPARTMENT. I. HISTORY.


The Sanitary Department is one of the most recent organizations of the City of Glasgow, the sanitary work of the Council is coeval with its existence as a ruling and administrating body. In a true sense every action and enactment which tended in any way to the betterment of the place and the people were sanitary undertakings. That the undertakings of the public authorities were not always wise, that their tendency was not invariably for good, and that from well-meant efforts subtle and unexpected evil frequently arose, all go without saying, but we must judge of the times by the standard of the knowledge and experience that were available for them. The complex tissue of sanitary necessities has, in great measure, arisen in our days, and the knowledge and organization necessary to deal with all their phases do not precede but lumber up in the rear of the conditions. In the middle of the eighteenth century the air of Glasgow was, to a certainty, very pure, the water of its streams was limpid, and its wells were probably uncontaminated; its soil was sweet and wholesome, and it had no sewers, no drains, and consequently none of the “sanitary conveniences” which are the constant pride, care, and vexation of the modern sanitarian. Yet the City had then and at all periods its sanitary difficulties, which were dealt with according to the light of the times. The frequent reference to lepers in the ancient records of the City shows that Glasgow was in common with all other European communities afflicted with the most loathsome and invincible of all mediaeval diseases. The
lepers, in accordance with the Levitical law, "dwelt without the camp," and when the bridge of Glasgow was erected about 1350 St. Ninian's Hospital for leper outcasts was established amid the green fields on the south bank of the Clyde. How the magistrates also sought to defend the City against the pest or plague we have already seen. When in 1647-48 that terrible epidemic held the town with unwonted violence, or as the magistrates expressed it, "as the pleasur of God in ane more hote maner than hes beine scene and knowne heirtofor," the stricken people were lodged in sheds on the town's muir, visitors were appointed to bring in thrice weekly lists of the living and the dead, such medical aid as could be procured was enlisted, the City was isolated from other communities, and having done these things the magistrates awaited the time it would "please God to remove the heavy hand of the pestilence." In connection with these insanitary conditions and epidemic outbreaks of mediaeval times there were, be it noted, applications of the same preventive and remedial agencies which are employed at the present day. There was isolation in its grimmest and most relentless form for the lepers; for dealing with the visitation of the plague the City itself was first isolated, then the individual dwellings affected were cut off from the outer world, and in the end the cases, all officially notified, were taken away to a hospital building—the sheds on the town common—and there treated or left to run their course subject to the vis medicatrix naturae.

As leprosy waned the plague grew in force, and in the early part of the seventeenth century it was the terror and menace of Europe. But the plague also had its day, and with its decline small-pox in the eighteenth century took the position of the scourge of humanity, and when, early in the nineteenth century, control was established over small-pox, the European wars left us a fatal legacy in the form of typhus fever. In all these afflictions Glasgow has had her full share, but what may have been the mortality from them we have now no means of ascertaining. Except where visitations were so hot as to arouse public terror and dismay, the poor were left to die, little heeded or helped. Glasgow experienced its first great epidemic of typhus in 1818. Thenceforward it smouldered on, periodically bursting into epidemic fits of peculiar violence and fatality, till, in the fourth quarter of the century, it appears to have nearly died out. Concurrently with the typhus epidemics, or following immediately in their tracks, came the three great epidemics of Asiatic cholera, which ravaged the City. Cholera first declared itself in Glasgow in 1832, when it carried off 2842 persons—14 out of every thousand of the population, and at the same time a severe epidemic of typhus was raging. Next, in 1848-49, the second cholera epidemic, following on a frightful outbreak of typhus, caused the death of 3772 individuals, or 11 in every thousand living. Similarly, in 1853-54, a cholera epidemic, following on another outburst of typhus, resulted in 3885 deaths, or 12 per thousand of the population. Cholera again visited Glasgow in 1866, but then so little
favourable to its propagation were the conditions that only 66 deaths were due to its outbreak.

In the experience of epidemics, great and small, and in chronic prevalence of fevers kept in vigorous activity by dirt, overcrowding, and want, Glasgow in no way differed from other large British centres of population. Our sins were greater, it may be, and in proportion was our punishment. Nor was the municipality in any way exceptional in the spirit in which it viewed the situation and the prolonged inaction in face of conditions so grave and alarming. A great and strikingly widespread and fatal epidemic, such as the first visitation of cholera, stirred the whole people to a condition of panic and dismay. To cope with the cholera emergency measures were passed, local authorities were empowered to provide temporary hospitals and medical attendance, to clean and disinfect, to remove nuisances, and generally to undertake whatever “may appear necessary or expedient for the prevention of the said disease,” and for carrying out their purposes magistrates were authorized to levy a special assessment.

But, while spasmodic action was thus inculcated under the influence of panic and in the heat of the epidemic attack, there was no thought, either imperial or local, of dealing with the other significant enemies, which day by day sapped the life-blood of the community, and with their persistent uniformity claimed as many victims as the more striking outbursts. Something, it was conceived, could be done to mitigate, control, and end the eruptive violence of an epidemic. It was, however, believed to be the ordinary disposition of Providence that sent the steady and ceaseless activity of fever and other infectious ills. It was among the poor and the wretched they had their fixed spheres of activity, and it was only when they flared up with devastating energy that they became matters of great public concern and fit objects of municipal attention. For this the municipality was in no degree to blame, for they merely acted on the convictions and according to the light of the times. It would be as reasonable to blame the Town Council for not having the streets electrically lighted in 1850 as to place to their discredit the fact that they organized no permanent sanitary staff in the early part of the century.

It was only by slow degrees that public sentiment awakened to the important truth that plagues and epidemics are not to be stayed by panic-stricken spasmodic action during their prevalence. When the nature of epidemics came to be understood, and the true significance of the fevers which never left our borders was appreciated, then the times were ripe for legislation and action. It may be said that the clear and full belief in the controllability of all infectious disease is a conception of our own day; and, while the bacteriologists and pathological investigators are doing a great work in tracing the nature, causes, and treatment of the ailments, the health officers have done even greater service in showing how they can be prevented from acquiring
a settlement, and curbed and controlled in their early stages. It was only when this conception became a rooted conviction of intelligent men that it became possible to have a sanitary department as a permanent and distinct municipal organization.

It was in 1857 that the Police Commissioners of Glasgow first recognized their abiding duty in relation to public health by appointing a committee on nuisances, out of which at a later period the Sanitary Committee was evolved. Throughout all the past years of the century sanitary conditions had been steadily deteriorating, private charity and individual effort had done something to alleviate suffering and to stay the fastening ills, and the activity of the municipality in many directions reacted beneficially on the health of the City. The Royal Infirmary opened its doors at the end of 1794, and for about seventy years the directors of that noble institution struggled valiantly to accomplish the task, which is now recognized as a fundamental duty of the municipality. From the beginning it appears that as many as 14 per cent. of the cases treated were "fever." In 1818, when the first great typhus epidemic raged, the proportion of fever cases exceeded 60 per cent., and to meet the strain on the accommodation a temporary hospital with 200 beds was erected by public subscription, and opened in March, 1818. In a period of about sixteen months almost 2000 persons were treated in that structure, which was again brought into use in 1827. The directors at that stage resolved to have erected a permanent special fever-house, because they state "in this large city typhus fever must be at all times liable to occur, and in the narrow and crowded vennels and wynds it must be frequently apt to break out with virulence so as to endanger the whole town." So the fever-house was proceeded with, and in 1832 it was opened with an accommodation of 200 beds. But in the meantime the gathering wave of typhus epidemic had impelled the magistrates to nominate in 1831 a Board of Health, by whom a disused cotton mill was secured and fitted up with 135 beds for fever, and the infirmary directors had erected a shed in their grounds giving 60 beds more. And in 1832 all such accommodation was strained to the utmost, for not only was typhus raging, but the first great cholera epidemic swept over the community. In 1837 the City was again overtaken by an epidemic of typhus, and it educed the same sequence of action. The fever hospital overflowed, a Board of Health was constituted, and a temporary overflow hospital was erected. Ten years later, 1847, a typhus epidemic had again to be encountered, this time more prolonged, widespread, and fatal than any recorded, and all the accommodation, permanent and temporary, which the infirmary managers were able to provide, proved quite inadequate for the necessitates of the outbreak. The Parochial Boards of both the City and the Barony Parishes opened temporary hospitals—one secured the old Tron Hospital and the other erected sheds. Between them nearly 900
beds were provided, and yet the army of stricken citizens overflowed the whole. In 1847 alone, 1254 beds were provided for fever cases, and 11,425 cases received public treatment. In that epidemic there could not be fewer than 43,000 persons seized, almost one in every eight of the population, and the deaths from typhus alone were not less than one in every seventy-five persons living. To add to the calamity, the following year, 1848, saw the second visit of Asiatic cholera, which alone carried off 3772, or eleven in every thousand of the population. Once more, in 1851, the fever sheds of the infirmary had to be re-opened, and the parishes were compelled to resume their hospital treatment, and, with the cholera epidemic of 1853-54, which claimed in 1854 alone an aggregate of 3882 victims—twelve per thousand—the epidemic record is exhausted till 1862. In that year the Sanitary Department was organized, and a medical officer and an inspector of nuisances were appointed by the Police Commissioners.

Throughout the long period from 1800 till 1862 the direct ameliorative measures furthered by the Town Council were few. A general system of sewers and drains had been provided, and the condition of the streets in respect of paving was greatly improved. Gravitation water, as we shall see by the chapters dealing with that subject, was introduced by three companies as commercial undertakings; but the water purveyed by the two amalgamated companies, drawn from the Clyde, had become of more than doubtful quality. The greatest and most beneficent sanitary undertaking ever carried out in Glasgow was, without doubt, the introduction of the magnificent water supply from Loch Katrine, for which the Corporation, after a severe struggle, obtained parliamentary sanction in 1855. That water was turned on in March, 1860, and immediately thereafter the Clyde water as a source of domestic supply was abandoned. In other and more immediate sanitary work little was effected. Indeed, to quote Dr. J. B. Russell, the medical officer of health—Evolution of the Function of Public Health Administration, Glasgow, 1895—from which luminous précis most of these facts are abstracted: "of sanitation in the modern sense there was none."

In the Police Acts, passed in 1800, 1807, 1821, 1830, and 1837, there are clauses as to scavenging streets and public places by the authorities, and private closes, etc., by the proprietors; but it was not until 1843 that an inspector of cleaning was introduced, and powers taken "to make regulations for watering, sweeping, and cleansing closes, thoroughfares, and areas, for the purpose of disinfection and otherwise promoting the health of the inhabitants therein," for the cleansing of common stairs by tenants, for regulating the emptying of middens and privies, "according to their dimensions and the local circumstances as regards the health and comfort of the persons in the neighbourhood," to license common lodging-houses, prevent overcrowding, and secure the reporting of fever by the keepers, for carrying out disinfection by the magistrates through the police. Altogether this Act marked a
considerable advance, but it was chiefly on paper. It provided no special executive machinery; functions were so far defined, but, except as regards cleansing, were left as a sort of by-play to officials appointed primarily for police purposes. Dr. Scott Orr tells us that the great epidemic of 1847 was in full swing before any attempt was made to disinfect either houses or clothing, and Dr. Sutherland testifies to the shameful inefficiency of the general sanitary service in 1849. The filth was a perquisite of the householders, and was removed at the convenience of farmers, a system which now exists only in the smallest villages.

Obviously a tremendous task lay before the municipality when, in 1857, the first beginnings of a sanitary department were laid in the formation of a committee on nuisances, under the chairmanship of Mr. John Ure, subsequently Lord Provost of the City. That committee made an elaborate investigation into the sanitary condition of the principal large towns in the kingdom, the powers with which the local authorities were invested, and the provisions they deemed essential to meet the requirements of the City of Glasgow. From the recommendations of that report, the sanitary clauses of the Police Bill of 1862 were formulated and passed through Parliament. Judged by present-day standards the powers sought under that enactment were modest and meagre. These embraced the obligatory appointment of a medical officer or officers, and permission to appoint one or more inspectors of nuisances, and one or more inspectors of common lodging-houses. The specified duties of the medical officer embraced the reporting on districts, streets, or courts in which it appeared to him advisable to adopt special sanitary measures, with the view of preventing the occurrence of epidemics and contagious disease. He was also called on to report the prevalence or threatened prevalence of such disease in any district, and the existence of any nuisance which tended to cause or to aggravate disease, or otherwise was hurtful to the health of the community, and he had to specify the measures he would recommend for the prevention or abatement of any outbreaks. To the magistrates committee was given the power to proclaim, after due public notice, any district reported on by the medical officer; proprietors or occupiers were to be called on to cleanse, whitewash, ventilate, and disinfect according to the instructions of the inspector of nuisances, and such then exceptional powers were to continue for a period fixed and specified in the magisterial edict. Further, during that period, but with the concurrence of the Privy Council only, the magistrates were entitled within the proclaimed district to institute house-to-house visitation, for preventing overcrowding, for prevention and removal of nuisances, for preventing the spread of disease, and for giving medical treatment, and, when needed, accommodation to the sufferers from infectious disease. Regulations were also enacted for lodging-houses, under which their keepers became bound to report every case of fever or serious disease among the inmates of their houses, they were obliged to deliver daily
a list of the names and addresses of the lodgers of the previous night, and they were at all times bound to receive the visits of medical officer or inspector of lodging-houses.

Under the provisions of the 1862 Police Act a sanitary committee of the police was formed under the chairmanship of Mr. Ure, a medical officer of health, Dr. W. T. Gairdner, now Professor of Medicine in Glasgow University, and an inspector of nuisances were appointed. The latter combined in his own person all the inspectorial functions now distributed over a large staff. "The medical officer and his pigmy staff," says Dr. Russell, "found themselves in a rapidly rising flood of typhus. Since 1843 there had been no epidemic which, judged by the standard of those days, would be designated 'great'; yet the disease was never for a day idle. In 1859 it touched the lowest point of prevalence—it carried off only 381 people. But its tribute was advancing steadily year by year, until in 1864 it rose to 1138, and in 1865 to 1177. As usual nothing had been done to prepare for the evil day, still less to avert it. The fever-flood ebbed and flowed, its movements registered by the capacity of the infirmary fever-house, and remarked upon with gratification when the permanent wards were sufficient; with anxiety when they were full. Dr. Gairdner was in the position of a commander-in-chief newly appointed; an active enemy swarming over the land, holding every strategical point, well-found and well-equipped, while he possessed nothing but his commission. He had to recruit and drill and equip his army, to subsidize mercenaries, to bear a brave front, and make the most of his meagre resources. In January, 1864, three 'non-medical officers, selected from the police force for special sanitary duty;' were added to the staff, and shortly after two shops were fitted up as a 'sanitary office' at a rent of £25. In September the first municipal disinfecting and washing-house was established at 66 High Street. The ground rent was £5, and the cost of erection and fittings £244! A staff for fumigating and lime-washing infected houses was organized, and placed with the washing-house, under the Inspector of Cleansing. As the year advanced into winter the usual difficulty of hospital accommodation arose. Conferences were held between the managers of the Royal Infirmary, the Parochial Boards, and the Police Board with their medical officer. The Board resolved to provide temporary accommodation under the 1862 Act. Many offers were made for adaptable existing buildings, and at last a willing proprietor of a disused mill in Anderston was discovered. But the moment the proposal became public it excited the neighbourhood into an opposition which was frantic in its threats and impossible to withstand. There was nothing for it but to build, and a site was purchased in the neighbourhood of St. Rollox where, amid deep snow, a beginning was made, and a pavilion hospital of wood on brick foundations was erected, furnished, and opened with 136 beds on 25th April, 1865, the first Municipal Fever Hospital."
The Police Act of 1866 which, with numerous subsequent amendments and additions, is still the measure under which the police of Glasgow is regulated, gave greatly increased and permanent place and authority to the Sanitary department. Under it the authorities became bound "to erect and maintain hospitals and washing-houses, and to appoint a chief sanitary inspector and subordinate sanitary staff. For the power to compel inspectors of poor to remove fever cases from common lodging-houses, they substituted compulsory removal to their own hospital. Between the local Act and the general Public Health (Scotland) Act, passed next year, Glasgow found itself in a position to develop a permanent sanitary department and commence the daily routine of sanitary function, undisturbed by a perpetually impending dissolution. The most difficult task of the new department was the recovery of its work from the police, the Master of Works, and the Inspector of Cleansing."

Acting under the powers of the 1866 Act the first statutory Sanitary Inspector was in 1870 appointed, the executive staff was re-organized and established on an adequate scale, and new premises were rented at 1 Montrose Street, where the central offices still (1896) remain, though a new building in the same street, erected at a cost of nearly £20,000, is almost ready for occupation. Later the cleansing and the health interests of the City were united under one Police Committee—the Committee on Health with Sub-Committees for Hospitals and Cleansing. Towards the close of 1870 the estate of Belvidere was acquired as a site for a hospital. In the same year the accommodation in the temporary fever hospital in Parliamentary Road was increased from 136 to 250 beds, and the same number were provided in a hastily-erected building at Belvidere. A new washing and disinfecting house was opened at Belvidere in 1871. In 1878 a permanent small-pox hospital was opened at Belvidere and the portion of the Parliamentary Road building which had been reserved for that disease was for the time closed. In 1887 the permanent fever erections which had been in course of building over the previous seventeen years was completed, giving 390 beds for patients, and in 1892 the great fever hospital now being erected at Ruchill Park in the north-west of the City, destined to provide 440 beds, was begun. When complete the permanent hospital structures under charge of the Health Committee, exclusive of the Parliamentary Road institution which is merely temporary, will provide for the simultaneous treatment of 980 cases of zymotic disease on the scale of 2000 cubic feet per bed.

In 1881 the Health Committee came to the important resolution to treat all cases arising in the City free of charge in their hospitals without respect to class or condition. The step was both logical and prudent. Powers of compulsory removal and treatment had been granted to them, but they had no power of compelling payment, nor was it right that they should have
the prerogative of determining who should be charged and who were proper subjects for free treatment; apart from that, it was of immense consequence that all class distinctions within the hospital should be broken down. Among the poor and the ignorant removal even from hovels was hitherto not looked on with favour; it was esteemed as one of the tyrannical and oppressive acts against which they dumbly rebelled, and when it was found that those who were in a position to help themselves freely elected to be treated in the hospital the position was entirely changed. Confidence in the institutions and the treatment was increased, and the poor came to see that, instead of the hospitals having any special property in or claim over them, they in common with their fellow-citizens had a claim on the care and benefits of these institutions.

Under the Police Amendment Act of 1890 greatly increased power of dealing stringently with sanitary questions and with uninhabitable houses were conferred on the police. In particular they were authorized to insist on the provision of sufficient water-closets for all householders, so that the poorest were equally with the rich entitled to have their filth carried away by the convenient medium of water. With the beginning of the same year the Infectious Diseases (Notification) Act was adopted in Glasgow, thus placing in the hands of the Health Committee a powerful agent for discovering lurking and incipient dangers. And again the Building Act of 1892 placed in the hands of the Dean of Guild Court greatly extended control over new buildings to be erected within the City in respect of space, light, ventilation, and other sanitary conditions.

The further and minor developments of the activity of the Health Committee may be traced in connection with the outline of the organization and functions of the Sanitary service in the two divisions into which the operations naturally divide themselves—the preventive or inspection section, and the medical or hospital side.
CHAPTER XIX.

HEALTH DEPARTMENT. II. INSPECTION.


In dealing with the organization and functions of the health service in Glasgow at the present day, it is convenient to make an arbitrary distinction between the inspectorial or detective branch and the medical or curative and preventive branch of that service. No line of demarcation between the two phases rather than sides of the service really exists; the medical officer and the chief sanitary inspector—both statutory officers—have each their specific and statutory duties; but their executive functions, all having one common aim, are not only complementary the one to the other, but they interpenetrate at every point. In the general working of the inspectorial section, it is true, the medical officer is seldom called on to intervene; but in all cases calling for special action on the part of the Health Committee he is the professional referee, adviser, and chief officer of the service.

All sanitary organization, it is true, has its foundation in enlightened selfishness. If infectious diseases had in them no more of menace and danger to the community than pleurisy and bronchitis, there is no doubt that to the present moment the poor would have been left to battle with their ailments unaided by legislation and municipal organization. And had gloomy filth, darkness, and overcrowding not been the fostering seed-bed of all zymotic diseases, the outcasts of Society would have been less an object of public attention than they are made by statute. But what was
begun under the instinct of self-preservation, and has its legal and rational basis on that principle, has expanded into a work in which there is a distinct element of public and corporate benevolence. Partly by natural expansion and partly as an outcome of democratic sentiment, the activities of sanitary officials now extend to many concerns which affect the health, comfort, and well-being of the industrial population alone, which only in the most remote manner react on the general community. The pains and penalties of recent laws moreover, their restrictive and coercive force, are directed, not against the poor, the humble, and the ignorant, but against those who would too readily take advantage of their fellow-beings in such case. They are directed against the retail dealer who would readily cheat the ignorant, and against the employer who would force the poor factory-hand to labour under conditions ruinous to health, and detrimental to self-respect. Here we have a complete reversal of the primal motive for sanitary activity, which was based on the protection of the classes from the masses. Now in the interest of the masses we seek to coerce the classes. The manufacturer who would carry on his trade in a damp dark sty, the grocer who would foist a compound of grease on a poor purchaser under the name of butter, the butcher who would retail diseased beef, and the dairyman who keeps his milk in a dirty shop, draws it from diseased cows, waters it, and sells it laden with disease germs—these, and others beside, come under the watchful eye of the Sanitary Department. Several of the functions of the organization are not statutory, but in all cases bearing as they do on the health and well-being of the community, they have been appropriately assigned to the department, and placed under the responsible supervision of the Chief Inspector.

For the purposes of sanitary administrations and control the City is parcelled off into seven districts, each of which is placed under the charge of a district inspector. The districts again are broken up into sub-divisions, as nearly as practicable equal in area and population, over each of which a sub-inspector has the charge; and these sub-divisions are still further broken up for the purposes of statistical record. Each district inspector has for the work of his section the services of a clerk and a drain tester.

The primal and principal function of the sanitary service is the discovery and abatement of nuisances. "Inspector of Nuisances," in fact, is the original statutory designation of the head of the sanitary service. A nuisance, as defined by the Public Health (Scotland) Act is "any insufficiency of size, defect of structure, defect of ventilation, want of repair or proper drainage, or suitable water-closet or privy accommodation or cesspool, and any other matter or circumstance rendering any inhabited house, building, premises, or part thereof, injurious to the health of the inmates or unfit for human habitation or use."

Many and various are the defects, neglects, and abuses which bring
dwellings-houses, workshops, courts, and open spaces within the scope of
the statute, and probably no better index of the varieties of the genus
nuisance can be afforded than an analysis of the nuisances dealt with
by the sanitary officials during the year 1895. In that year 324,571
inspections were made for the discovery of nuisances within the City. There
were discovered and recorded 32,292, cases of nuisance, of which 31,992
were removed or remedied. Of these the greater proportion arose in con-
nection with the water supply, water-closets, and drainage. Of dwellings
without water supply 2832 were reported; water supply coming from a
cistern in water-closet or other foul situation was found 68 times; sink,
water-closet, or tap broken or out of repair, 4443 times; defective sinks,
144; drains, soil pipes, and branches, etc., choked or out of repair, 7135 cases;
broken rhone pipes and gutters, 2309; water-closets awanting, 342 times;
defective water-closets, 179. Accumulation and ingraining of filth comes
next in importance and frequency, garbage and dirt on roofs, in courts, or in
empty houses and cellars giving rise to 1305 nuisances; the condition of
external walls of dwellings, stairs, lobbies, and closets caused 6004 com-
plaints, and filth on internal walls produced 3093 nuisances. Defects of
roofs, walls, etc., of dwelling-houses caused 515 complaints, and smoky vents
yielded 136, and dampness or like cause made 145 houses unfit for habitation.
Insufficient light and ventilation and defects of windows yielded 206
complaints; bad smells or diphtheria or enteric fever in house occurred 650
times; live animals were the source of 33 complaints, and dead animals
under floors were reported 29 times only. In bakehouses 52 nuisances
were reported, and in workshops defective closet accommodation, filth, over-
crowding, or imperfect ventilation caused 368 complaints. It is satisfactory
to find that, out of this vast and varied list, it became necessary to summon
before the police magistrates not more than 7 cases, and 13 cases only were
reported to the Procurator-Fiscal for prosecution in the Sheriff Court. In
the inspectorial work 22 nuisance inspectors find steady employment. In-
cessantly engaged in their districts, each knows the strength and the weakness
of every tenement and building under his charge; he also comes to know and
be known to the population, and he is accordingly supported and assisted in
many ways by the people who recognize in him the agent of a beneficent and
helpful organization.

The second statutory function of the head of the sanitary force is in
relation to common lodging-houses. Under this term are included houses
in which persons are lodged, at a rate not exceeding 6d. per night for each
person. The description holds whether the payment is made nightly or
weekly, or at any period not longer than a fortnight. The term also includes
any place where emigrants are lodged, and all boarding-houses for seamen,
irrespective of the rate charged for lodging or board. The model lodging-
houses of the Improvement Trust and those conducted by private enterprise
all come under the designation. Of such institutions—the hotels of the very poor—there are throughout the City, but chiefly in the central district, no fewer than 79, giving a maximum accommodation for 9372 persons. The lodgers in these houses are a motley multitude, who seldom own more personal property than the clothes in which they present themselves, and the coppers with which they can secure a bed and twenty-four hours’ shelter. They are of all nationalities, they have fallen from all ranks, from the professions and from positions of independence and responsibility. Here mingle disrobed clergymen and street bullies, decayed gentlemen and area sneaks, tramps, tinkers, labourers, sweeps, thieves, and thimble-riggers. The moral tone is low, the habits are generally unclean, and so sometimes is the language; and the superintendents and owners have a difficult task to keep order and decent conduct in the interests of the cleanly minority, whose misfortunes bring them in contact with much undesirable companionship. In their task, it must be said, their hands are greatly strengthened by the strict police regulations under which the establishments are conducted, and the constant inspection to which they are subject. The discipline of the lodging-houses may be irksome to the inmates, but it is wholesome and beneficial to all, restraining the rough, and thereby making it more bearable by the law-abiding and well-behaved.

Every house kept as a common lodging-house must be inspected, measured, approved of and registered by the inspector, and applicants for license must produce satisfactory certificates of character, signed by at least three ratepayers in the City. Copies of the rules and regulations under which the establishment is licensed must be placed in a conspicuous part in each room. The keeper is bound to provide proper accommodation for cooking and washing, and the house must have sufficient water-closet accommodation. The keeper is held bound to refuse admission to all intoxicated persons and known bad characters, and he is responsible for good order and decorum within his house. No mingling of the sexes is under any circumstances permitted. The number of persons who may occupy any room is specified in a register ticket—one adult or two children under ten years being allowed for every 400 cubic feet of space, and power is retained by the sanitary inspector to reduce the number of lodgers in the rooms for any sufficient cause, and for a limited period. All floors must be swept daily before noon, and washed every Wednesday and Saturday—oftener if so decreed by the inspector—and staircases and lobbies must be whitewashed twice yearly, in April and October. Walls and ceilings are also to be whitewashed in April and October, and at such other times as the sanitary inspector may order. Windows are to be open, and rooms and beds aired daily for not less than four hours, and except in the case of illness, no lodger can remain in bed after 8 a.m. A bed vacated cannot again be occupied for at least ten hours, and, further, to prevent any Box and Cox arrangement, special sleeping
apartments have to be set apart for lodgers who work overnight, and on no account can these apartments be used by night sleepers. No drying of clothes is permitted in any sleeping apartment, and all damp clothes must be dried in an apartment set apart and specially heated for that purpose. All offensive matter must be removed night and morning. No carpets, curtains or hangings, nor anything which might harbour dirt, vermin, and disease can be kept in sleeping apartments; and bedsteads, where open, are required to be iron camp beds for one person only. In apartments exceeding 11 feet high, “bunk beds” may be used under certain restrictions, and all beds and bedding must be kept thoroughly clean, to the satisfaction of the sanitary inspector. In all cases of illness a medical practitioner must be at once called in, and should the person be affected with any infectious disease, immediate notice has to be given to the medical officer, the person is removed, and stringent measures taken to cleanse and disinfect the clothes, bedding, and house. Power is given to the medical officer to order the temporary closing of any lodging-house on account of the outbreak of infectious disease within it. Sanitary officials and other officers of the local authority must at all times have free access to any part of any lodging-house. For every infraction of these rules the keeper of a lodging-house is liable to a penalty not exceeding £5, with the additional penalty of £2 for each day’s continuance of the offence; after proper warning, or failing payment he may suffer fourteen days’ imprisonment.

Two special lodging-house and boarding-house inspectors are employed by the Sanitary Department, and the services of six night inspectors are also called into requisition for the lodging-houses in common with the ticketed houses, to which reference is hereafter made. In 1895, 15 lodging-houses were registered after inspection and measurement; 2463 day and 83 night visits for purposes of inspection were made to the 79 establishments on the register, and to the credit of the keepers be it said that not one was brought before the public courts for any contravention of the police regulations.

The casual sojourner in the common lodging-house may be a person of most respectable life and conversation, but the normal inmate is bound to be a Bohemian of the lower orders. He has no place in the social scale, and no desire to attain a foothold among his fellows. His horizon extends not beyond the day to which he awakens, and if for that day he can stay the pangs of hunger, if he can get wherewithal to command the two luxuries of his life—alcohol and tobacco—therewith he is content. A little removed from this independent individual, although scarcely higher in the scale of being, is the occupant of the “farmed house.” The man who takes a farmed room does not stand utterly and entirely alone. He has dependent on, or associated with, him a woman who may be a wife, sometimes the pair have a family, and in some instances two and even three pairs occupy the same apartment. As the common lodging-house represents the hotel of the very
poor, so the farmed house takes the place of the furnished apartments or furnished houses of the better-circumstanced citizens. The farmed house is taken from week to week by a class of people too poor to afford even the scanty outfit which goes to furnish the apartments they hire. But impoverished and wretched as are these creatures, they are the prey of a race of unscrupulous harpies who batten and wax fat off their squalid penury.

The "farmed houses"—houses "let in lodgings," which statutorily applies to all houses receiving lodgers, but in practice includes only dwellings of a mean class—are found principally in the wynds and closes of the central district. The speculators, who themselves dwell amid the scene of their activity, rent entire tenements or blocks, each separate room of which they fit out with a bed or beds, some bedding, a table, two or three chairs, a grate, a kettle and pot, and a little crockery, and therewith each room becomes a "furnished house." Such houses are let to the unfortunate and improvident at rents ranging from 4s. per week upwards, the sum paid being generally equal to what the farmer pays for a whole month. One individual holds 40 such houses, another 22, and another 12. In 1893 the sanitary officials examined and recorded 204 furnished houses in all. "Most of these houses," says the Sanitary Inspector, "are found in the wynds, lanes, and back properties of the City. Ventilation is seldom, if ever, attended to, and the virtue of cleanliness is but scantily appreciated. These properties are continually in need of repairs, and only those repairs which are absolutely urgent and necessary are carried out. The rooms are generally occupied by couples, with or without families, and although in the majority of instances one couple only was found in occupation, there were cases found of from two to four couples sleeping in the same apartment." The mingled pity and disgust kindled by gross detail condemn both the property and the landlord—the shadowy proprietor who farms the farmers' holdings.

The man who can boasts of the possession not only of a house but of house furniture is of distinctly greater social consequence than the nomadic inhabitant of lodging-houses and farmed apartments. In theory he is, within his own door, sole lord and master, and the fact that he has a place which he can call his own brings him into the rights, privileges, and responsibilities of citizenship. But the householder begins indeed very far down in the social scale. The house of the Glasgow poor in its most rudimentary condition is wanting in every essential to home life. It has neither space, air, light, quiet, privacy, cleanliness, nor comfort. More than 30,000 houses of one apartment only exist in the City of Glasgow, and these are occupied by upwards of 100,000 citizens. The occupants pay on an average a rent of two shillings weekly, but houses cheaper down even to 5s. 6d. per month can be obtained. These miserable dens are for the most part occupied by a class almost as migratory as the dwellers in the lodging-houses. They have many reasons for not rooting themselves at one address or in one
neighbourhood, they part as unceremoniously as possible from neighbours, shopkeepers, and the factor, and their impedimenta are but a sorry hindrance to their quiet disappearance. Many of them are householders, not from pride nor from any desire to keep well with the world, but with no better motive than the hope that thereby they may escape the irksome regulations of the lodging-house, and the constant watchfulness of the police constable and the sanitary officer. But in this hope they are partially disappointed, since a large proportion of the dwellings are "ticketed" and subject to the supervision, day and night, of the sanitary officer.

The "ticketed house" is one of the less-known institutions of Glasgow, although it has been in existence for thirty years. Under the Police Acts of 1866 and 1890 now in force, no house built since 1866 may be let as a separate dwelling of one apartment unless it measures 900 cubic feet of space, a house of two apartments must have 1500 cubic feet, and a house of three apartments not less than 2000 feet of air space. Where the houses had been previously used as separate dwelling-houses the three measurements are respectively 700, 1200, and 1800 cubic feet; but since the passing of the Glasgow Building Regulations Act, 1892, the minimum size of new dwelling-houses has been raised to 1000, 1600, and 2400 cubic feet respectively. These measurements indicate clear space, exclusive of lobbies, closets, and of recesses, not perfectly clear from the floor to within 2 feet of ceiling and from wall to wall. These provisions are intended to meet the practice prevalent among the poor of putting children away to sleep in any odd corner or closet.

By the Police Act of 1866 the authorities are empowered to enter any dwelling-house "of not more than three apartments," in order to measure its cubic contents. If the cubic contents of the three-room house do not exceed 2000 feet, the authorities are entitled to state upon a ticket or plate fixed to the door the cubic contents and the number of sleepers allowed in the house according to the stated measurement. The houses so ticketed become subject to continuous inspection. Under the 1890 Police Act the penalty for overcrowding is increased from 5s. to 20s. for every day on which the offence is proved, and although the restriction of ticketing to houses of three apartments is maintained, the standard of space per inmate is extended to all houses.

The system pursued in Glasgow of preventing overcrowding is a local development. There are about twenty-five thousand ticketed houses in the City, and six special night inspectors are appointed to visit them. This they can do at any time, but inspection is generally made during the night, between the hours of 11.30 p.m. and 5 a.m., and is most carefully carried out in localities where the practice of overcrowding is suspected. These men take a note of all cases of breach of the regulations, prepare charges and summonses for the police courts, and on two days each week they
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attend the courts to give evidence in support of the summonses they have served. They inspect in couples for purposes of corroboration. They wear a uniform and carry night lamps. An idea of their work may be gathered from the fact that the inspectors make about fifty thousand inspections yearly, and on an average find one overcrowder in every ten visits. In 1895, out of 35,722 inspections, they found 3,868 cases, or considerably above the average. Of these they warned 2965, 614 were admonished, and 289 were fined by the police magistrates. Cases of overcrowding have been found in the central district, where sleepers, who ought to have had 400 cubic feet of air space, were found with 76 feet, 89 feet, and 98 feet. A box about 3 feet broad, 6 feet long, and 4 feet high, represents nearly the 76 cubic feet in which human beings were found asleep. These instances proves the system a necessity. Of the foetid midnight air in some of these dwellings words carry no conception.

The inspected population of Glasgow forms an army of at least sixty thousand in number, in which are the bulk of the socially-dangerous elements. To reduce its ranks is the constant effort of the philanthropist, to keep the rank and file in order demands all the vigilance and firmness of the constabulary, and to render their condition bearable to themselves and less of a menace to others is the task of the Sanitary Department. In all the three conditions in which they are met—as lodgers, as occupants of farmed houses, and as owners of ticketed dwellings—their estate is almost hopelessly fallen. Hard it would be to say in which condition they are most abject and irreclaimable. The habitué of the lodging-house may be an unspeakably selfish wretch who spurns every bond of humanity, but he is at least compelled to have some regard to external order and decency, a certain amount of cleanliness is forced on his regard, and he is perpetually subject to the restraining influence of public functionaries. For the occupants of furnished rooms little can be said. They have no pride of possession, no ambition towards independence. They can, up to the point of the Sanitary Inspector's endurance, wallow in dirt and be good to vermin, they are in every way less controlled for their own good than the lodgers, and improvident and reckless they are the prey of the human sharks who furnish their miserable abodes. Nor is the case of the tenant of the uninhabitable house any better. His "furniture" is a mere illusion, to escape undesired acquaintance and recognition he flits with facility from close to close, he dodges the police, and he tries to hoodwink the Sanitary Inspector. His freedom is to him a heritage of woe, and it were well for him and his dependents if he could be even more supervised, controlled, and inspected, than it is possible with his unsettled habits and his resolute defiance of authority. This hopeless army contributes scarcely anything to the revenues of the City, though the Inland Revenue authorities reap a rich harvest from it, and man for man it costs the City vastly more than the people who
pay the taxes. From its ranks in large measure our jails are filled, our police courts are kept busy by it, our police give it their chief attention, and it is the main source of all sanitary expenditure; its ranks occupy most of the beds in our hospitals, and to the public funds are charged the cost of burying many of those who fail and fall in the battle of life.

While a never-ceasing struggle is thus being maintained against the ignorant, besotted and filthy lodger and tenant in their own interests, and against the rapacious and not less culpable landlord, the miserable, filthy and vermin-infested erections in which the poor are huddled but barely sheltered, are rapidly falling into utterly unbearable and irreparable decay. The tenants, it may be assumed, are not careful of the landlords' interests, and the factor confines his attention chiefly to the collection of his weekly rents. So the police authorities found it necessary to secure powers to deal with the dwellings as well as with the inhabitants and the landlords. The Police Act of 1890 accordingly gave to the Police Commissioners authority, on the report of the Medical Officer, the Sanitary Inspector, and the Master of Works to declare any house or part of a house to be unfit for human habitation, and to affix to it an order that after a given date it shall cease to be inhabited. The owner of the property is entitled to receive reasonable notice of the proposal, that he may show cause why it should not be carried into effect, and if he at any time execute such work as in the opinion of the Commissioners renders it habitable, they may revoke or vary the order. The Commissioners are authorized to delegate this judicial function to a special committee of their number with a quorum of five, and that committee has been actively engaged in the work allotted to it since 1892. An aggrieved landlord or factor has a right of appeal to the sheriff provided his appeal is lodged within five days after the decision of the committee, and the sheriff is enjoined to dispose of the appeal with all reasonable despatch, and if practicable within seven days after its presentation. Up to the end of 1895 the Uninhabitable Houses Committee ordered the closing of 288 dwelling-houses, 215 of which were one-roomed, 65 two-roomed, 5 three-roomed, and 3 were of a larger size.

The most humane and humanizing branch of the inspectory system is the organization of female inspection. The women inspectors, six in number, are primarily missionaries of cleanliness, but they also do useful service in connection with the working of the Food and Drugs Adulteration Acts. Their principal duties, however, are to visit the denizens of the lower quarter of the City, particularly people living in one and two-apartment houses, and endeavour by persuasion and remonstrance to secure the periodical cleansing of these small dwellings. When a tenant is too poor to purchase or procure cleaning materials, the female inspectors are empowered to issue a note which, on presentation at the Sanitary Department, entitles the holder to a bag of whiting or ochre, and the loan of a whiting brush to do the
necessary work. They are also useful in reporting cases of cruelty to, and neglect of, children, which when received are forwarded to the Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Children. Further, they give advice regarding elementary cooking, point out the desirability of free ventilation, and the danger of clothes drying in the house at night. Any houses found continuously filthy are reported to the Medical Officer for his inspection and certificate, on receipt of which a notice is sent and a prosecution may follow.

Drain-testing, for which the police authorities have compulsory powers, now forms a valuable and important feature in the work of the Sanitary Department. Under the Police Act of 1890 the Sanitary Inspector is entrusted with powers to insist on the smoke-testing of drains when he has reasonable cause for suspecting their condition. Should the proprietor object to or obstruct the test the inspector is bound to obtain a magisterial warrant, and the owner is thereon subject to a penalty of forty shillings if he refuses to allow the test, or declines to give reasonable facilities for its application. In case of any proprietor failing to remove the defects which may be indicated by the inspector’s report the police commissioners have power to execute the necessary work and to receive the expense as damages from the owner of the property so dealt with. In 1895 no fewer than 4629 separate tests were applied to drains connected with 1473 separate tenements or systems, and of these only 142 were found to be in a sound and satisfactory condition.

Among the miscellaneous duties relating to public health, which have been assigned to the Sanitary Department, are the inspection of bakehouses for cleanliness, of food and drugs for wholesomeness and freedom from adulteration, and of dairies, byres, and milkshops for health of animals and suitability of premises. For these objects there are four inspectors, whose duty it is to go from shop to shop and from store to store, and particularly from dairy to dairy, making inquiry into the condition of the food and milk vended therein. Their general duty is to see that all the regulations in force are being duly observed. They also attend to the sanitary condition of the vegetable and fruit markets and the fish market. They frequently pay early morning visits to the various railway stations, for the purpose of sampling the milk arriving in butts from the country. When infectious diseases become, in the opinion of the Medical Officer, associated with a particular milk supply, they are sent to make investigations at the farms from which the suspected milk is sent. The number of dairies and milkshops in the City under their supervision is 1147, and the total number of stall-fed cows within the jurisdiction of the department is 1634. Under the Food and Drugs Act nearly 300 samples are obtained yearly by these officers, and sent to the Public Analyst. A large number of samples are also taken and examined by them, along with the Chief Inspector, merely for purposes of inquiry. These officers also work the Margarine Act, under which 15 convictions were obtained in 1895.
There are three meat inspectors, who make shop-to-shop inspections, and visit all sausage works and knackeries. If any report comes to hand of a cow in any of the dairy-byres becoming sick or wasting, the inspectors visit it, and make an occasional report on the condition of the animal. These inspectors made 9572 visits in butcher shops, etc., during the year 1895, and 3772 morning inspections at railway stations and at the Broomielaw. They secured the condemnation in that year of 6997 lbs. of unwholesome meat through their exertions, besides 21,900 lbs. weight of 438 dead calves. Out of 2315 consignments of meat examined, 10 seizures were made, 5 carcasses were destroyed by consent, 6 cases were prosecuted and the consigners fined. The Sanitary Department has no share in the inspection of the meat at any of the City abattoirs. No horse-flesh is sold for human food in Glasgow.

After the appointment of the only Inspector of Factories and Workshops at present on the staff 752 workshops were, in 1892, inspected and measured, and a plan made of each. In 1895 the inspections numbered 2045, and 503 workshops were measured and registered. In 499 cases the improvements suggested by the inspector were carried out.

The working of the Shop Hours Acts, 1892 and 1893, passed for the preservation of the health of young persons of both sexes under eighteen years of age, has also been put into the hands of the Sanitary Inspector. The Health Committee have appointed all the food inspectors, meat inspectors, and the factory and workshops inspector to be shop hours inspectors in the various shops, stores, warehouses, etc., which they visit in their daily rounds; and one inspector has been specially appointed to devote his whole time to the work. Upwards of 16,000 notices have been issued intimating the main provisions of the Act to shopkeepers, restaurant-keepers, warehousemen, etc. Seven prosecutions were, during 1895, instituted, which resulted in four convictions and the imposition of penalties.

Within the past quarter of a century a vast amount of ameliorative work has been initiated and accomplished for the benefit of the degraded, the unfortunate, and the very poor. The poor we have still with us in little reduced force, and the vigilance and activities of sanitary authorities may never for an instant relax. With the fundamental problem of poverty, with the economic conditions of society, with the total depravity of man, the Health Committee have only an oblique interest. It is theirs to deal with facts, circumstances, and conditions as they exist. They are the licensed and armed foes of all foulness and pestilence; and, though the members may be individually conscious that there are other means of dealing with the primal causes which produce such hideous blots on our corporate life, it is not through official organizations that the remedies which spring from within can be applied. As it is, sanitary committees may claim to have accomplished a great work in lengthening and strengthening the life of the poor, and of making their condition more bearable, if we cannot say enjoyable.
CHAPTER XX.

HEALTH DEPARTMENT. III. DISEASE PREVENTION.


The infectious diseases with which a local authority are by statute empowered to deal are small-pox, cholera, diphtheria, membranous croup, erysipelas, measles, scarlet fever, and typhus, enteric, relapsing, continued and puerperal fevers. To these they may add any other infectious disease not statutorily specified should local exigencies demand such a course.

In dealing with infections the functions of the Medical Officer fall under three heads: (1) The discovery of the infected individual; (2) treatment of the case; and (3) the destruction of disease germs or infective media. Towards effecting these objects vast and costly organization and machinery are employed.

Previous to the adoption of the Notification of Diseases Act in 1890 the Medical Officer had to depend for the detection of infectious diseases chiefly on his staff of epidemic inspectors, of whom there are in Glasgow twelve at work. These functionaries, with the co-operation of medical men, school-teachers, nuisance inspectors, female sanitary inspectors, and others having knowledge of the masses of the people, were able to discover a large proportion of the serious cases of infectious disease; but many slight cases and inconspicuous outbreaks were effectually concealed from them till they accomplished the deadly harm of which they, equally with aggravated cases, are capable.

The primary responsibility for notifying to the Medical Officer any case of infectious disease within a dwelling-house rests, according to the Notification Act, on the heads of the family; next, the nearest relatives have that responsibility, and, failing such, any person relative or not in attendance on
the sufferer, and, after these, the occupier of the house in which the sufferer
dwells. Finally, but more important than any other, comes the medical
practitioner in charge of the case. He is bound immediately to certify any
declared case to the Medical Officer, giving the patient's name and address,
with the specific disease from which he is suffering. The Police Amendment
Act of 1890 gives extended powers to the Corporation in relation to school
children. It has always been recognized that school is the most fertile and
ever active centre in the spread of infectious diseases to which children are
peculiarly subject. By the 1890 statute every parent or guardian is pro-
hibited from permitting any child dwelling in a house where infectious disease
has existed within six months from attending school without first obtaining
a certificate from the Medical Officer, which is to be granted free of charge,
or from a qualified practitioner, that such child is free from disease and
infection, and that the dwelling and all therein subject to infection have
been treated and disinfected to the satisfaction of the Medical Officer, a
registered practitioner, or the Sanitary Inspector. For offence against this
regulation the parent or guardian is subject to a penalty of 40s., and a like
penalty can be imposed on any school-teacher who knowingly permits a
breach of this regulation.

In addition to the cases to which they are officially guided the epidemic
inspectors carry a general commission of inquiry. They explore the places
where disease is most likely to be found, and they consult every possible
source of information, and in this duty the female inspectors afford valuable
assistance. The volume of work done upon information supplied from these
several sources—head-quarters, personal inquiry, and others—may be thus
summarized. As the outcome of 146,865 visits made in 1895 the inspectors
discovered 2184 cases, and investigated 11,485 others reported. The total
(13,669) was composed of typhus fever, 25; enteric fever, 796; undefined
fever, 15; small-pox, 243; puerperal fever, 73; erysipelas, 1189; scarlet
fever, 3501; measles, 5631; whooping-cough, 1440; croup and diphtheria,
656; diarrhoeal diseases and chicken-pox, 100.

The discovery of a case is only the beginning of the epidemic inspector's
responsibility. Immediately any case is brought to his knowledge an inspector
visits the house, and leaves with the occupier a copy of a pamphlet containing
a popular exposition of the law about infectious diseases. In the case of
scarlet fever he leaves a further tract explaining the peculiarities of that
disease, as to the existence and duration of infection even in the mildest of
cases. Doubts or differences of medical opinion arising as to the diagnosis
of a case are settled by the Medical Officer. The inspector's function is to
supply him with information regarding not the medical aspects, but the
external circumstances of each case. The inspector inquires into and reports
upon the general physical conditions bearing upon treatment and infection.
Home environment affects both the safety of the patient and that of the
public, and an important feature of the inspector’s duty is to ascertain the particulars of house accommodation of the sufferers.

Thus, of the cases enumerated in the summary, 4791 were removed to hospital, and 8878 were treated at home. As between these two courses the judgment of the Medical Officer is final, and it is chiefly based upon the information of the inspector. The means of isolating the patient defines in practice the line of division between the cases to be removed, and those for which home treatment is allowed. Amongst the poor removal is most frequently an obvious and imperious necessity; but the Medical Officer has no option. It very rarely happens that he is compelled to obtain a magistrate’s warrant for forcible removal.

The further duties of the epidemic inspectors relate to special outbreaks of disease and to disinfection. In connection with the former they are frequently called upon to institute a house-to-house visitation. The term “dwelling,” it is of importance in a seaport town such as Glasgow to note, embraces tents, vans, common lodging-houses, seamen’s boarding-houses, emigrants’ houses, and vessels in the harbour; in fact, any covering under which human beings habitually sleep. For the floating portion of the population two inspectors are specially set apart, and one of these, a man of some linguistic attainments, has to deal specially with the ten thousand emigrants who yearly pass through the City. His duty is to see that these bring with them no infectious disease, and that they acquire none during their brief sojourn. His work is of importance at all times for preventing the importation of foreign epidemics, and when cholera or other virulent epidemic disease is abroad in Eastern Europe his task becomes grave and full of anxiety. During the whole time of the sojourn of emigrant parties in the special boarding-house set apart for them they are under medical supervision, any case of infectious illness is promptly removed to the hospital, and such precautionary and preventive measures as the circumstances demand are applied. Sometimes it becomes necessary in connection with an individual case of illness to detain in Glasgow a whole family, and in such circumstances the unaffected members are boarded in the municipal reception house. The same care, watchfulness, and treatment are extended to all vessels arriving from foreign countries,

Serious risk also arises of the importation of epidemic diseases from districts beyond the borders of Glasgow, where notification is not enforced and where the vigilance of the sanitary authorities is not so efficient as within the City. The danger of outbreaks from individual cases brought into the City is not small, but much more grave is the evil which arises from the sale of milk coming from farms where infectious disease has manifested itself, and where, from ignorance or greed, the facts have not been made public, and the distribution of milk consequently is not prohibited.

For dealing with the risk of infection carried in milk, whether the yield of cows within the City or brought from outland districts, a series of stringent
regulations are enacted under the Police Act of 1890. On the certificate of the Medical Officer, or of any other qualified practitioner, to the police authorities that an outbreak or spread of infectious disease is due to milk, the fullest powers are given to trace, first, all the families and persons to whom the suspected milk has been supplied, and, second, the source or sources from which it came. Adequate penalties for offences against these enactments can be enforced, and in the case of persons resident without the City it is provided that the prosecution shall be in the Court of the Sheriff of the County in which such person is domiciled. Having traced the milk and its influence, the case is of necessity passed on to the Procurator-Fiscal to obtain from the magistrate or sheriff an order to prohibit its sale and distribution, until by the removal of the infected person and by satisfactory disinfection the Medical Officer is satisfied that the sale of the milk may be safely resumed. The fiscal is further ordained to make intimation to the local authority of the district in which the infection has arisen of the facts of the case in order that such further measures as may be deemed necessary may be adopted. The penalty for a first offence against this regulation is five pounds, and for a second and every subsequent offence a fine of ten pounds is exigible.

A case of infection being discovered, it becomes from the public point of view more important to circumscribe the disease than to cure the individual patient. To prevent the spread of the infection the energies of the officials are therefore principally directed. The isolation of the sufferer is but one part of the work, thereby the active cause of disease propagation is dealt with, but disinfection of all that the patient has been in contact with, clothing, bedding, and house must be effected. Here arises the great difficulty in dealing with the very poor. Rarely do they possess more bedding than from day to day they urgently require, and the clothes in which they stand usually represent their entire wardrobe. To order the disinfection of the bed-clothes of such without special conditions would entail intolerable hardship, to disinfect their apparel without meanwhile supplying them with a covering is an impossibility. Hence the statutory sanitary wash-houses and the reception houses established by the Police Commissioners. Under the Police Amendment (1890) Act they became bound not only to provide hospital accommodation for the treatment of infectious diseases, but also houses for the convenience of very poor where they are either in a kind of quarantine, or simply detained while their humble dwellings, clothes, and furnishings are undergoing the disinfecting process.

The powers with which the Medical Officer is invested in relation to disinfection and purification are wide, searching, and stringent. Sentimental regard for personal rights, for the freedom of the individual, obviously had little weight in the framing and passing of the infectious diseases clauses of the Police Act of 1890. If any house is, in the opinion of the Medical
Officer or of two other practitioners, in a filthy or unwholesome condition, or should it require cleaning to prevent or to check infectious disease, the tenant may forthwith be ordered to cleanse, purify, and whitewash his abode, under a penalty of forty shillings, and a daily cumulative penalty of ten shillings, and the police authorities may themselves execute the work, and recover the expense in a summary manner as damages. Like regulations apply to the disinfection of bed and body clothing.

In Shorter Catechism phrase the work of necessity and the work of mercy go together. Where from overcrowding and inadequate accommodation, from insufficiency of bedding and for want of clothing, it becomes impossible to purify and disinfect without intolerable hardship to the unfortunate inmates, then the reception house comes into use. Two such establishments are provided by the Police Commissioners, one containing twenty-six beds at Weaver Street, near the head of the High Street, convenient for the central district, and the second at South York Street, on the south side of the river, in which there are thirty-nine beds. In these the persons boarded, under warrant if necessary, are provided with suits to wear till their own clothes are returned from the sanitary wash-house, they enjoy or endure the luxury of a bath, and they are fed at the public expense. Meantime their dwelling is undergoing white-washing and disinfection, and their bedding, etc., has been sent for treatment to the sanitary purification department. The reception-house boarders may be detained there for such period, not exceeding fourteen days, as the medical officer may consider necessary for the public safety. The period varies according to the nature of the disease which led to removal. This provision brings under direct supervision, and within reach of prompt treatment, cases in which the germs of disease in persons not actually suffering at the time of removal develop themselves during residence in the reception house.

Two distinct uses are thus made of the reception house. It is a shelter for those whose houses and clothing are undergoing the process of cleansing and disinfection. It is also, when necessary, a place of detention for families visited by infectious disease during the time considered necessary for latent disease to disclose itself.

The past average number of persons boarded in these houses has varied from 300 to 900 per annum. The total expenditure connected with them for 1895-96 amounted to £565, but in that year the guests of the municipality were fewer than usual.

Patient and inmates being disposed of, attention is now given to the disinfecting and cleansing operations proper. The law prohibits the washing of infected articles in any washing-house or green used by more than one family, and under the statute the City provides sufficient washing and disinfecting establishments for the public requirements, free of charge to the citizens. When home treatment is permitted to a case the epidemic inspector
keeps it in view, and from time to time orders the removal of infected articles till the final washing, with accompanying house purification, is ordered which winds up the case. When the case is removed to the hospital, one washing alone is required; clothing marked "immediate" must be returned the day it is taken away, if "non-immediate" it may be detained till the following day. The order "immediate" may be taken to imply that the inmates of the house cannot pass a single night without the use of the bedding and clothes removed for purification.

An order being given for disinfection the house is first visited by the checker, whose duty is to receive, select, inspect, and carefully catalogue all articles to be treated, to lace them up in a special canvas bag, which he seals up and so prepares for removal by the sanitary van. The office of checker is of recent origin, and was forced on the authorities from the fact that the sanitary wash-house was in danger of being converted into a huge laundry for the washing and cleansing of every article both in the infected home and in others in the neighbourhood. Further, to avoid groundless claims for compensation it became necessary to note whether articles sent for disinfection were torn or wasted previous to being so sent or not. The system is at least economical. In the year's working, after its initiation, the average number of pieces for washing fell from 61 to 45. A saving of 25 per cent. forms a considerable item where the total number of bundles is about 12,000 yearly. In separate articles it means in round numbers the difference between 720,000 and 540,000, the odd 180,000 representing the extent to which the wash-house had been used for laundry purposes.

The collector and fumigator—duties combined in one officer—follows in the track of the checker. The orders issued daily are divided according to districts among the vanmen. Each vanman is accompanied by a collector, who is furnished with a specially-designed fumigating pan filled with ground sulphur, and calls on the following morning at each of the houses marked in his sheet. On arrival at the first house the collector obtains all the patient's bedding and clothing, the removal of which has previously been arranged by the checker. The fumigator and collector then closes all outlets and sets fire to the sulphur in his water-jacketed pan, places a printed instruction on the door of the apartment, and proceeds to the next house. The average number of houses for each van daily is ten, the number of separate articles is stated about 45, so that each van returns about noon each day with 450 pieces of infected clothing.

The vans for collecting infected goods are provided with sides which open upwards automatically by means of spring rollers. The driver, without shifting his position, touches a handle which releases the side through which the bundle of clothes is deposited. This arrangement disarms all apprehension regarding the dissemination of infection in the streets.

Following upon the collectors and fumigators, the limewashers, or white-
washers, come next in order in the work of disinfection. They follow specific instructions, and limewash the walls and ceilings of apartments and closets which have been exposed to inspection. In 1895 8932 apartments, lobbies, and closets were fumigated; 1564 apartments, 1865 ceilings, lobbies, and closets were whitewashed.

The process of disinfecting clothing and other articles, and the place where it is performed, are the remaining subjects pertaining to what may, with special reference to the hospitals, be called the extramural treatment of infectious disease.

When the van-loads arrive at the wash-house the contents of each bundle are ticketed and checked. The various articles are then divided into groups, mats, blankets, white goods, and coloured goods. A solution of bichloride of mercury (corrosive sublimate) is then poured over the goods, and is allowed to thoroughly saturate the fibre. The clothing thereafter is placed in the washing machine, and then whizzed in the hydro-extractors. Thence they are conveyed to the stoves, where they are dried. In the despatch room the tickets are taken off and a new check made, and next they are packed in clean sheets for delivery. Meantime the beds, bolsters, pillows, cushions, etc., are placed in a steam disinfector, where they are subject to high pressure, after which, emerging into the cooling room, they are laid out to dry and cool. All straw beds taken from the lower quarters are burned, and new straw is packed into the disinfected ticks. Carpets are beaten in a special machine, and all the dust and dirt beaten and brushed out of them. Small carpets and floor coverings are treated in a shallow trough. When all is ready the open vans deliver the cleansed and disinfected clothing, and bring back the fumigating pans left at the various dwellings.

It is indicative of a great change in public sentiment that those who, in 1891, made the appointment of a checker necessary to prevent abuse of the public service, were in the early days of the sanitary wash-house unwilling to avail themselves of it. Their reluctance rested, in some cases, upon a wish to conceal the presence of infectious disease in their households; in others, upon a fear that mixing their clothes with others might bring a return of worse contaminations; and, in a third group, upon a belief that the washing would be better done at home. Figures, in this instance, afford an index to popular feeling. The number of articles washed in 1865 from 6653 cases of infectious disease was 29,489. In 1869 the cases fell to 3389, but the articles washed rose to 39,515—an increase of 10,000, along with a decrease of about 50 per cent. in the number of cases. From year to year the number of articles per case were in round numbers as follows: In 1865, 4; in 1869, 12; in 1880, 36; in 1893, 61. The public desire for cleanliness and disinfection became embarrassing, and necessitated the appointment of a checker.
It was in September, 1864, that the first municipal disinfecting and washing-house was set up in the High Street. The ground rent of the premises was £3, and the entire cost of erection and fittings amounted to £244, and the “staff” numbered two washerwomen. In 1871 a new and greatly developed wash-house was opened at Belvidere Hospital, with modern appliances, including a hydro-extractor and steam-heated drying stove. The accommodation quickly proved quite inadequate, and again, in 1883, another and much enlarged establishment was provided in the grounds of Belvidere, but entirely detached from the hospital. The buildings, which occupy an area of 2500 square yards, cost about £2500, and on machinery and fittings £3000 was expended. In that establishment alone, in 1892, there were 12,000 separate washings, and nearly three-quarters of a million of separate articles, exclusive of beds and carpets, were disinfected and washed. 6962 lbs. of soda ash, 40,620 lbs. of soap were consumed, and 6,240,000 gallons of water were used.

The increase of population, the annexation of large suburbs, and a serious outbreak of small-pox strained the capacity of the Belvidere establishment to the breaking point, and rendered the erection of an additional wash-house imperative. A site for such an establishment was found in the ground at Ruchill Park allocated for hospital purposes; and there, in 1893, the erection of a building on the most approved plan was begun. The Ruchill sanitary wash-house was opened in October, 1894. To it a site has been devoted, covering upwards of 7000 square yards, the buildings themselves occupying about 3000 square yards.

The latest improvements in disinfecting appliances and in laundry machinery have been adopted at Ruchill, and the works have been so planned that the outgoing purified articles cannot come near the incoming infected clothing, etc., all stages and processes being in continuous line from first to last. The buildings are in two groups or blocks, the first comprising three dwelling-houses, two van sheds, stables, with harness room, hay loft, and straw store. In the second or main group are the washing machinery hall, the ticketing hall, a cholera and small-pox disinfecting room, a carpet-beating chamber in two sections, a fumigating room, men's and women's bath rooms, women's kitchen and lavatory, store room, office, visitor's lavatory, sorting hall, four drying rooms, workshop, engine-house and boiler-house. A cremating furnace for destroying the infected straw and chaff of beds is on the west gable of the building, and on the same side an air propeller has been fitted which carries off vapour and at the same time maintains a current of air from the outgoing end of the building towards the incoming end in which alone infected articles are present.

An exceptional feature in the establishment is the steam disinfecter provided for treating beds, pillows, and other articles which cannot be washed in the ordinary way. This apparatus is oval in shape, 12 feet long by 6
feet high, of great strength, the casing being made to withstand steam pressure of 70 lbs. per square inch. The articles, placed in galvanized iron wire baskets, are run into the machine. The steam-tight doors are then closed, and a vacuum is created by means of a powerful ejector. This exhausts the air equally from the inside of the chamber and form the interstices of the bedding and clothing under treatment, the object being to enable the steam when turned on to speedily penetrate every crevice. Steam is then turned on until a pressure of 20 lbs. has been registered on the gauge, and the bedding is kept at a temperature of 290° Fahr., from twenty minutes to half an hour. The steam is then allowed to blow off and the ejector is again set in operation to produce the necessary vacuum, in order that hot air from a hot-air producer, fitted at the side of the apparatus, may rush into the inner chamber, whereby the moisture in the bedding is dried up. The doors are then opened and the articles are taken out at the end of the apparatus and laid on the floor to cool down. After the various kinds of goods have passed through their allotted course of treatment they are taken to the despatch room whence they are returned.
CHAPTER XXI.

HEALTH DEPARTMENT. IV. TREATMENT OF DISEASE.


All measures having been taken to prevent the spread of infection and to extirpate disease germs from the dwelling in which a case originated, the care and medical treatment of the patient who goes to the hospital have now alone to be considered. Thither the sufferer is conveyed in the ambulance van, and once within its gates there is complete seclusion from the outer world. Relatives and friends hear only of the progress of the patient through the medium of the inquiry room, where twice a day—once on Sundays—the nurses attend in a raised balcony, and from that elevation communicate with inquirers on the floor.

Under the Police Act of 1866, the establishment and maintenance of a permanent fever hospital became a compulsory duty on the part of the Police Commissioners. The temporary structure on Parliamentary Road, which, temporary as it is, still remains an efficient institution, was the first Glasgow municipal hospital. Belvidere Hospital was the first permanent establishment erected and maintained at the expense of a municipality in Scotland. The park in which it stands is 32 acres in extent, beautifully situated on the banks of the Clyde on the eastern confines of the City. It was purchased for £17,000, commuted into a ground annual of £680, and on it, in addition to the buildings and offices connected with the hospital proper, there has been found a site for the sanitary wash-house already mentioned. Within the enclosing walls of the spacious park ample space is afforded for the exercise of convalescents, and for their recreation as well
as for the recreation of the large staff, who, by the nature of their functions, are more or less restricted in their social enjoyments.

The hospital proper is sharply divided into two independent and entirely distinct sections—a small-pox division and a fever division. The small-pox division has its own entrance, its own ambulance van, and a separate staff of medical officers, nurses, and servants, with its own kitchen, inquiry room, offices, washing-house, stores, and even its own mortuary. No communication whatever is permitted between the small-pox and the ordinary fever wards. But when small-pox, as fortunately now is frequently the case, has practically disappeared, it is deemed necessary to retain only one or two pavilions to deal with a possible recrudescence of the disease, and the remaining pavilions—there are altogether five—carefully partitioned off, are devoted to the treatment of fever cases. The small-pox section was the first permanent structure erected on Belvidere, and it was opened in December, 1877, having cost upwards of £30,000. Within the five pavilions or double wards there are 150 beds, with an allowance of 2000 cubic feet of air space for each patient. The recreation ground of the small-pox side is, of course, entirely separated from that attached to the fever pavilions.

The fever hospital consists of thirteen pavilions, containing 390 beds, arranged in groups and perfectly isolated. With the pavilions are associated the various stores, offices, and administrative buildings connected with the working of the establishment, all so disposed as best to facilitate adequate and economical service and control. Each pavilion, in both small-pox and fever divisions, consists of two wards, the wards themselves being unequally subdivided into an acute side with eleven, and a convalescent side containing four beds. Projected outwards from the centre of the acute ward is the nurse's room, from the glass screen in which she commands a view of the entire subdivision. Temperature and ventilation are under thorough control, and with waxed floors, varnished woodwork, and tiling, cleanliness is promoted and dust reduced to a minimum. The heating of the entire institution, wards, doctors' residences, and nurses and servants' quarters is effected by hot-water pipes from the boiler-house. There also is raised the steam needed for the laundry engine and drying stove and for use at the cooking ranges in the kitchen. The hospital wash-house is separated into three sections—one for the infected clothes taken from patients on their arrival, one for the linen, etc., from the wards, and a third for the use of the medical attendants, nurses, and other members of the staff, whose clothes and linen are also treated as if infected. Attached to the wash-house is the crematory, where the straw and chaff from every patient's bed is burned immediately on his or her dismissal. When patients are able to be out of bed they are supplied with warmly-lined clothing, which is handed back and disinfected on their dismissal. On the arrival of that time when the patient divests himself of his hospital suit, he passes into the bath-room, where he gets a
bath, and going thence into the dressing-room he resumes his own clothes, and so passes into the care of his friends, if such he has, and out into the world, no longer the special care of the Health Committee of Glasgow.

To many children and young persons who come from sordid homes, from base surroundings, and from brutal neglect, the experience of their last days spent in the hospital must be nothing short of a revelation of a new world. There in the blissful tranquillity of mind which accompanies returning health they lead a life of calm enjoyment, with comforts, luxuries, and above all, with human sympathy such as they never before dreamt of, and such, alas, as they are never likely to meet again. There is small wonder that many of the little ones leave the hospital with tearful regret, and doubtless they look back to the days of their convalescence there as the sunniest spot in their grey existence.

But it is not every case that terminates in recovery and issuing forth to the battle of life. When the soundest constitutions, aided with the most skilful treatment and the most tender and solicitous nursing are unable to withstand the deadly attacks of infectious disease, how can we look for a favourable proportion of recoveries among the puny starvelings of the lanes and closes? When a case terminates fatally in the hospital the body must under penalty be conveyed direct to the grave from the institution. No "wake" may be permitted over the body of any person who has died of infectious disease whether in hospital or in a private house. And no such body can be removed in any public conveyance, not being a conveyance reserved for such a purpose, till the Medical Officer has certified that every precaution necessary for the public safety has been adopted to his satisfaction, and that under a penalty of £10.

The experience gained by the Corporation in connection with the working of the Parliamentary Road and the Belvidere Hospitals has been turned to good account in connection with the planning of the establishment at Ruchill now in course of erection. In its construction also the suggestions and improvements derivable from other sources in the United Kingdom and the Continent have not been overlooked, and as Ruchill may be said to embody the latest ideas connected with the construction of municipal hospitals for infectious diseases, a somewhat detailed account of that institution may not be out of place.

The entire scheme of the Ruchill Hospital embraces the erection of 34 distinct blocks of buildings, of which 16 are pavilions for the patients, and in these the greatest interest centres. Twelve of the pavilions are large and contain each 30 beds for the patients, while each of the four small pavilions has 12 beds, thus giving accommodation in all for 408 patients; but this number does not exhaust the resources of the hospital, as 48 additional beds could easily be provided in the small pavilions should emergency require. Even then the cubic feet of air space per patient would still be
in excess of the requirements of the Local Government Board. Careful attention has been given to the planning and general arrangements of the pavilions, particularly in connection with the ventilation and sanitation, and the systems adopted have met with unqualified approval from such specialists as have had an opportunity of judging. The experience gained at Belvidere has been invaluable, suggesting numerous improvements which bid fair to realize the hope of making Ruchill Hospital rank second to none. While, of course, the chief attention has been bestowed on careful planning, the architecture of the buildings has not been neglected. The style adopted is a sympathetic treatment of Elizabethan, red-stone dressings being used with a fine quality of red brick for filling in the colouring, giving a warmth of tone to the buildings admirably adapted to the surroundings. Next in interest to the pavilions comes the administrative block, a huge stone building facing the west with a frontage of 240 feet, and wing walls extending north and south for a distance of 189 feet. Bedrooms are here provided for 202 nurses, with bath-rooms and lavatories on a complete scale. It provides also a large recreation hall which can be utilized for entertainments. Sitting-rooms and four large sick-rooms for use in the event of illness, not of an infectious nature, have also been provided. Ample provision for the requirements of the superintendent, doctors, assistant-doctors, and matron has been arranged, bedrooms, dining-rooms, library, business rooms, etc., being comprised in the accommodation.

Directly facing the entrance by Bilsland Drive the inquiry room block has been arranged with a view to provide every facility to inquirers for receiving information regarding the condition of the patients, without incurring the slightest chance of infection, the inquiry room itself being conveniently situated and constructed so that inquirers may see and speak to the charge nurses who stand at a safe distance in a gallery. In this block a Dorcas store occupies the basement, the upper floors embrace office, telephone room, shoemaker's shop, and nineteen bedrooms for male employees, with recreation room, baths, lavatories, and other necessary conveniences.

To the east of the inquiry room block is the morgue block, while on the west is the clearing-house block, the former having a post-mortem room, laboratory, museum, lecture hall and funeral apartment. The clearing-house block comprises separate bath-rooms for six males and six females, with entering and retiring rooms; the fire-engine station is placed between the baths for the two sexes, thus isolating them from each other, and providing a central site for the fire-engine in the event of an alarm. Adjoining the wash-house of the Sanitary Department are placed stables block, boiler house and workshops block, and wash-house block, all of the most approved construction.

In a line to the south of the inquiry room block, and flanked on each side by pavilions, stands the kitchen and stores block, which embraces all stores connected with the culinary department, dining halls, kitchens, work-
rooms for female employees, and clothes stores. The day workers block, which provides 78 bedrooms for housemaids, cleaners, and other under-servants, is also in the same line. In connection with the establishment it is proposed to erect a water tower, which will contain tanks for the storage of water, the high elevation of the site demanding such provision. Along Bilsland Drive a row of dwelling-houses are to be erected, two detached houses for house steward and master of works, and four semi-detached houses for other non-professional officers being provided, while between them a prettily designed entrance gateway and gate lodge will form an attractive approach to the hospital. The area of ground included in the hospital policies covers 34 acres, and is enclosed by a brick boundary wall, inside of which extends an iron railing. The intervening space will be filled in with shrubbery on the completion of the building. The estimated cost of the buildings, exclusive of site, is £200,000.

Under the Annexation Act of 1891 the City acquired proprietary rights and responsibilities in the Fever Hospital at Knightswood, lying to the west of the Police Burgh of Partick. That institution was erected jointly by Partick, Hillhead, and Maryhill, and the respective interests of the burghs in the institution was fairly represented by their proportionate representation on the Board of Management consisting of eleven members. Of these six represented Partick, three Maryhill, and two Hillhead, and as Glasgow absorbed the two last named burghs, it now sends five representatives to the Board, it has the right to send to the hospital all cases arising within the former boundaries of these burghs, and it bears the proportion of the annual expenditure which would have been exigible from them. The share of the annual cost of the hospital, which is regulated by the proportionate rentals of the original contributing authorities, in the case of Glasgow for the year 1895-96 amounted to £1860, being one-half the total expenditure.

The annual cost of the Sanitary Department of the City varies with the condition of public health, but within modern limits an increase of cases does not imply a corresponding growth in expenditure. The entire establish-ment is maintained on a scale calculated to cope with a seriously high average of infectious disease, and it is only when epidemic conditions of some gravity manifest themselves that the resources of the department become strained, and increased staff and service in all sections become necessary. The cost per patient is thus in general considerably less when the hospital accommodation is fully occupied than in periods of sound public health; but in the vast com-munity of Glasgow, with its great aggregate of epidemic disease, a large and steady supply of patients is gathered into the hospitals. The year 1892-93 was marked by a serious outbreak of scarlet fever, and a development of small-pox of quite unexampled extent and severity in recent experience. In the year ended 31st May, 1893, the number of cases of scarlet fever treated was 3452, of which 2550 were taken to Belvidere and 902 were
treated in Parliamentary Road. In the same period 434 cases of small-pox were dealt with in the small-pox hospital. The expenditure of the financial year 1895-96 of the City hospitals amounted to £36,383, the Parliamentary Road establishment being responsible for £19,094, Belvidere Fever Hospital £24,805, and the cost of the Small-pox Hospital reached only £1483. The proportion of the expenditure at Knightswood Hospital appertaining to the City was £1860, thus bringing up the total cost of hospital work for the year to upwards of £38,000. The total cost of the Sanitary Department to the City for that year was £79,101, nearly the whole of which amount was met by assessments under the Public Health (Scotland) Act, 1867, and the Glasgow Police Act, 1866.

From the day on which the Sanitary Department re-opened the Parliamentary Road Hospital—the 26th of April, 1865—till the 31st of May, 1894, there have been treated in the various municipal hospitals of Glasgow a grand total of 74,295 cases, of which 8073 ended fatally, a proportion of 10.6 per cent. of mortality. Parliamentary Road, in twenty-nine years and one month, has a record of 16,796 cases with 1807 deaths, a mortality of 10.8 per cent.; Belvidere Fever Hospital, from 25th December, 1870, till 31st May, 1891, had 56,329 cases and 6185 deaths, or a mortality equal to 11 per cent.; and in the Small-pox Hospital from 6th December, 1877, till 31st May, 1894, there were 1179 cases, resulting in 71 deaths, equal to 6 per cent. of mortality. It is proper to observe that the small-pox cases themselves numbered only 811, more than half of which occurred in the year 1892-93, and the total number of deaths from that disease was 63, a mortality percentage of 7.8. The balance is represented by fever cases proper treated in the small-pox wards, when the latter disease was little prevalent, or altogether absent, as already explained. The mortality rate is, no doubt, in excess of what occurs in private practice, a circumstance not to be wondered at in view of the feeble vitality of a large portion of the patients conveyed to the public hospitals.

And what is the outcome of the stupendous work of the Municipality of Glasgow towards improving the health and bettering the conditions of life of the vast lower stratum of the community? Between the Improvement Trust and the Police Commissioners millions of money have been expended, and for thirty years an increasing warfare has been kept up against dirt, darkness, and disease. Has the result been commensurate with the effort and the expenditure? Before answering the question, it is well to bear in mind that frightful as were the conditions thirty years ago, there is no reason to believe that the City had sounded the lowest depths of possible human existence. Indeed it is perfectly certain that with a policy of lassees-faire, the evils amid which the poor lived and died would have increased in accelerating ratio. There is nothing in the form of a shelter into which human beings will not creep and seek to establish themselves, no structure
is too mean, dirty, disreputable, and broken down to be an object of the avarice of rapacious and unprincipled owners. What might have been, to what depths of deadly misery the meaner parts of the City might have sunk, it is almost impossible to imagine. The conditions were already on the score of public safety unbearable in 1866, and the drastic remedies of the municipality were not applied a day too soon.

A brief study of the record of mortality from zymotic diseases for forty years, from the period when the Scottish Registration Act came into operation in 1855 to the end of 1894, affords a most striking and satisfactory justification of all that has been done and expended in Glasgow by the sanitary authorities. Dividing the period into decades we get ten years of presanitary experience, ten in which the sanitary authorities were groping their way towards system and order, and two lapses of ten in which results began to manifest themselves. For the purposes of comparison Dr. Russell has reduced the total mortality to a standard of death-rates per million, bringing out the following remarkable figures:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Zymotics</th>
<th>Phtisis</th>
<th>Other Diseases of Lungs.*</th>
<th>Other Causes</th>
<th>All Causes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1855-64</td>
<td>7,841</td>
<td>3,918</td>
<td>5,170</td>
<td>13,121</td>
<td>39,350</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1865-74</td>
<td>7,377</td>
<td>3,940</td>
<td>6,522</td>
<td>12,692</td>
<td>30,530</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1875-84</td>
<td>5,936</td>
<td>3,396</td>
<td>6,322</td>
<td>12,113</td>
<td>26,886</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1885-94</td>
<td>3,822</td>
<td>2,458</td>
<td>5,329</td>
<td>11,366</td>
<td>23,175</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Exclusive of croup.

Contrasting the experience of the first and last ten years of the period we have a decrease of 23 per cent. on the total death-rate, almost entirely due to zymotics and phthisis, the decrease in the former alone being no less than 51 per cent., and on the latter it amounts to 37 per cent. on the mortality. In 1864—the year previous to the beginning of hospital work—in a population of 420,738 persons, there were 13,674 deaths; thirty years later, in a population increased to 686,820, almost 60 per cent., the number of deaths reached precisely the same figure, 13,674.

There is not in the list a single infectious disease which has entirely resisted the ameliorative efforts of the sanitary authorities. Some have proved themselves much more amenable to control than others, a circumstance which is sufficiently accounted for by the peculiarities of the diseases themselves. Typhus may be said to be practically extinguished. In the ten years, 1855-64, the deaths from that disease numbered 5558; in the decade ending 1894 they were only 167. From small-pox the deaths in the first period were 2197, in the last they were reduced to 45. Enteric fever was not separately registered till 1865. In the ten years, 1865-74, the deaths it caused numbered 2251; for 1885-94 the deaths registered were 1138. With children's diseases the success is not so striking. Scarlet fever is the most formidable of all the enemies with which the sanitary
powers have to cope. It is never absent, and in spite of all precautions it becomes epidemic in unexpected quarters. Yet it also has been sensibly curbed. In the first decennium, 1855-64, it contributed a total of 4770 deaths; in the next period, 1865-74, epidemics raised the deaths to 6607; but thenceforth a notable decrease set in, and for 1885-94 the total deaths amounted only to 2269. Of all zymotic diseases measles appears to be the least amenable to public control. In the ten years ended 1864 measles caused 3474 deaths; in the ten years ended 1894 the deaths 4642. It would thus appear that measles is the one zymotic disease which has baffled the efforts of the sanitary officials, and the reason is not far to seek. "The acute stage of infectivity," says Dr. Russell, "is over before the acute stage of the disease is fully established." Before the case is removed the most of the damage is done. The record of whooping-cough is also one of obstinate tenacity, and it is not a little remarkable that this disease, popularly regarded as more troublesome than dangerous, is the most persistent, formidable, and fatal of all our zymotics. In the ten years, 1855-64, it claimed 6377 victims; in the decennium ended in 1894 it was the cause of 6223 deaths, and taking the increase of population into account—in the end nearly double—the decreased mortality cannot be regarded as other than highly satisfactory. The course of diarrhoeal disease has in Glasgow been more influenced by water supply than by any other cause. From 1860 Loch Katrine water, probably the purest supply in the world, has been turned on in Glasgow. The cholera epidemic of 1854, when part of the water of the City was drawn from the Clyde, carried off 3886 victims, 12 per thousand of the population; cholera again broke out in 1866, but then it caused only 68 deaths in all, and obtained no real hold on the people. The deaths from diarrhoea, dysentery, and cholera in the ten years ended 1864 came in all to 4049, 2719 in the first five years when water supply was impure; in the ten years, 1885-94, there occurred 3034 deaths from this class of disease. It is in the case of children under one year of age that these diseases maintain a high and persistent average death-rate, and with these the sanitary authorities are comparatively powerless—"the mother," as Dr. Russell remarks, "is after all the domestic sanitary inspector. In 1874 a simple tract on the necessity of domestic cleanliness in air, clothes, and food was drawn up by Dr. Russell, and with the permission of the Registrar General, a copy is given to every person who in Glasgow registers a birth. In dealing with such intimate domestic matters as the care of children, it is found that the services of the female Sanitary Inspectors are of great value. Diphtheria was not recognized and separately classified till 1857, and it has been steadily increasing since, but apparently at the expense of its ally croup. Summing the deaths under these two diseases together, a distinct but not notable decrease in the proportion of fatal cases is brought out. For the ten years, 1855-64, they together were responsible for 2327 deaths; in the ten years
ended 1894 they caused 2581 deaths. Of the minor zymotics, erysipelas, puerperal fever, influenza, etc., it is sufficient to say that the ten years, 1855-64, record of deaths amounted to 4330; while for the later ten years 1885-94, in the greatly increased population, they occasioned 4044 deaths.

The aggregate of disease, suffering, and deadly misery which has been warded off has surely been a sufficient sanction for the expenditure by the Health Committee and an ample reward for their labours. And be it remembered it is not in zymotic diseases alone that the beneficial influence of the public sanitary work has been experienced. It is with such diseases that the department is primarily concerned, but whatever tends to diminish and check infection, in like manner reduces the potency and fatality of every other class of disease. The stamina of the entire population has been improved, their vitality has been quickened, and the average longevity has been distinctly increased. Glasgow, from being an unhealthy City with an annual death-rate per thousand of from 30 to 33, has become a really healthy community with a death-rate ranging from 20 to 23, a fairly satisfactory condition as great urban populations go. The Police Commissioners, aided by the Improvement Trustees and the Water Trustees, the Municipality of Glasgow in fact, for under different names they are the same body, have taken away the reproach from the City; they undoubtedly faced a Herculean task—they have cleaned an Augean stable. Their labours are by no means at an end, nor has the goal been reached. What they have accomplished only points hopefully to what is possible yet to do. Every coign of vantage secured, every repulse of the dread foe effected, gives new opportunities of successful attack, and increases the hope of ultimate victory all along the line. It has been demonstrated that zymotic diseases can be curbed and controlled—already their fatality in Glasgow has been decreased by 50 per cent. The contest in which these results have been attained has developed the aggressive skill of the assailants, and with their increased knowledge and improved methods it should be possible in the future to work even greater havoc in the weakened strongholds of the foe. That a community living under the highly artificial conditions of modern city life should attain entire immunity from disease is too much to expect. We shall have the sick and the feeble as well as the poor always with us. But that fact notwithstanding every citizen should have at least the possibility of living a healthy, comfortable, and useful life, and towards that ideal condition, yet in the dim and distant future, the efforts of the Sanitary Department are entirely directed.
CHAPTER XXII.

THE IMPROVEMENT TRUST.


"Various portions of the City of Glasgow are so built, and the buildings so densely inhabited, as to be highly injurious to the moral and physical welfare of the inhabitants." So runs the preamble of the City Improvement Act of 1866, and the measured words of the parliamentary document had ample warrant in the conditions under which a large proportion of the humbler citizens existed. The injurious conditions were not of recent origin, but filthy foetid crowded dens do not sweeten with age, their horrors increase in ever-accelerating ratio. When the vivid pictures of overcrowding in dirty dark dens, drawn by impartial observers early in the century, are realized, when we are told that the devastating plague of typhus was never absent, and that it frequently burst into epidemic eruptions of deadly violence, when we think of the dense accumulation of misery, vice, crime, and disease, of all that makes human life repulsive and unbearable, we are ready to wonder that official persons spoke with complacency and satisfaction of the affairs of Glasgow, and that for their own protection the citizens did not insist on the application of curative measures to the terrible evils. Why in particular, we wonder, did not that great-souled reformer, Dr. Thomas Chalmers, see that before he could make any permanent impression on the
moral condition of the people for whom he laboured so well, it was necessary that they should be enabled to live under conditions compatible not only with health but with ordinary self-respect? About 1820, it is true, the evils of overcrowding were of comparatively recent origin, and their train of attendant horrors was only beginning to be manifest. The point of view was, moreover, in important subjects very different. Sanitary science did not exist, preventive medicine was a term unknown, an epidemic was "a visitation of God" to be borne as we now bear a severe winter, and there was scarcely a glimmering conception that such visitations could be warded off by human agency. And the "rights of property" were also much more sacred in the first quarter of the century than they are at its close, landlordism was a powerful force, an oligarchal town council was not likely to challenge the landlords' position, and democracy had not yet raised its head. There was little for the people except to suffer in dumb, hopeless misery: to wallow on in the increasing filth and wretchedness of their hovels, and to send out periodical reminders of their existence and condition in the form of epidemic scourages which brought death and woe into many helplessly consenting households.

The overcrowding which worked deadly havoc in Glasgow cannot be traced further back than the last quarter of the eighteenth century. It was when cotton spinning on the factory system was introduced that the population began to increase with phenomenal rapidity, large masses of people from rural villages crowded into the City, and within its narrow limits they had to find somewhere to lay their heads. The ancient lines of street were closely built up, but behind the houses there were ample open gardens. These were essentials of both comfort and decency of the homes; but for the poor incomers they were unattainable luxuries, the gardens were built over with tenements so closely packed together as to leave bare means of access to their doors and stairs, the front houses were deserted by their well-to-do occupiers, who withdrew to the more open outskirts, and their dwellings were divided up into many separate houses of seldom more than one apartment. There was no power to stay this reckless and detrimental activity, and all the region on both sides of the High Street from the College downwards, the Gallowgate, the Trongate west to Stockwell Street, and thence to the river and the Saltmarket were packed generally so closely that neighbours could shake hands or rather fight from their windows across the narrow space left between tenements. And this, be it remembered, was the state of things when the water supply was still obtained from public wells, when sewers were unknown and drains had no existence, and when filth was private property to be removed only when a price could be obtained for it.

The graver evils of overcrowding did not make themselves at first felt when the population was fresh from rural life, when the properties were
comparatively new, and when walls and soil were not yet saturated with filth. But morally and physically the people quickly deteriorated, houses were allowed to fall into wretched disorder, and everywhere about were neglect, misery, and dirt. Such an outcome was inevitable; inevitable also were crime and disease, and these evils, begun in such impenetrable burrows, increased in amount and intensity with alarming speed till they became a standing menace to the social fabric. To aggravate the evils of the situation there grew up in this population a mass of human beings, poor wretched outcasts, who possessed no home and had no personal goods whatever. For these, when they could afford a copper or two, lodging-houses were provided by enterprising persons, and the crowding, dirt, and moral confusion in these establishments were almost incredible. Let one example suffice. In 1818 Professor Graham, of Glasgow University, inspected a lodging-house which consisted "of two rooms separated by boards, the first 13 feet by 11, the other 15 feet by 8." In these, he says, "twenty-three of the lowest class of Irish were lately lodged. To-day there are fourteen, of whom two are confined with fever, three are convalescent, and only one has hitherto escaped. There are only three beds in this house, denominated with the facetiousness which enables an Irishman to joke with his own misery 'flea barracks,' one of them in a press half-way up the wall, the others wooden frames on which are laid some shavings of wood scantily covered with dirty rags."

From time to time public attention was officially called to the horrors of the wynds and closes, and the evils themselves attain such gigantic proportions as to compel every thoughtful citizen to regard them with the gravest concern. Tentative efforts were made not only by the Corporation, but by private citizens also to grapple with the problem, but clearly the task was too vast for restricted effort, and even the Corporation had to obtain exceptional powers to cope with it.

Hence the City Improvement Act of 1866, the first impulse to which was given by a private association of benevolent citizens, wealthy men, who attempted the task of buying up some of the worst areas with the view of laying out proper streets through them, and thereafter having buildings of a decent and wholesome character erected on the vacant spaces. But the want of compulsory powers rendered their efforts futile, and besides it was painfully obvious that the task of transforming the core of the City required broader shoulders than those of private citizens. Among the committee concerned in the benevolent but inadequate enterprise was Lord Provost Blackie, and he, with a full knowledge of the extent and the difficulties of the undertaking, guided a committee appointed in 1865 by the Town Council in their consideration of the provisions of a draft Improvement Bill. Skilfully pioneered, the Bill was approved of by the Town Council without opposition from the public or from property owners, and it passed smoothly through both Houses of Parliament, receiving royal assent on the 11th June, 1866. After the
Bill was passed, it is right to mention that the association of gentlemen above alluded to handed over to the Improvement Trustees the whole of the properties they had acquired at purchase price.

Under the 1866 Act the Lord Provost, Magistrates, and Town Council were appointed trustees for carrying out its purposes and to exercise its powers. These were, in brief, to acquire houses and land within certain defined compulsory areas, to purchase other lands by agreement, to alter, widen, and divert existing streets, and to form new streets as shown on the plans submitted to Parliament, to take down existing buildings and to sell the materials thereof, to lay out lands so opened up of new, and to sell or dispose of the grounds and buildings they may acquire on lease or on feu as they may deem proper. Power was also given to the trustees to erect buildings on their lands, and to sell or lease the same. Under certain restrictions power was given to the trustees to eject tenants from the properties they acquired, and generally, it may be said, they were endowed with all the powers and rights of any ordinary Glasgow land and house owner.

The area scheduled under the Act amounted to only 88 acres, but it contained a population of upwards of 51,000 persons. It lay principally in the central district of the City on both sides of the High Street, the Saltmarket, the Trongate westward to King Street on the south, and to South Albion Street on the north side, and the western section of Gallowgate. Through the Calton district there were also several areas scheduled, and one at Bridgeton, from Bridgeton Cross to the Green by what is now James Street. On the south side the areas scheduled included the greater part of the old village of Gorbals and part of Hutchesontown. The powers for compulsory acquiring the properties in these scheduled areas were limited to five years from the passing of the measure, but under the Act passed in 1871 that period was extended five years more. The powers of compulsory purchase thus expired in June, 1876.

It was calculated that the entire cost of the scheme to the ratepayers might amount to half a million, and to meet that power of imposing an assessment was conferred on the trustees to the amount of 6d. per £ over the first five years, and at the rate of 3d. per £ for the remaining ten years of the period. The tax was leviable on the occupiers of property alone. Borrowing powers to the extent of £1,250,000 were also conferred on the trustees. The trustees were further empowered to acquire a new park in the north-eastern district of the City, and to expend for that purpose a sum not exceeding £40,000.

Armed with these powers the trustees proceeded without delay to exercise their functions. The Act received royal assent on 11th June, 1866. On 1st August following the trustees held their first meeting, and the necessary committees for carrying out the provisions of the statute were appointed, and on the 6th of September the assessment for the year was fixed at 6d.
per £—the maximum rate exigible. Up till this time rosy-coloured anticipations of the financial success of the undertaking had possessed the public mind, and a fine glow of enthusiasm was evoked for a gigantic work of benevolence, which was in their estimation not only to cost nothing, but which the more sanguine expected would be as profitable as it was praiseworthy. It was argued that the rotten slum properties would be acquired for small sums, and that the price to be realized from stances on the broad and spacious streets to be formed would more than recoup the whole expenditure of the trustees. Supported by public acclaim, and resolved on a thorough policy, the trustees, who did not share in these Utopian views, felt warranted in exercising their powers to the full. But there was in store for them a rude shock, the flimsy fabric of public enthusiasm disappeared at the first intimation that to begin with the occupant ratepayers would be called on to bear an addition so heavy to their local taxes. The ratepayer was injured; and immediately a storm of indignation and protest took the place of the sentimental sympathy of the earlier stages. Lord Provost Blackie had been throughout an eager and consistent supporter of the scheme, he had been an active member of the voluntary association which began the work taken up by the Town Council, he pioneered the Bill through Parliament, and he was first chairman of the Improvement Committees. His term of office expired within a few weeks after the imposition of the obnoxious sixpence. He was anxious to return to the Council chiefly that he might continue his work on the Improvement Trust, but to the lasting disgrace of Glasgow, the man who, more than almost any other, did a great work for the health, the moral sweetness, the credit of the City, was rejected by his unrighteously indignant constituents. The vessel which had been so harmoniously constructed, and which was launched smoothly amid the paens of praise thus encountered stormy weather from the very beginning of its beneficient voyage. No longer had the trustees the favouring gale of united public opinion to encourage and urge them on, and within the Council, as well as outside, opinion was much divided, criticism was hot and acrimonious, and obstruction rampant and obstinate.

No doubt a serious blot on the Act was the clause which threw the burden of the rate wholly on occupiers. The powers and provisions of the Act affected property alone, the operations of the trustees could not fail to be beneficial generally to owners of property throughout the City, and nearly all the money they were authorized to expend would find its way into the pockets of landlords and others interested in house property. That from such a burden landlords should be nominally exempt appeared strange, and the circumstance became and remained the one great rock of offence in measure. It was vain to argue, in the presence of so practical a grievance, that all such imposts distribute themselves, and that the first payer is in various ways recouped. Men who have a big tax paper thrust into their
hands do not give much heed to fine spun theories, and the occupiers considered that they were unfairly treated. When their grievance assumed the form of a tax of a farthing it became an affliction which could be borne with much calmer resignation than an impost of 6d. per pound, and since in 1896 the Improvement rate ceased to be levied the difficulty has disappeared.

But though criticised and obstructed the trustees were undeterred. At the close of the first financial year the trustees had received as the proceeds of the sixpence rate a sum of £38,000, they had raised loans to the amount of £144,000, and from rents of properties they received £1500. In the purchase of properties a beginning had been made to the modest extent of £50,000 only. For the second year the rate of assessment was after much discussion fixed at fourpence, and from that time onwards the work of the Trust proceeded on a scale commensurate with the vastness of the task which lay before it. Large sums of money were borrowed, extensive purchases were made, demolition at first went on apace, and builders were found ready to take up building areas at sufficiently remunerative feu duties and ground annuals. The earlier years of these operations coincided with a period of abnormal inflation and excitement in the building trade and the property market. Great fortunes were beginning to be made, on paper chiefly, by speculators in house property. Prices, values, and rents went up by leaps and bounds, and the City Improvement Trustees, now the most extensive owners of house property in the City, shared in the general boom of prosperity. At a time when building speculation was most active and apparently most prosperous, about the end of 1874, and after the Trust had been eight years in active operation, its position and prospects were thus officially stated. On the purchase of property £1,317,700 had been expended, and for the completion of the undertaking it was estimated that a further sum of £184,500 would be required. On the formation of streets, sewers, etc., the expenditure was stated at £70,100, the cost of management, including parliamentary expenses, had been £70,800, and the future management expenses were estimated at £60,000. In purchasing and laying out Alexandra Park £40,000 had in 1871 been expended. Thus the total past and prospective expenditure of the Trust was at this time stated at £1,743,300, let us say almost one million and three quarters sterling. Against this expenditure the column of assets showed as the price of properties sold £229,800, of which £12,000 remained to be paid; the capital value of feu duties and ground annuals created was estimated at £312,400, the ground on hand available for sale was estimated to be worth £886,400, the proceeds of rates till this time were £222,600, and an impost for the next six years at the rate of twopence yearly was expected to realize £125,000. These figures, amounting roundly to £1,776,000, showed that at the close of the period for which rating powers then existed, the period
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moreover at which it was then expected the Trust would be wound up, there would remain a surplus of £33,000, and the Glasgow public would have a splendid park, a fine range of spacious streets, and healthy spaces for the moderate expenditure of £314,000 spread over a period of fifteen years.

Demolition of houses did not begin on any considerable scale till 1870, but between that time and May, 1874, houses which had sheltered 15,425 persons were pulled down. The policy of the Trust was to scatter as far as possible the dislodged population, to encourage the erection of houses suitable for their wants on the outskirts, and in the vicinity of public works where they might find employment. The trustees did not then contemplate the erection of dwellings for the working population, being of opinion that such was the function of private enterprise, and they deemed it impolitic to compete with or in any way discourage the building trade. To become philanthropic landlords they reasoned would be unjust competition with and discouraging to private builders who necessarily sought a return for their investments, and an unfair burden on the citizens generally. The trustees, however, purchased the estates of Overnewton and Oatlands, situated respectively in the western and south-western districts of the City, laying them out for building on a liberal plan; and the sites were speedily bought up and occupied with a good class of dwelling-house.

But there was one class, and that the most abject in the City, the dwellers in lodging-houses, for whom they were impelled by the revelations connected with such establishments to make provision, and hence the erection of public lodging-houses to which subsequent reference will be made. A good deal of trouble was taken by the trustees to discover and record the movements and subsequent housing of the population they displaced. The greater proportion of these had dwelt in single apartments rented at from 2s. 6d. to 3s. 6d. per month, and it was found that about one-third of such tenants went to houses of more than one room. Of those who had occupied two rooms rented at about 5s. monthly the greater part again went to the same accommodation—about 10 per cent. to larger and 17 per cent. to smaller houses. The greater part of those who occupied three and four apartments contented themselves with fewer rooms; but the general conclusion was that the operations of the Trust in all cases led to an increased expenditure for house accommodation to the families removed. For with justice it was remarked, that to speak of three or four apartments when such houses yielded a rent of only from 5s. to 8s. 6d. per month "was a mere fiction and a fiction of a very tragic kind." In the old rooms it was found that the average number of inmates in single apartment houses was 3'6 against 3'3 in the houses to which they removed. In two room houses the average was 4'6 for both old and new, in three room houses there were 4'3 in the old and 4'9 in the new, and the so-called four rooms of the old accommodated 5'6 and new 6'3 inhabitants.
THE IMPROVEMENT TRUST

It will be seen that at the end of 1874 the trustees considered their task, so far as regards the purchasing of property, nearly at an end. For about three years thereafter demolition and clearing went on apace—the bidding for building stances continued to be brisk, the building trade and the house property market appeared to be in a thriving condition. But early in 1878 all business perceptibly slackened, a most uneasy feeling began to spread as to the soundness of building speculations in Glasgow, and bankruptcies became ominously frequent. The crisis and the crash came late in the year with the failure of the City of Glasgow Bank and the commercial confusion which accompanied and followed that great disaster. In the midst of failure, depreciation, and stagnation the Improvement Trustees found themselves the possessors of great areas of cleared land, and a huge aggregate of the meanest and most insanitary property in the City. Their land was unsaleable, much of what they had sold for large prices, and on which costly tenements had been erected, became unprofitable and ultimately was thrown back upon their hands, and they were powerless to amend and improve the properties of which they had become owners. The period, moreover, within which the trustees had power to levy assessments was rapidly approaching expiry, and with seriously depreciated and unrealizable assets, they found themselves in a most awkward dilemma. Raised up to purify and purge the City, to sweep away slums and dens of pestilence, they were, and were forced to remain, the owners of some of the meanest property within the jurisdiction. And how could the Magistrates and Town Council put into force the penalties of the law against private owners of slums and insanitary houses, when they themselves owned such wretched property?

To free the trustees from their pecuniary difficulties further parliamentary powers were clearly indispensable, and the Improvements Amendment Act was consequently passed into law in 1880. In the preamble to this measure the trustees narrate what they had already accomplished, and show the difficulty into which they had come. They had, they say, acquired all the lands they considered necessary under their compulsory powers, and they also had become possessed of various other lands and houses by agreement. They had constructed new streets and altered and diverted others, and they had erected various lodging-houses and dwellings for the poorer classes. They narrate that their power to levy assessments expires in 1881, that they have borrowed on mortgage £1,226,500, and on temporary loans £80,700, that they have spent for purposes of the 1866 Act £1,869,100, less £379,400 received for properties sold by them. They had by the Act been entitled to raise a sum estimated at £516,000 had they levied the maximum rate; but having imposed only sixpence the first year, fourpence the four following years, threepence for two years thereafter, and thenceforth only twopence, they estimated that with the two years' assessment yet to run they would realize
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in all only £373,100. In the course of their dealings they further state that they had in selling land created feu duties and ground annuals to the estimated value of £250,100, and that they have on hand property valued at £791,400. The Act gave the trustees power to borrow £250,000 additional, that is £1,500,000 in all, it removed the limitation of the period of assessment, but reduced the maximum to twopence per pound, and it gave power to dispose of the lodging-houses they had erected to the Magistrates and Council (Police). It also provided for the establishment of a Sinking Fund to come into operation only after the works of the trustees are completed and the properties realized. The fund is to be such as will, within twenty years, pay off the whole of the money then owing by the trustees, and the powers of assessment are to be exercised only for providing that fund and meeting the expenses of managing the Trust. Thus the winding up of the Trust is indefinitely postponed, although its conclusion is, by the terms of the Act, distinctly anticipated.

For about ten years, from 1878 till 1888, the energies of the trustees were largely paralyzed. Efforts to obtain purchasers for vacant building ground, even at reduced prices, were futile, and the trustees had unwillingly to nurse their property, much of it condemned by themselves. But unoccupied land in the heart of a busy city can be nursed only at a ruinous expense. The situation of most of the vacant stances was such as to fit them only for houses for the working people and for the smaller class of shops. But the price at which the ground had been acquired by the Trust rendered it impossible to erect houses which could be cheaply rented, and so a deadlock arose. In the end the trustees were, with great hesitation, forced to exercise the powers which the 1866 Act conferred on them, these being not only to lease or feu their lands, but “to erect buildings thereon, and to dispose thereof and lease the same.” To a small extent, at an early stage, they had exercised their building powers, chiefly with a view of providing models for private builders. In the Drygate they erected two tenements at a cost of £3426. They contained each twelve houses of two rooms, at from £8 10s. to £9 15s. yearly, and seven houses of a single apartment, let at from £5 14s. to £6 10s. Nothing further in house building was done till, in 1888, when, to quote from Bailie Chisholm (Proceedings of the Philosophical Society of Glasgow, 1896), “after long discussions, and with fear and trembling, Block No. 1, east side of Saltmarket, corner of Steel Street, was begun. This was followed by Block No. 2, to the north of No. 1; and thereafter, but specially during the last four years, there have been erected, on vacant ground in most cases, and on the site of ruinous and disreputable tenements in others, buildings consisting of shops and dwelling-houses at a cost of £125,000.”

“Exclusive of tenements that are at present in course of erection in Kirk Street, Calton, Saltmarket, and neighbourhood, the Trust owns considerably
over a thousand dwelling-houses, accommodating a population of nearly 6000. The entire property is superintended by a general manager, who has under him two caretakers. These latter visit regularly and frequently the household property, and see that it is kept in a condition of cleanliness and comfort, and that one or two careless or ill-behaved tenants are not allowed to destroy the peace of the tidy and well-doing."

"It has to be acknowledged that, until quite recently, the Trust did little in the way of erecting cheap dwellings for the very poor. Two explanations may be offered of this admitted fact. First of all, it was thought that a fair, if not a sufficient, provision for this class was already in existence; and, in the second place, the localities in which the alternative of building was first forced upon the Trust were so situated that cheap dwellings were an impossibility, no matter how low the cost of the buildings might be, owing to the price of the ground. But latterly, when the more clamant cases of Saltmarket and Trongate have been dealt with, the Trust has addressed, and is addressing itself, in Rottenrow, and St. James' Road, Stoberross Street, Kirk Street, and Cumberland Street, Calton, to the providing of comfortable and sanitary dwellings for poor people, at an annual rent of from £4 10s. for a well-equipped single room, upwards."

From the earliest stages of their experience the trustees recognized that the necessity lay on them to provide for the dregs of the population which found occasional shelter in the numerous lodging-houses scattered through the wynds and closes. That the majority of these lodgers belonged to or were dangerously associated with the criminal classes, that all were necessarily familiar with vice in its most loathsome form, it is needless to say. These lodging-houses were the homes, the breeding places, the nurseries of the criminal population, and when many of them by purchase fell into the hands of the trustees, and were promptly shut up, the congestion of others only aggravated their condition. The existence of the low lodger class could not be ignored, and that it embraced a large proportion of the ordinary customers of the police constable was no reason why the unfortunates should continue to be the prey of harpies worse than themselves. Consequently it was resolved that lodging-houses should be established under the auspices of the Improvement Trust, in which it would be possible for the very humblest to exist under conditions not inconsistent with decency, cleanliness, and self-respect. In 1870 two such establishments erected by the trustees were opened—one in the Drygate for males, and the other in East Russell Street for women. Since that time these homes have been greatly enlarged, and others at intervals have been built and occupied, till now there are seven Corporation lodging-houses in different districts of the town, giving in all nightly accommodation for 2227 persons. Each lodger has a separate cubicle in a spacious dormitory, a wooden partition seven feet high separating each, and a comfortable bed with daily-aired and weekly-
changed bed-clothes. The air-space in the dormitories allowed to each cubicle at first was 331 feet; in the latest additions it is 435 feet. The dormitories must be vacated every morning at eight o'clock, but the lodger has the right to the use of the establishment for twenty-four hours. He has the use of a kitchen provided with a hot plate, cooking utensils, and dishes, and from a shop within the establishment he can buy such uncooked food as he wishes. A commodious dining-hall is at his disposal, and in each there is an ample and airy day hall and recreation room. When it is added that the lodgers have bath and lavatory accommodation and conveniences for washing and drying clothes, and all this for the modest payment of from 3½d. to 4½d. daily—women's house, 3d. to 4d.—it may look as if the attractions of the institutions are of a superlative order. "The Corporation lodging-houses," says Bailie Chisholm, "have done far more than provided comfortable accommodation for their own residents. They have set up a standard of comfort to which others have been compelled to conform. And now, under the combined influences of this healthy rivalry, and of more stringent sanitary regulations, the old pestilential lodging-houses have disappeared from our midst."

"The latest, and, in some respects," continues the Bailie, "the most interesting, addition to the Trust's lodging-house enterprise is that which, though not yet completed, has already attained considerable notoriety as 'The Family Home.' This is not a home, as many seem to think, in which thriftless, careless fathers and mothers are to be relieved of all responsibility to their children, and allowed or invited to throw the care of them over on a maternal corporation. It is an effort to enable a most deserving class to do better for themselves and their children than without such assistance they could possibly do. If one were asked what class of the community is the most helpless, and stands most in need of guidance and aid, I am sure a very little consideration would suggest this to many as the most likely answer: It is poor labourers who have lost their wives, and have three or four young children, or young widows who are similarly left. Just think what these people have to do. To go out at five or six in the morning is nothing in itself, but then what about their own food, and especially what about their children? Are they to be locked in, or locked out, or left their own masters with an open door? The man may get some woman to look after his children, but all he can afford to give her is such a trifle that in many cases the woman is unsuitable, and proves a curse both to him and his children. Then, when the man comes home, or to turn to the other sex, when the widowed mother comes home, worn out with a day's charring, or some such employment, is it reasonable to expect her to begin and scrub out her house, take her turn at the stair, and attend to all the demands which our modern police regulations properly make? To expect all that is to expect the impossible, and the condition of Glasgow and Glasgow poor to-day is to a large extent
traceable to the unreasonable burdens that are laid on such shoulders, already overtaxed."

"The Family Home is designed for widows, or for widowers with young children. It consists of 160 single rooms, each capable of accommodating one adult and three children. Each room is isolated, plainly furnished, heated with hot water, and lit with electricity. The cleaning therefore will be reduced to a minimum. The children will be taken charge of during the day, those of them of school age will be sent to school, those under it will be taken care of in the home, where a crèche, a general recreation room, and a cooking and dining room are all provided. It is not meant to be a charitable institution. Each resident will pay a daily charge to cover the rent of the room, and the care of, and food for the children. The Family Home is meant to help those who seem to need it most, to spend their little earnings to the best advantage for themselves and for those dependent on them."

It cannot fail to strike the most casual observer that it is in the meanest and most impoverished localities of every town that the whisky shop is found most thickly planted, and apparently most flourishing. It is like a fungus growth which finds its feeding ground in the dark, damp recesses where higher life refuses to exist. In this trade the trustees have neither part nor lot. Among the properties they acquired there were, as might be expected, many licensed houses, which commercially represented a large money value. From the first it was a resolution of the trustees that no license of any kind for the sale of intoxicating liquors should be granted for new premises owned by them, and, as opportunity offered, the licenses held by tenants were withdrawn, till now not a drop of drink can be sold in any building over which they have control.

Concurrently with the operations of the Improvement Trust other agencies have been at work which, in only a lesser degree, have been powerful in sweeping away slums, and forming lungs in the congested and insanitary areas. Chief of these are the great railway works which have been carried through the heart of the City. Right through the centre of several of the very worst areas in the neighbourhood of the Cross, Gallowgate, Saltmarket, and the Bridgegate, the City Union Railway has been formed. The Glasgow and South-Western and the North British, in making their joint depot in the High Street, cleared away the squalid Boar's Head Close, the Vennels, the Havannah and much wretched property lying between the old College and Duke Street, and in the formation of the short Bridgeton line valuable clearances were also made. At several points also the formation of the Caledonian Central Railway has been highly beneficial, especially in the neighbourhood of Glasgow Cross, and again at Stobcross Street, Anderston.

And while the Magistrates and Town Council Improvement Trustees were
engrossed in their duties, improving not only compulsory areas, but also effecting clearances in districts not expressly scheduled in the Acts, the same Council as Police Commissioners were actively employed in similar tasks in other areas. In 1873, and again in 1877, parliamentary powers were conferred on the Police Board to alter, widen, and convert streets, and to form new streets in various parts of the City. The primary object of these measures, undoubtedly, was the improvement of roadways and communication in the various scheduled districts; but incidentally also valuable sanitary improvements were effected under authorized operations, especially in Stobcross Street and the streets which connect it with the Harbour of Glasgow, and in the region of Stirling Road and Dobbie's Loan, and in Castle Street, etc. These improvements were executed at a cost of about £223,000, and in 1894 the Board received the sanction of Parliament to transfer to the Improvement Trustees the properties, feu duties, and ground annuals acquired in connection with the undertakings. Of these properties the trustees became possessed at the price of £103,200.

In the work of ameliorating the domestic life of the poorest, the Improvement Trustees have also not been without private assistance. Various associations have in their own ways set themselves to considering and debating the problem of the better housing of the poor. The Presbytery of Glasgow in a semi-official capacity conducted an inquiry into the subject, out of which there has been, however, no practical outcome. "Slumming" never became a fashionable recreation in Glasgow; but the Ruskin Society, in addition to debating the question largely, has done something to encourage that pursuit, and so also has the Kyrle Society. Well intentioned effort of this kind may result in some individual good; but the real and permanent benefactors are those who raze the rookeries, and who let the free light of heaven into all human dwellings.

Of real importance has been the work of the Glasgow Workmen's Dwellings Company, a body of gentlemen animated with philanthropic motives, but who sensibly endeavour to base their operations on reasonable commercial principles. They seek to provide really good houses for persons in receipt of small wages, and to give them all the comforts that can be legitimately expected for the rents paid. The company owns two tenements of small dwelling-houses in Rottenrow, near the Cathedral: they have renovated four old tenements at Mile-End, in the east; and on the south side in Bolton Street they have transformed a wretched, ill-famed, dilapidated range of houses into well-lighted and ventilated and properly equipped houses. The rents charged range from 2s. weekly for single apartments to 3s. for two-room houses. In all cases these tenements are under the charge of resident caretakers, whose duty it is to see that the tenants are cleanly and decent in their habits and behaviour. The company have spent nearly £17,000 in acquiring and renovating their properties; they have for that about 200 houses, which shelter 600 or 700
persons. Their undertaking, valuable in itself, is of significance in the way of demonstrating that it is possible, feu duty permitting, to provide decent houses for decent people on fairly remunerative terms.

In the meantime also a powerful lever has been put into the hands of the Sanitary Committee of the Police by the Glasgow Police Amendment Act of 1890, under which any house may be declared unfit for human habitation, and shut up under a certificate to that effect under the hand of the Medical Officer, the Sanitary Inspector, and the Master of Works. On such a certificate being issued, a copy is served upon the owner or factor of the property, a court presided over by five members of the Sanitary Committee, at which the certifying officials and the accused landlord or his agent are present. After such investigation and discussion as may be necessary, the order is issued for shutting up the condemned building, due attention being given to the convenience of the unfortunate occupants. The owner has a right of appeal to the sheriff, which appeal must be lodged within five days, and disposed of if possible not more than seven days thereafter. An order when issued may be revoked after it has been demonstrated to the satisfaction of the Health Sub-Committee that the evils which rendered the erection uninhabitable have been cured. Of the value of this provision there can be no question, but awkwardly enough it could have been turned trenchantly against its own authors, who were the unwilling owners of much unsound property. We might have had in Glasgow a practical exposition of the Gilbertian conceit of the same body being the court and the accused, the same counsel would appear in succession on both sides, and the judge would be called on to sentence himself. The dilemma might have been awkward, but meantime, by strenuous efforts, we have set our own house in order, and can with clean conscience call on others to go and do likewise.

Briefly, the financial operations and position of the Trust as at 31st May, 1896, may be stated thus: On the purchase and improvement of lands and buildings there has been expended £1,955,500, and on the erection of tenements and lodging-houses £231,500—in all £2,187,000. Ground has been sold or feu duties created amounting to £1,072,700, and the heritable property in the hands of the Trust is valued at £692,000, showing a deficiency of upwards of £423,000. From assessments there has been raised in twenty-nine years a total of £593,000, and that account may now be regarded as closed, for the rate has now ceased to be levied, and without it the accounts show a balance on the right side, which goes to the credit and reduction of the valuation account. The excess of liabilities over assets in the balance made up in May, 1895, amounted to £98,000, which, added to the total assessments, brings out the whole cost of the gigantic undertaking to this time to be £691,000. For this contribution of £691,000, or a little less than £24,000 yearly, the citizens
have an incalculable improvement in the health, cleanliness, and moral condition of the City; countless lives have been saved, and incalculable aggregate of pain and suffering has been alleviated, and the standard of healthy and comfortable life has been signally elevated. Of tangible material benefits, the Alexandra Park has been added to the City; 30 new streets have been formed, and 26 have been widened and improved, involving a concession of about 100,000 square yards of ground, on which work, together with the covering over the Camlachie and Molendinar burns, £105,000 was spent.

Glasgow was the pioneer city in its improvement policy, and its example has been followed by many others. Possibly our need was the sorest; for that a deadly gangrene was eating into the very heart of the City was obvious, clear also it was that the evil could be alleviated only by the strenuous surgery that had been exercised. The experiences of the Improvement Trustees have taught the Town Council valuable lessons. They led directly to the enactment of the Buildings Regulation Act of 1892, and armed with its powers the Corporation can effectually prevent the recurrence of conditions in any part of the City such as the Improvement Trustees had to face. But there is no finality in City Improvement work. The standard of decency and comfort in house accommodation has been enormously elevated since 1866; every victory won by the sanitarian and by the social reformer only increases their demands and their beneficent pretensions; the poor themselves are awakening to a healthy instinct for improvements, and what is deemed good enough for the close of the nineteenth century will certainly be rejected early in the twentieth. The City Improvement Trustees have still ample work in store for them.
CHAPTER XXIII.

THE WATER SUPPLY. 1. EARLY SOURCES.


A city and district blessed with a rainfall so copious as that which descends on Glasgow and the lower part of Clyde valley cannot be other than well watered. The saintly Kentigern and his followers found water both abundant and pure in the Moleninar Burn, besides a natural spring of sweet water on the steep and rugged bank of the stream. By the side of that spring, it is said, the saint established his cell, and around it to this day rise the venerable and massive grey walls of Glasgow Cathedral. For centuries the pure streams and the clear wells afforded a sufficient water supply for the City. Writing in 1736 M'Ure, the historian, says: "In the City there is plenty of water, there being sweet water wells in several closes of the town, besides sixteen public wells which serve the City night and day, as need requires, all with pumps in them for drawing the water." In the first decade of the nineteenth century the City, with a population of about 100,000 souls, was entirely supplied from wells of which Cleland enumerates and describes thirty in different parts, maintained for public service. In addition there were many private wells, and the sandy nature of the soil over the lower parts of the City permitted an almost indefinite expansion of such primitive sources of water supply. But as the population increased, and as the open spaces were covered with buildings, the limits of well-planting became narrowed, whilst the necessity for water, in counter proportion, in-
creased. The swarming multitude, moreover, loaded the soil with accumu-
lations of filth which percolated downwards and infused deadly contamination
into the water. And what befel the springs also happened to the streams.
The population and manufacturers along their banks and drainage area
increased, land was brought into cultivation, and from every direction in-
creasing proportions of sewage laden water found its way into the water
courses. The change from the sparkling limpid waters of a burn in its
pristine purity, with its wary trout and swarming minnows, to a noisome,
foetid open sewer was but slow, and in that gradual poisoning of the water
sources lurked one of the most subtle evils from which our ancestors in
their ignorance suffered.

It is impossible at this day to realize the hardships, the loss, and the
sufferings entailed on our ancestors at the beginning of the century
through the deadly dearth and impurity of the essential element of water.
One well to supply three thousand persons! if we count not the private wells.
How much this implies of weary waiting for turns to get the household
"stoups" filled with the precious fluid, and how sparingly it would be used
for the primal necessities of life. Ignorance is truly bliss, for had our forefathers
known any better their state would have been simply intolerable. And yet
they accepted the conditions of their existence with cheerfulness, and even
a glamour of poetry and romance attaches to the wells which no poet has,
yet at least, succeeded in throwing around the kitchen spigots. We can
call up in imagination the faithful Nelly of Captain Paton trudging to
the West Port, stoup in hand, to bring one of the constituents of the
famous "bowl" brewed by Lockhart's hospitable old soldier. Suitability for
punch-making appears, indeed, to have been the one fame-giving quality
in Old Glasgow wells; the reputation of the West Port well in this respect
stood highest, and it was so greatly run on that hours had sometimes to
be spent waiting till those first come were served. Next to the West Port
in punch-making qualities came the Deanside well at the foot of Balmano
Brae. Probably neither the West Port nor Deanside, however, equalled
the famous spring in Lochaber, which the natives esteemed the best in all
the Highlands: "A watter that would stand two glass of whisky to one of
watter."

So early as 1775 the necessity for a water supply other than the City
wells was pressingly felt, and in that year a surveyor was employed to examine
and report on probable sources around the City. Nothing came of this move-
ment, nor was there any result of a second survey made a few years later, and
the lapse of time vastly intensified the evils and difficulties. How severely
the population was pinched may be judged from the fact that a private citizen,
Mr. William Harley, in 1804, began the business of water-merchant. About
the year 1800 he had led water from springs in his lands at Willowbank by
pipes to a large reservoir at what is now the intersection of West Nile Street
THE WATER SUPPLY. I. EARLY SOURCES

and Bath Street, and there he had fitted up an extensive and complete range of hot and cold baths for public use—whence the name Bath Street. At the same place also, on the site of what is now a branch of the Technical College, he had established a dairy with accommodation for nearly 300 milch cows, which dairy in its day was one of Glasgow's famous institutions. Without any covert insinuation it may be said that such a stock of cows necessitated a great supply of water. The adventurous Harley found it profitable to sell water without admixture of milk. He sent four wheeled water-carts through the streets, and, selling the prized fluid at the rate of one halfpenny per stoup, is said to have realized thereby no less than £4000 per year.

A population growing at a phenomenal rate, in such dire straits for water, presented a magnificent field for either philanthropic or commercial action. Water the people must have, and to supply the want a Bill, partly municipal in origin and partly promoted by private citizens, was, in 1806, introduced into Parliament and passed into law, whereby was incorporated the Glasgow Water Company, or officially the Company of the proprietors of the Glasgow Water Works. The object of the Company was to raise water from the Clyde at Dalmarnock, about two miles above Glasgow Bridge, and thence supply it to the City and suburbs. The Act empowered the company to raise a capital of £100,000, divided into £50 shares, and it was specially provided that the liability of each subscriber should be limited to the number of his shares. Of these shares the Town Council held throughout twenty, and in the constitution of the Company it was provided that the Lord Provost should ex officio be a member of the Managing Committee. The other original members of the body, nine in addition to the Lord Provost, were nominated in the Act of Parliament.

Under the guidance of James Watt and Thomas Telford, the company at once proceeded to form, on the north bank of the river, filtering beds and ponds, and to erect pumps for raising the water from these ponds to distributing reservoirs in Sydney Street, Drygate, and Rottenrow. The Dalmarnock filters were very soon found to be insufficient, and ground was acquired on the lands of Farme, on the opposite south bank of the river. There an open jointed brick tunnel or culvert was constructed parallel with, but at a lower level, than the bed of the river, and through the sandy banks the water percolated from the Clyde into this tunnel, whence it was led into the subsiding reservoir, and conveyed thence in the bed of the river by a spherical jointed pipe designed by Watt to the pumping station on the north side. Through the river bank into this culvert there percolated on an average about 8,000,000 gallons of water per day, but the quantity varied with the state of the river. The method of filtration was ingenious, but most unsatisfactory. Such as it was, however, it had to do duty for many years as the larger proportion of the potable water of Glasgow, and very considerable quantities were passed into consumption without
undergoing any filtration whatever. Among the many causes which contributed to the bad eminence of Glasgow during the first part of the century in matters of health and vitality, indisputably the chief factor was the wretched water supply.

The Glasgow Water Company was not long left in undisputed possession of statutory powers to distribute and sell water to the citizens. In 1808 an Act was obtained by the Company of Proprietors of the Cranstonhill Water Works for the purpose of raising water from the Clyde at Anderston, about a mile below Glasgow Bridge, thence conveying it to reservoirs at Cranstonhill, then a western suburb, from which to distribute it through Anderston and the City and suburbs of Glasgow. It was, in fact, expressly a rival company working from the west end, as the Glasgow Company worked from the eastern district. The capital of the Cranstonhill undertaking was fixed by statute at the modest total of £30,000 in £50 shares, and power was given to the company to borrow a further sum of £10,000.

For the next thirty years these companies fought each other with unremitting violence, while they also struggled to supply the City with water, a task in which they miserably failed. Between them there never was any question of apportioning the City, and seeking to direct their energies each to meeting the necessities of allotted districts. They laid their pipes side by side along the streets where they had the prospect of many customers, and the remote and sparsely-peopled localities were by both impartially neglected. The Gorbals, on the south side of the river, was a district then rising in population and importance, but neither company at first contemplated the supplying that quarter at all.

The domestic water rates charged against consumers by the Glasgow Company in its early years were 5s. for all rents under £4; between £4 and £6 rents the rate was 6s.; and it was 7s. on rents ranging from £6 to £8. On all rents from £8 upwards the water rate was 5 per cent. on the rent. The water rates of the Cranstonhill Company were on a lower scale for rents from £6 and upwards, the maximum charge being 42s. on rents of £60 or any greater sum. But house rents higher than £60 were not common in Glasgow during the first decade of the century. The companies, be it observed, had no compulsory rating powers—they were entitled to sell to consumers, and to charge all persons who used their water; but they had no authority to levy any rate on the public at large.

The Glasgow Company was a commercial success, and in 1816 the £50 shares were worth £75 each. Not so the Cranstonhill Company, which, during the thirty years of its separate existence, did not in all succeed in making a return to the shareholders of as much as one-hundredth part of its capital stock. The Cranstonhill Company was indeed an unfortunate undertaking. In 1812 they had to get parliamentary powers to increase their capital by £10,000, and to extend their borrowing powers an equal amount. Again, in 1819, they
were compelled to go to Parliament for the more serious undertaking of removing their works from the river below the City to a point above it. City drain age and the refuse of manufactories had in ten years so polluted the water of the Clyde that it was no longer possible to draw drinking water at Anderston, and the Cranstonhill Company were forced to plant their pumps and reservoirs also at Dalmarnock, a little below the works of the rival Glasgow Company.

Thence the water had to be pumped to the reservoirs at Cranstonhill, and to new distributing reservoirs the company formed at Garnethill. All this implied an enormously increased expenditure; consequently the capital was now fixed at £200,000, with £50,000 of borrowing powers. In the same session of Parliament the Glasgow Company also obtained an Act by which their capital and borrowing powers were increased to the same total as that of the Cranstonhill Company. Under these measures the rates the companies were authorized to levy were made uniform. For domestic supply their rates allowed a minimum charge of 10s., and a maximum of £10 yearly on each householder; on rents under £100 at the rate of £7 10s. per cent. per annum; and on rents exceeding £100 the rate was fixed at £5 per cent.

With these enlarged powers the companies did their best to meet the public requirements. But they laboured under great difficulties, and they satisfied few excepting the shareholders of the Glasgow Company, who, after being fairly started, enjoyed a dividend of 7 per cent. per annum, and had the satisfaction of seeing their wealth grow by "unearned increment." The companies did not foresee that the City was to increase with the potentous rapidity which was its experience in the early half of the century. They had a source of supply which at best cannot have been free from suspicion from the very first, and which year by year was increasingly polluted, till it became the foul thing we now know. The methods of filtration adopted were rough, and could afford no protection against the subtle influences of tainted water. Every gallon they disposed of had to be pumped up at great expense to a considerable elevation, and all the higher parts of the City were but intermittently and imperfectly supplied. In elevated situations where the water would not come to the people, the people had to go to the water. Under these conditions it was impossible to look on the work of the companies as other than a stop gap, and the question of greater and purer sources of supply was frequently under public consideration.

In 1829, ten years after the companies obtained their enlarged powers, the Town Council became the mouthpiece of public complaints regarding the deficiency of the water supply, and specially, on their own account, they complained that the companies neglected their statutory duties of keeping the water pipes full by night with a view to fire extinction. Strong in the letter of the law, and spurning its spirit, the Water Companies defied the Council. They pointed out that their statutory obligations were to allow water to be
drawn from their pipes for Fire Brigade purposes; but that did not impose on them the duty of keeping water in these pipes. Consequently the Fire Brigade, equally with thirsty citizens, had to take their chance of finding, by night, the element needed for their wants.

After twenty-five years of competition with the Glasgow Company, and of ministering to a thankless and unremunerative public, the directors of the Cranstonhill Company concluded they had enough of the enterprise, and in 1833 the rivals agreed to the heads of an Amalgamation Bill. The project excited the most lively opposition on the part of the Town Council, who viewed with dread the prospect of a monopoly in the supply and sale of so necessary an element of life as water. Notwithstanding the attitude of the Council the Bill was promoted; but the project was defeated. The companies undismayed returned to the charge; and thereon in the reformed Town Council the proposal that the water supply of the City should be under the sole control of the Council was first enunciated. In March, 1834, a motion was submitted by Mr. Henry Dunlop, which inter alia embraced this resolution: "That the election of the Town Council being now vested in a very large constituency, it would be for the benefit of the public that the works for supplying the City with water should be conducted under their control—that they should belong to the Corporation, and that the profits should be applied to public purposes."

Mr. Dunlop's resolution was favourably entertained and reported on, and in due time the companies were approached, who, however, declined to part with their privilege of supplying water to the public. Again, in 1836, the companies were in Parliament seeking amalgamation, and thereupon the resolutions of the Town Council took shape. They also submitted a Bill for acquiring the water works and placing them under a public board. The Council's Bill was effective as a fighting weapon, and resulted in the withdrawing of both measures.

For a third time the persistent companies in 1838 approached Parliament seeking amalgamation. Again the Town Council opposed; but whether the heart was taken out of the opposition, or whether, as in the scriptural parable, Parliament was weary of their much importunity, may not now be decided. Sufficient to say that the companies got their Act, and thenceforward there was but one company in the north side of Glasgow. The Act was fettered with important restrictions and provisions in the public interests. The preamble declared that by amalgamation it would be possible to supply more and better water at a lower price than under the competition of the two companies. To make the promise effective the amalgamated company became bound to supply occupiers with good wholesome water at a rate not exceeding £6 10s. per cent. upon rental, with a deduction of one-tenth when the rent exceeded £5, and at a rate not exceeding 5s. on all rents at or under £5. The maximum leviable from any single
occupier was fixed at £10, and the minimum at 5s. in any one year. The company was also bound to supply for the cleansing of the streets, etc., water in such quantities as the Police Commissioners should require, up to a maximum of 2,000,000 gallons yearly at the rate of 10d. per thousand gallons. The Act also contained provision for the supply of manufacturers and other special consumers of water.

The Glasgow Water Company was not long left in undisturbed enjoyment of their water monopoly. The water supplied was neither good in quality nor sufficient in quantity. In 1838 the total daily supply appears to have been about 6,000,000 gallons, equal to an allowance of 26 gallons per head to a population of 250,000 persons, and all that was drawn from a rapidly deteriorating river. The public were uneasy and dissatisfied, and the company were compelled to seek other and better sources. From the time when amalgamation was first suggested many projects and surveys of possible areas of supply had been made, partly at the instance of the Town Council, partly by the companies, and partly by adventurers moved by philanthropic motives or the prospect of gain. In 1845 the floating schemes were brought to the test of parliamentary investigations. No fewer than three Bills dealing with the water supply were in this year prepared for presentation to Parliament. A company was formed to promote a scheme for bringing water from Loch Katrine, in the Perthshire Highlands, a bold and original project for diverting the distant waters of the Forth into the Clyde. This great pioneer measure, suggested by Lawrence Hill and Lewis Gordon—their names deserve to be graven in brass—was taken up with vigour and enthusiasm, and only withdrawn when the Water Company in possession gave assurance of their good faith in pushing a still bolder scheme to tap the more distant Loch Lubnaig, for which purpose they deposited a Bill. That measure was opposed by the Town Council, not on its preamble, but on a subsidiary clause which was adjusted to the satisfaction of all parties, and it passed into law in 1846. Having got their Act the water company found it entirely impracticable owing to the amount of compensation water they became bound to send down the river Teith for the satisfaction of millowners and of other water-rights on that stream. Consequently the Act joined the melancholy company of "dead letters."

But simultaneously a third measure was under parliamentary consideration, the provisions of which proposed to meet the necessities of the inhabitants of the Gorbals and other districts on the south side of the river more adequately than had hitherto been done. The Gorbals Water Bill was promoted to supply water, pure and wholesome, to Gorbals, Pollokshaws, and Govan, and to places intermediate and adjacent in the counties of Lanark and Renfrew. Notwithstanding the strenuous opposition of the Glasgow Water Company, who considered the Bill to be an invasion of their rights,
the measure was passed into law, and the Gorbals Gravitation Water Company began operations. As the works of that company still form an important integral part of the water supply works of Glasgow they may be briefly described.

Gorbals became an integral part of municipal Glasgow in the same year that the Gorbals Water Company was incorporated. At that time the population south of the Clyde was between sixty and seventy thousand persons. The powers obtained by the company enabled them to impound the water of the Brock or Brockburn and its tributaries. The drainage area amounts to about 2,560 acres, lying at a height of between three and four hundred feet above the sea in the parishes of Mearns, Eastwood, and Neilston in Renfrewshire, about six miles to the south-west of the City boundary. The capital of the company was fixed at £120,000, with borrowing powers to the extent of £40,000. The maximum rate for domestic supply was limited to one shilling per pound of rental, and the company was restricted to dividends of 7 per cent. per annum. The Gorbals water was turned on in 1848, and being incomparably better than that of the Glasgow Company, it was generally favoured by residents in the south side, with the result that the income of the Glasgow Company immediately suffered a reduction of £4,000. In 1850 the Gorbals Company obtained an Act to increase their capital by £30,000 in shares and £10,000 in mortgages, with the purpose of bringing Rutherglen, Barrhead, Nitshill, Hurlie, and other places within their limits of supply, but these powers were not exercised. A third Act was obtained in 1853 renewing the powers of the Act of 1850, and adding the town of Renfrew to the area of supply.

On more than one occasion schemes were elaborated for greatly extending the gathering area controlled by the Gorbals Company. In the final contest before Parliament in 1855 the Gorbals supply scheme was brought into serious competition with the Loch Katrine scheme promoted by the City. By the supporters of the Gorbals Company it was computed that a maximum of 30,500 acres of gathering ground could be secured in the upper reaches of the river Cart, with its tributaries the Levern Water and the Earn Water, which would be sufficient to yield a daily supply of thirty millions of gallons. It was asserted on behalf of this scheme that the thirty millions of gallons per day could be obtained at less cost than the same quantity from Loch Katrine, while the expenditure would be incurred gradually as the necessities of supply increased. But there were many objections to the scheme, among which were its ultimate insufficiency and the confessed discoloured and indifferent quality of much of the water. Fortunately for Glasgow the Town Council gave undivided adhesion to the Loch Katrine scheme, and the Gorbals proposals were rejected.

The area from which the Gorbals water is drawn continues to be the same as it was previous to the passing of the Loch Katrine Act. The water
is collected into four reservoirs lying from 352 feet to 296 feet above sea level. The water areas of these reservoirs are respectively 153½ acres, 47¾ acres, 21 acres, and 4 acres, and their entire capacity is almost a hundred and seventy thousand millions cubic feet, equal to a daily supply of five million four hundred and fifty thousand gallons for 194 days. It was computed that the catchment area would prove sufficient, in a dry year, to yield that quantity daily, and on this basis the compensation water was fixed at one fourth of the total yield. The compensation water passed down the stream for the use of the lower proprietors amounts to 1,450,000 gallons daily, and the amount drawn off for public consumption ranges from 4,000,000 to 5,000,000 gallons, which principally goes to supply the wants of the population lying between the reservoirs and Glasgow, with the southern suburbs Barrhead Govan, and Renfrew.

The upper and by far the largest of the series of reservoirs, Balgray, is that into which the major portion of the water passes, and in which it settles before being carried down to the lower reservoirs and thence to the filter-beds. An artificial channel has been constructed along the margin of this reservoir for discharging the flood water, and as it passes the others lower down, arrangements were made whereby they also could be filled from it, and that is sometimes done when the weather is dry and the water clear. From the lowest reservoir the water is conducted by a stone conduit, 340 yards long to the filters. At the time of the transference of the works to the City these occupied an area of 3823 square yards, and were much too limited for the efficient filtration demanded by modern notions. Since 1877 the filtering area has been increased to 7842 square yards, and over that area there is a bed of 30 inches of Arran sand, 4½ inches of gravel, and 18 inches of broken sandstone, through which all the water distributed for consumption has to pass. From the filters the water passes into the clear water tanks, of which there are three, two at a level of 240 feet above ordnance datum and one at 295 feet above datum, with a combined capacity of a little more than 5,000,000 of gallons.

In the later years of their existence the Glasgow and Gorbals Companies were able to supply, jointly, about 13,500,000 gallons daily to a population which numbered from 350,000 to 400,000 souls. A supply which considerably exceeded 30 gallons per head cannot, in the light of the conditions of great urban populations generally, be regarded as defective in quantity, and it was not in that direction that the great want of the citizens of Glasgow lay. By the time the Loch Katrine Bill received sanction the condition of the Clyde had become alarming; there cannot be a doubt that the water supplied by the Glasgow Company was poisoning the inhabitants, and the untainted water of the Perthshire lakes was not turned on a day too soon. In March, 1860, the Corporation Commissioners were able to turn off the river water as a source of domestic supply for ever.
Water from the River Clyde is, however, still used for manufacturing purposes. Under Acts of Parliament obtained in 1866, 1873, and 1879 arrangements were made and carried out for removing the weir which used to stand across the river a little above Hutchesontown Bridge, and for supplying Clyde water to manufacturers from a public system of pumping-engines, reservoirs, and distributing pipes. This public supply takes the place of the private suction pipes and pumps owned by a number of firms whose premises lay near the river. Much of the original private machinery for drawing water from the Clyde became ineffective through the lowering of the level of the water consequent on the removal of the weir. The public supply was partly to compensate for this loss. The pumping station and reservoirs are situated at Westthorn, on land immediately to the east of that owned by the Corporation, and occupied by the Belvidere Hospital. The works consist of an engine-house containing two separate condensing horizontal pumping engines of 80 horse-power each, together with the necessary boilers and relative appliances. These engines raise water from the river into two reservoirs with a total capacity each of about four millions of gallons. The top-water level of these reservoirs is at a sufficient elevation to enable the water to be delivered into tanks placed at convenient heights above the ground within works situated in the districts of Bridgeton, Hutchesontown, etc., where it is intended to be used. The water is distributed from the reservoirs by a large main with suitable branches. The leading main is at first 42 inches in diameter, it goes from Westthorn by way of Springfield Road, Dalmarnock Road, and Adelphi Street to Main Street, Bridgeton. Here it is diminished to 36 inches diameter. It continues down Newhall Street and across Glasgow Green to the Clyde opposite Govan Street. The main here crosses the river, and is continued along Govan Street to Crown Street where it ends. The diameter on the south side is gradually diminished from 36 ins. to 12 ins.

The amount of water delivered by these works is over two-and-a-half millions of gallons per working day. The price to ordinary consumers is 15s. per 100,000 gallons, being rather less than half the price of Loch Katrine water. To certain firms whose interests were specially protected by the Acts of Parliament the price is fixed for definite quantities at 5s. 6d. per 100,000 gallons.
CHAPTER XXIV.

THE WATER SUPPLY. II. LOCH KATRINE.


In 1845 no fewer than three great schemes for supplying Glasgow with water were in the field. There were the Gorbals scheme, successfully promoted, as we have already seen; a Loch Katrine scheme, ardently advocated by a body of citizens; and a competing Loch Lubnaig scheme, put forward by the Glasgow Water Company, doubtless in good faith, and not the less heartily supported by the company because it would prove an effective weapon against its rivals, which indeed it did in the case of the Loch Katrine Bill, that measure being withdrawn; and in 1846 the measure promoted by the Gorbals Company and the Loch Lubnaig Bill of the Glasgow Water Company received royal sanction. As already mentioned, the Loch Lubnaig scheme proved impracticable, and the failure of the company to carry out the project convinced the Town Council that the time for municipal action had come: that the public interest was no longer safe in the hands of private companies. At the same time that these water bills were being locally discussed and formulated a special committee of the Town Council reported, with reference to both gas and water works, that it would be a great public benefit if both enterprises were taken out of the hands of private joint-stock companies, and placed under the control and management of the Magistrates and Council, or of Commissioners on behalf of the public. No immediate action followed on this report; but again, in 1850, Lord Provost
Sir James Anderson moved, "That notice be given of a Bill to take over the works of both the existing (Glasgow and Gorbals) water companies."
Sir James Anderson's motion was defeated, and once more, in 1851-52, a private company, formed to bring water from Loch Katrine, approached the Council with a request that the Corporation should undertake the management of the water supply as a trust or commission controlling a distinct fund to be raised by debenture or mortgage on the rates. In March, 1852, Professor Macquorn Rankine and Mr. John Thomson, C.E., the engineers who had been consulted by the promoters of this Loch Katrine scheme, addressed a remarkable letter to the Council, in which the advantages of a Loch Katrine supply were pointed out with singular terseness and lucidity, and in which the practicable character of the undertaking was clearly demonstrated. In the subsequent discussion of this project Sir James Anderson maintained his former opinion "that they would never have a better supply in Glasgow, unless the Corporation took it boldly up, and worked out a scheme of their own." He and others stood out for municipal proprietorship as well as management. The matter was then remitted to a committee, whose report, unanimously adopted in both committee and Council, determined the question. "It appears to this committee," so runs their pronouncement, "to be most desirable that the power of supplying the City with water should be vested in the Magistrates and Council, as a separate trust for the benefit of the inhabitants, rather than in any private company."

Once committed to the principle, the action of the Town Council was swift and decisive. John Fredrick Bateman, C.E., was appointed consulting engineer to the Council in December, 1852, and in March, 1853, he reported that the Loch Lubnaig project, again promoted by the Glasgow Water Company, the only one then in the field, was "not the cheapest nor the best." The Town Council opposed the Company's Bill on these grounds, as well as on the principle that the supplying of water should be vested in the Corporation, and the measure was thrown out. In the meantime, in accordance with the approved recommendation of the committee above mentioned, the Town Council passed a resolution, "That at the earliest possible period the necessary steps should be taken, by the introduction of a Bill into Parliament in the next session, and otherwise, for vesting the power of supply in the Magistrates and Council, and for obtaining that supply from the best source." Mr. Bateman thereupon continued his investigations, going on the assumption that a suitable scheme must immediately yield from twenty to twenty-five millions of gallons per day, and be capable of large extension to meet the anticipated increase of population. He found the Endrick, Allander, and Duchray all deeply stained with peat during rainy seasons; and of the lochs he significantly said: "Notwithstanding the heavy rains which have darkened Loch Lomond and Loch Lubnaig,
and rendered their waters distinctly though slightly brown, Loch Katrine remains clear, cold, and bright, and all but absolutely colourless."

Loch Katrine being thus singled out in the north, Mr. Bateman turned his attention to the drainage areas of the south. Of the Clyde, after a lengthened period of rain in warm weather, he says: "I never saw running stream so darkly stained as the Clyde at Hyndford Bridge, and its tributaries below that point. As seen in the streams the water is as dark as strong clear coffee in a coffee cup; and I much doubt if any filtration that could practically be carried out would effectually remove the colour." Upon the Gorbals water district he said that it might yield at an outside estimate from twenty-five to thirty million gallons daily, but some proportion of that water was of doubtful quality, and the resources of the region were not sufficient to make it a satisfactory source. He was compelled to fall back upon Loch Katrine, and with forcible brevity he exclaims: "Loch Katrine seems to stand alone in the field. No other source will meet all the requirements of the case."

Mr. Bateman's opinion was strongly buttressed by that of Dr. Robert Angus Smith, a distinguished chemist. He pointed out that the geological formation of the district is metamorphic rock, principally mica slate, smooth and hard, scarcely at all friable, and containing almost nothing soluble in water. Even at flood times the tributary streams hold little matter in suspension, and almost no inorganic matter in solution. The loch he regarded as "a depositing reservoir sufficiently large for the purification of the most turbid stream, its great surface exposure answering the purpose of a filter to a large extent. But the great mass of entering water requires no purification; and it is probable that any coloured matter entering would probably be lost in the enormous amount of the colourless portion, and become pure without any further process. The streams are themselves clear, and after lying quietly in the lake become brilliant." "No town," continues Dr. Smith, "will have an equal abundance of such remarkably pure water." Leaving out of account the incalculable sanitary blessings derivable from the use of water such as that under consideration, Dr. Smith, in his report, alluded to the enormous advantages the supply of pure soft water would confer on many industries. He specially singled out the bleaching and calico-printing trades of the district, and indicated that it would not only cheapen processes but greatly improve results. In the same connection it may be noted that, after the water was introduced, Mr. Bateman estimated the saving in domestic articles effected by reason of its softness and purity at a sum equal to the whole water-rate. These articles included soap, tea, and coffee. The saving in soap he placed at £30,000 annually. Careful returns, he said, showed that nearly one-half of the soap formerly used would suffice.

A Bill, based on the reports of Mr. Bateman and Dr. Angus Smith, was introduced into Parliament in session 1854. It might be thought that a
scheme so strongly recommended would meet with no public opposition; but, on the contrary, the battle of the Bill was fought with obstinate bitterness. It was denounced in ward meetings as unjust and oppressive, and calculations of the cost of the scheme ran up to half-a-crown per pound of rental as a probable water-rate. In the committee of the House of Commons a mine was sprung on the promoters by Professor Fredrick Penny, of the Andersonian University, Glasgow, who, founding on the marked purity of the water, alleged that it dissolved lead with great energy, and stated that his experiments pointed to the conclusion that led and stored in lead pipes and cisterns the water would be exceedingly hazardous to use and indeed highly poisonous. Penny’s sensational evidence in the parliamentary committee occasioned an adjournment of the inquiry, and much expert testimony was obtained to show that the inferences and fears based on his experiments were entirely groundless. Although his assertions gave rise to a good deal of popular excitement, it is a remarkable fact that the matter never again was even mentioned in the parliamentary committees. During the adjournment the Lords of the Admiralty interposed against the scheme, alleging that the abstraction of so much water from the Teith would interfere with the navigation of the Forth. The latter, being a sluggish stream which brought down much silt, required, it was asserted, the added waters of the Teith to keep the navigation open, and that could not be done if one-half of the Teith water coming from the lochs was withdrawn. On behalf of the promoters it was shown that the alleged one-half could in no case be more than one-sixth; that fifty million gallons sent daily to Glasgow would not amount to one-four-hundredth part of the water passing Stirling in heavy floods; that when the lochs were refilling after a drought, the diminution of the river at Stirling would not be more than one-fortieth or one-fiftieth part; and that in dry weather the volume of the river would, by compensation water, actually be increased. The interposition of the Admiralty, nevertheless, was effective in procuring the rejection of the measure.

A Bill, to all intents and purposes the same, was again promoted in 1855. In the meantime, Messrs. Stephenson & Brunel had confirmed Mr. Bateman’s report; the Town Council had arranged to compensate the Commissioners for the Forth Navigation for any damage which might arise to the navigation of that river with a payment of £7000; the owners of salmon fisheries were satisfied; the Gorbals Water Company agreed to accept 6 per cent. upon their capital stock of £180,000; arrangements were made with opposing inhabitants in Gorbals, and with landlords; the chemical objection was pronounced baseless; and an understanding had been arrived at with the landed proprietors affected by the scheme. The Bill, so buttressed, passed the House of Commons; in the Committee of the House of Lords only a burlesque of opposition was made; and the measure received the royal assent on 2nd July, 1855. The parliamentary struggle cost the City nearly £26,000, a large
sum, but not too much for the priceless benefit it secured to a great community. Under the Act, skilfully piloted through many difficulties and much opposition, the Magistrates and Council were appointed Water Commissioners, with power to delegate their executive authority to "The Water Committee." The payment to the Gorbals Company was fixed as above stated: that of the Glasgow Company, as arranged by subsequent arbitration, was 4½ per cent. upon their ordinary stock of £303,700, and 6 per cent. upon their preference stock of £41,680. The compensation to both companies took the form of perpetual annuities of about £27,000.

The chain of lakes over which the Act of 1855 empowered the Glasgow Town Council to exercise authority comprised Loch Katrine, Loch Achray, Loch Vennachar, and Loch Drunkie. The natural drainage of these is into the River Teith, the overflow from Loch Katrine passing into Loch Achray, which in its turn drains into Loch Vennachar, into which also the channel from Loch Drunkie runs. The water scheme was planned to take the supply for Glasgow from Loch Katrine alone, leaving to the other lakes the task of providing the compensation water to be run down the River Teith. Power was given to convert the basin of Loch Katrine into a large reservoir by raising the level of the water 4 feet above the summer level, and draining it down 3 feet below that level, thus giving a supply of 7 feet from a superficial area of 3058.7 acres. For impounding compensation water it was not necessary to interfere at all with Loch Achray, but the Commissioners were empowered to raise Loch Vennachar 5 feet 9 inches above summer level, and draw off water to 6 feet lower than that level, giving 11 feet 9 inches over an area of 1025 acres. Loch Drunkie they were authorized to raise 25 feet over a water area of 138 acres. The drainage area of Loch Katrine is 23,192 acres, and that of Loch Vennachar with Loch Achray and Loch Drunkie is a little greater, being over 24,600 acres. For the supply of the City the Commissioners were restricted from taking any greater quantity any one day than 50,000,000 gallons, and they became bound to send daily down the Teith compensation water in amount not less than 6,480,000 cubic feet, or 40,500,000 gallons.

As a source of water the Loch Katrine district has the valuable characteristic of lying within one of the wettest regions in the United Kingdom. The air laden with moisture from the Atlantic Ocean strikes against the high hills which lie around and to the west of Loch Katrine, and so cooling down, precipitates vast sheets of rain. Careful records of the rainfall at numerous points in the drainage area have been kept since the passing of the 1855 Act, which show that the average annual fall ranges from about 60 to 95 inches. At Glengyle, at the upper end of Loch Katrine, the annual amount of rain frequently exceeds 100 inches, while in specially wet years it has been found to rise to nearly 130 inches, and its average over a long series of years is about 92 inches of rain. With a rainfall so copious falling on steep and hilly ground
little soil is formed, the rocky skeleton of the earth is comparatively bare, and a large proportion of the water which falls finds its way rapidly and with little loss from evaporation into the several lake reservoirs.

The total length of the aqueduct constructed under the 1855 Act is about 34 miles. At Mugdock Castle, 26 miles from the loch, a reservoir 60 acres in extent, and having a capacity of 488,700,000 gallons, was constructed, and from this store, the surface level of which is 317 feet above the level of the sea, the water is conveyed in cast-iron pipes into the City.

The aqueduct outlet is situated about 5 miles above the lower or Trossachs end, and 3 miles from the upper or Glengyle end of the loch. The aqueduct, which is formed by tunnelling through primitive rocks to the length of 11 $\frac{3}{4}$ miles, and by masonry to a length of 10 $\frac{1}{4}$ miles in open cuttings and over bridges has a diameter of 8 feet, with a fall of 10 inches per mile, and across the Duchray, Endrick, and Blane Valleys the water is carried 3 $\frac{3}{4}$ miles in cast-iron syphon pipes, having a fall of 5 feet per mile. It was calculated that the aqueduct would be sufficient ultimately to convey 50,000,000 gallons of water to the City daily, while the 4-feet cast-iron pipes, with their fall of 5 feet per mile, should, according to calculation, each have had a capacity of 20,000,000 gallons only. Both these estimates were falsified in experience. The jagged edges of the tunnelled portions of the aqueduct were found to have a retarding influence on the flow, which reduced the maximum capacity to about 42,000,000 gallons daily, while conversely the smooth and glassy surface given to the interior of the cast-iron pipes by pitch coating increased their carrying capacity to nearly 30,000,000 gallons per day. On the one hand, the period when it became necessary to duplicate the pipes was deferred; but, per contra, the expanding City of Glasgow approached much more rapidly to a balance of consumption and total carrying capacity than was dreamt of in the early years of the new supply.

In describing the works before the British Association at Aberdeen in 1859, Mr. Bateman said: "Of the 26 miles which lie between Loch Katrine and the service reservoir, 13 miles are tunnelling, 3 $\frac{3}{4}$ miles are iron piping, and the remainder, where the ground has been cut open, is an arched aqueduct of 8 feet in diameter, having the same inclination as the tunnels. Where the ground has been excavated it is filled in again over the aqueduct, which is covered throughout, and the surface restored to its original condition.

"There are in the whole work seventy distinct tunnels, upon which forty-four vertical shafts have been sunk for facilitating and expediting the completion of the work. The first tunnel commences immediately upon the aqueduct leaving Loch Katrine. It is 2325 yards in length, 600 feet below the summit of the hill, and has been worked, in addition to the open ends,
by twelve shafts, five of which are nearly 500 feet deep. The tunnel is in gneiss and mica slate. The last tunnel is at the southern extremity of the aqueduct, just before it enters the service reservoir. It is 2650 yards in length, almost wholly through whinstone, at a depth of 250 feet below the summit of the hill."

The works were begun in May, 1856; on the 14th of October, 1859, her Majesty Queen Victoria turned on the water at Loch Katrine; and in March, 1860, the public supply was inaugurated. The whole cost of the undertaking, as completed at that time, was £920,000, made up of £771,500 for aqueduct, syphon pipes, reservoir, two mains to the City, and the necessary re-arrangement of the piping through the streets, etc.; £79,000 for lands and compensations; parliamentary expenses, £27,500; and engineering and office expenses, £42,000.

Within less than ten years it became necessary to increase the supply of water brought into the City. The built and tunnelled portions of the aqueduct had, as we have seen, a much greater carrying capacity than the syphon pipes and the cast-iron troughs over the bridges, and it was therefore only necessary to add to these latter works. In 1864 the height of the cast-iron troughs over the bridges was increased so as to make them sufficient to carry the whole flow of water through the built and tunnelled aqueducts. In 1868 a second line of syphon pipes was carried over the Duchray, Endrick, and Blane Valleys, the pipe in the Duchray Valley being like its companion, 48 inches in diameter; while, in the other two, 36-inch pipes were laid. The demand for water continued to increase apace, and soon it became necessary to further add to the syphon piping, so as to bring into the Mugdock reservoir the full quantity the aqueducts were calculated to carry. Accordingly a third line of syphon pipes across the three valleys had to be provided, and in October, 1875, a 48-inch pipe was stretched across the Blane Valley. This was followed, in January, 1877, by a pipe of similar gauge over the Endrick Valley, and in January, 1882, the system was completed by running a syphon 42 inches in diameter over the Duchray Valley. Now it was that the mains leading from the reservoir into the City were insufficient to deliver the needed supply, and accordingly, between 1873 and 1880, two additional 36-inch mains, the high and the west district mains, were completed. With the furnishing of these the whole length of pipes of 36-inch gauge and upwards, in connection with the Loch Katrine supply, amounted to more than 44½ miles. The cost of these additions to the supply was £290,500. In the same interval £222,000 had been spent on new pipes in the City and the district, and on the improvement of the Gorbals filters £21,500 had been expended. The capital expenditure on works since the initiation of the Loch Katrine undertaking therefore, till 1880, reached £1,454,000.

Into the details of the distribution within the City considerations of space
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as well as the technical nature of the subject forbid us to enter. Originally the water was conveyed to the City in two 36-inch mains; but between 1873 and 1880, as already stated, two additional 36-inch pipes were laid between the service reservoir and the area of distribution. The whole lie side by side for 3 miles till Canniesburn is reached, at which point one pair goes off to enter the City by the Garscube Road, and onwards to the top of New City Road. Here this pair separate, and one of them takes the supply to Springburn, St. Rollox, Dennistoun, and the other higher levels on the north of the City. The second carries the water to the middle levels of the City as far as Parkhead, Shettleston, and Tollcross on the north side of the river, and to Rutherglen, Crosshill, and the high levels on the south of the Clyde. The second pair pass southwards from Canniesburn to Anniesland, when separating one enters the City by the Great Western Road, supplying the whole of the low-lying central portion of the City, and the other passing down to the Dumbarton Road supplies Partick; it is continued to Bridgeton, which district it supplies, and crossing the river it also provides for all the low-lying parts of the southern districts.

When the service reservoir was constructed at Mugdock, the water being at a level of 317 feet above the sea, it was anticipated that the whole population could be supplied by gravitation. And such, indeed, would have been the case within the limits of compulsory supply had builders been content to occupy the moderate elevations which previous to 1860 were built over. But the district of Springburn, which rises to an altitude of about 360 feet above the sea, at a point where a day supply cannot be depended on higher than 210 feet, was gradually occupied with dwellings, and it became necessary to pump water into an elevated reservoir for local supply. This task was undertaken by the Barony Parochial Board in their capacity as Local Authority, and by them two reservoirs of a joint capacity of 2,787,000 gallons were erected at an elevation of 369 feet above the sea, into which water was pumped from a receiving tank at a lower level of 209 feet. A supply equal to 12 days' consumption was thus provided for the necessities of the district. In the same way the wants of the Hogganfield district, 3 miles east of the City bounds, were provided for by pumping water into a reservoir of 340,000 gallons capacity at an elevation of 358 feet above the sea. These works were transferred to the Water Commissioners in 1892.

In a report to the Town Council, drawn up in 1855 by the engineers, Stephenson & Brunel, it was estimated that about the year 1900 the population to be supplied might number 760,000, and the consumption of water would then amount to 30,000,000 gallons daily. Three years later Mr. Bateman, calculating that the population would increase at the rate of 25 per cent., and the water consumption 35 per cent., each ten
years, arrived at the conclusion that about 1882 the population to be served would be 775,000, and that the consumption of the rate of 36½ gallons per head would be under 29,000,000 gallons per day.

Experience of the year 1882 demonstrated that the population served numbered 762,000, that the consumption for domestic purposes was 36'65 gallons, and for manufacturing purposes 14'25 gallons—in all just under 51 gallons per head per day. These figures brought the total daily consumption to beyond 38,000,000 gallons, a quantity coming perilously near the maximum obtainable from Loch Katrine and the Gorbals jointly. The former could not be depended on for more than 40,000,000 gallons per day, and from the Gorbals works only between 4,000,000 and 5,000,000 gallons could be drawn.

From these circumstances it was evident that the time had arrived, and that much earlier than by any authority anticipated, when it became necessary to provide for an increased supply, and in 1885 an Act of Parliament was obtained to enlarge the authorized supply from the Loch Katrine region. That Act gave power to the Water Commissioners to raise the level of Loch Katrine 5 feet additional, which, with the 4 feet obtained under the 1855 Act, and the power to drain off to 3 feet below the summer level, gave the Commissioners control over 12 feet vertical of water, and it further brought Loch Arklet into the field of supply. Arklet is a comparatively small lake which, although only lying 1000 yards from the margin of Loch Katrine, and 83 yards higher up, yet belongs to the Clyde basin, seeing it drains into Loch Lomond. Power was obtained to raise the level of Loch Arklet 25 feet, and to carry its water into Loch Katrine by means of a tunnel through the hill. The effect of these provisions in the storage of water available for the City supply may be thus stated: Loch Katrine has now a water area of 30587 acres; an addition of 5 feet to the water level will increase that area by 91½ acres, or precisely to 3150.19 acres, and raise its water capacity from 5624 millions of gallons by 4225 millions to a total capacity of 9849 millions of gallons. To this increase must be added the total capacity of Loch Arklet, with an area of 409.38 acres, and a water storage of 2059 millions of gallons, giving for the Loch Katrine works a total ultimate reservoir capacity of 11,908 millions of gallons, say roughly 12,000 millions of gallons available for consumption. To that amount add the storage capacity of the Gorbals works, 1058 millions of gallons, we have a storage of water for consumption equal to about 13,000 millions of gallons, against a storage under the 1855 Act equal to only 6682 millions of gallons. In effect then the store of water on which Glasgow can draw will be doubled when the powers obtained under the 1885 Act are fully exercised.

The further undertakings sanctioned consist practically of a duplication of the entire works from the loch to the City—new outlet, new tunnels, new
aqueduct and bridges, new syphon pipes, new storage reservoir, and new mains to the various points in the area of supply. While the old aqueduct was 25\(\frac{3}{4}\) miles long from the loch to Mugdock reservoir, the new works between the same points being carried from the loch to Craigmaddie reservoir by the side of Mugdock reservoir will, owing to the straight line in which they are carried, be only 23\(\frac{1}{2}\) miles long. And while the old aqueduct, measuring 8 feet by 8 feet, conveys not more than 42,000,000 gallons, the new structure, 10 to 12 feet wide, and 9 feet to 9 feet 6 inches high, will be capable of passing not less than 70,000,000 gallons per day. The huge new service reservoir, Craigmaddie, is constructed to contain 694,000,000 gallons per day, while the Mugdock structure holds not more than 488,700,000 gallons.

Both aqueducts for long stretches run parallel and side by side, though the more direct course of the new work separates them at some points as much as a mile and a half. In the meantime the raising of the water in the loch to the extent of 5 feet, as sanctioned in the 1885 Act, and the formation of the Arklet tunnel are deferred. The total length, 23\(\frac{1}{2}\) miles, of new aqueduct from the loch to Craigmaddie aqueduct will be composed of tunnel to the extent of 18 miles 78 chains, lined with concrete where necessary; in cut and cover, all lined with concrete, 1 mile 34 chains; and of syphon piping, 3 miles 8 chains. The longest tunnel in the line is that known as the Kelty, which measures 4594 yards, upwards of 2\(\frac{1}{2}\) miles; and the Black Rig tunnel is but little shorter, being within a few yards of 2\(\frac{1}{2}\) miles. Several of the other tunnels are upwards of a mile in length.

There are but two syphons on the line of the new aqueduct—the first crossing the Endrick Valley is 2 miles 31 chains long, and the second carried over the Blane Valley is but 1194 yards in length. In these provision is made for laying four pipes of 48 inches diameter, but for the present it is deemed necessary only to lay two. At eight points along the line connecting channels have been formed between the two aqueducts, and mechanism has been arranged to direct the flow of water from the one into the other, so that any given section may be emptied for repairs or for other purposes without interrupting the continuous flow of water.

The most serious, difficult, and costly part of the new works has been encountered in connection with the formation of the great new reservoir at Craigmaddie. It was desirable to have the reservoirs, both old and new, close together, and along one side they are divided from each other by the east embankment of the original reservoir. In the construction of the embankment of the new reservoir great and unexpected difficulties have been met, and it was found necessary to carry a puddle trench to an unprecedented depth chiefly through sandstone in a disturbed and broken condition, and partly through intrusive trap, the excavation of one part going to the depth of 195 feet below the original surface of the ground or 198 feet below
the embankment level. The enormous amount of excavation and puddling thereby entailed greatly retarded the work, and rendered it correspondingly costly. The relative extent and capacity of the two reservoirs are shown in the following:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Reservoir</th>
<th>Depth, Feet</th>
<th>Available Depth, Feet</th>
<th>Area, Acres</th>
<th>Capacity, Mill. Galls</th>
<th>Days' Supply</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Craigmaddie</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>87</td>
<td>694</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mugdock</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>488 1/3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

At the reservoir, junction channel arrangements have also been made so that the water from the new or old aqueducts can be made at will to flow into either new or old reservoir, or into both.

The total cost of the duplication of the works from the loch to the streets of Glasgow and the district will, it is estimated, be not less than £1,250,000, and by spreading this expenditure over a series of years it is anticipated that the population will be provided with this vast additional supply without a farthing’s addition to the rates and charges. Already the duplication of the aqueducts over certain sections alone has increased the amount of water which can be poured into the reservoirs by no less than 8,000,000 gallons per day.

Drawn from such a vast natural reservoir, the water is remarkably uniform in quality, temperature, and colour. Summer sun and winter storm affect it but little; it is absolutely free from pollution, and the Corporation have secured perpetual immunity from sewage taint by buying up, at a cost of £18,000, from surrounding proprietors over the whole drainage area their right to feu their lands, so that the whole region will remain in perpetuity a silent solitude, the gathering ground of the waters as they distil from the clouds.

In a thick sheet the water is seen to have a faint brownish tinge due to a minute proportion of suspended peaty matter. Its contained impurities are represented in parts per 100,000 as follows: Total solid impurities, 2.9215; organic carbon, 147; organic nitrogen, 0.0165; ammonia, 0.00; nitric nitrogen, 0.006; total combined nitrogen, 0.0226; chlorine, 638. In hardness, as already noted, it equals distilled water, averaging, according to Dr. Clark’s scale, 95. As already said, it needs no filtration. In the basin by which it passes from the loch into the aqueduct there are fixed a range of strainers to keep back fish, leaves, wood, or any solid matter. The strainers consist of wooden frames, 7 feet 3 inches by 3 feet 0 3/4 inches, covered with copper-wire netting having nine meshes per square inch. Again at the point where it enters the service mains of the City it is similarly strained.
CHAPTER XXV.

THE WATER SUPPLY. III. COMMERCIAL ASPECTS.


While the consumption of water in Glasgow has gone up by leaps and bounds during the period it has been in the enjoyment of the copious resources of the Perthshire lochs, an analysis of the careful statistics kept by the engineer shows that the domestic consumption per head of the population has not really increased. In the year 1852 under the regime of the companies the domestic consumption was 35.65 gallons, and for trade purposes it was 3.25 gallons per head of the population. In 1861 the first complete year of the Corporation Loch Katrine supply the figures were for domestic purposes 34.28 gallons, and for trade consumption 5.82 gallons. Thirty years later, in 1891, the domestic supply had actually decreased to 31.60 gallons, but the quantity drawn off for trade purposes had risen to 17.16 gallons per head. In the interim in certain years the domestic consumption had risen to as much as 38 gallons per head, and there is no doubt that increased cleanliness, the extension of the supply, and the general introduction of water-closets into properties of even the meanest class have all added enormously to the legitimate and beneficial use of water in households. That, in face of these circumstances, the domestic consumption has actually decreased instead of showing a great expansion can be explained only by the perfect condition in which the supply pipes are kept, by the close and continuous system of inspection to which the entire water supply is subjected, and by the rigid testing of water fittings conducted by the department.

While the domestic supply per head has thus been substantially and beneficially controlled, it will be seen that the water taken for trade purposes
in thirty years has increased three-fold. Out of a total revenue of about £186,000 realized in the year 1895-96 £105,000 was derived from supplies for other than domestic purposes. And as all the water so consumed is paid for by meter or by special rates this trade consumption is pure gain, and affords a welcome and substantial relief to the ratepayer. The Water Commissioners enter the market with a valuable commercial commodity, and its abundance, excellence, and cheapness have a most stimulating influence on many industries. It is not water alone that the Corporation has, in ample store, to dispose of, but, what is of much more importance, they have in that water an abundant reserve of power, and the fact that there were in the City about 600 hoists and upwards of 100 hydraulic presses worked direct from the main, shows that the water pressure has been very largely utilized. But at most simple gravitation could not be depended on to yield a pressure of more, during the day, than from 45 to 50 lbs. per square inch even in favourably situated areas. Under such a pressure the consumption of water itself when used for power was very large, and the charge on the consumer was correspondingly heavy. The experience of other large industrial communities demonstrated that great economy on both sides, to the Corporation as well as to the consumers, would be effected by supplying water under greatly increased pressure, and a private company sought to provide hydraulic pressure to the public as had already been done in London, Liverpool, and Hull. But the Commissioners themselves resolved to undertake the service, and accordingly, in 1892, parliamentary authority was obtained to establish hydraulic power works. These works have been in partial operation since the 30th of May, 1895, and now consumers in the central districts of the City have at their disposal water under a pressure of not less than 1120 lbs. (half a ton) per square inch. Under this system consumers of water power can obtain their supplies at a cost of little more than one-half of what they paid for water under gravitation pressure, and that at an expenditure of only one-twentieth part of the water required under the low pressure system. The substitution of high pressure water for water of gravitation pressure thus reserves an enormous quantity for the purposes of the ordinary water supply.

The Hydraulic Power Supply Works of Glasgow occupy the triangular space or gusset formed by the junction of High Street with the Rottenrow. The site is opposite that of the new Barony Church, and looks towards the open space, Cathedral Square, with the Necropolis and the Cathedral in the distance. The open character of the situation and the important public character of the neighbouring buildings warranted the Corporation in giving the street elevation of the works a more dignified architectural character than is usually accorded to such erections. In pleasing accordance with the history and traditions of the locality, a treatment of the building in the Scottish baronial style has been selected, and a very successful,
well-balanced and harmonious frontage in red sandstone has been secured.

The engine-house of the works has been laid out to accommodate six sets of vertical triple expansion engines each of 200 indicated horse-power; but in the meantime three sets only have been installed, giving 600 horse-power. Each set of engines is designed to deliver 230 gallons of water per minute when running at a speed of 60 revolutions; but it is not intended to work these at a rate greater than 50 revolutions per minute. The station is provided with two accumulators erected in towers rising to a height of 60 feet, which towers form a distinct architectural feature in the building. These accumulators have rams 18 inches in diameter with 23 feet stroke, and each is loaded with 127 tons inclusive of ram and casing. The water supply is taken from the Corporation mains, and the tank storage provided is equal to 200,000 gallons. The supply from the station is carried through the streets in four 7-inch mains, the pressure on these being given by the two accumulators; but by-pass and stop-valves are so arranged that the pressure can, if necessary, be applied to any or all by one accumulator only. The four mains form two separate circuits, in all about 9 miles in length, and at various points, about a quarter of a mile apart, these circuits are connected by pipes fitted with valves, so that they may be worked as one whole or two separate circuits. From the 7-inch mains 6-inch and 5-inch pipes branch off into the streets within the area of supply, and all these pipes are provided with valves by which the street may be cut off when required. The Commissioners provide from these pipes a branch or connection for each consumer, with a valve or stop-cock attached thereto, and all service pipes, valves, and other appliances beyond must be supplied at the expense of the consumer. These appliances must be tested previous to connection with the mains up to a pressure equal to 3000 lbs. per square inch, they must be provided with a valve or stop-cock within the building where the power is used, a relief valve loaded to 1200 lbs. per square inch must be attached to the service pipe, and all machinery and appliances must be kept perfectly water-tight. All the machines in use in one building, or by one consumer in that building, are required to pass the water used into one system of return pipes for measurement by a single meter, which is provided by the Commissioners for a rent paid by the consumer. The minimum charge per quarter for a single machine is 24s. when the quantity of water used does not exceed 3000 gallons. The price rises in gradually decreasing ratio, so that 13,000 gallons costs £4; for £5 the quantity supplied is 17,000; 100,000 gallons cost £20; 200,000 gallons, £31 5s.; and 300,000 gallons, £42 10s. Above that quantity the charge is by special arrangement.

The staff connected with the supervision, maintenance, and repair of the water works is necessarily considerable in number, and scattered over a wide area. Over the entire system is the chief engineer, Mr. James Morris
Gale, M. Inst. C.E., who has designed all the works connected with the duplication of the Loch Katrine Works in addition to discharging his ordinary stated duties of maintaining the works in perfect repair, and of superintending the entire engineering staff under his control. That staff consists of an assistant engineer, and about a dozen other office assistants, civil engineers, and mechanical, architectural, and general draughtsmen; three foremen over pipe-laying gangs, two inspectors for pipes, valves, etc., in makers' yards; about twenty inspectors of water fittings, with a principal and an under foreman. Lodged in different districts of the City are about twenty turncocks, whose duty is to give assistance in the event of any pipes bursting. In the store and workshop there are from twenty-five to thirty men employed, and the clerical staff numbers about ten. The works between Loch Katrine and the City are divided into six sections, each under a responsible superintendent, who has watchmen and workmen under him to the number of about fifteen for each section.

With the coming into operation of the 1855 Act, the Water Commissioners took over the capital stock and mortgage debt of the Glasgow and the Gorbals Companies. The debts and liabilities of the two companies amounted to £76,000; for the Glasgow Water Company's stock annuities at 4½ per cent. were issued on a capital sum of £303,700, and at 6 per cent. on £41,680. For the stock of the Gorbals Water Company annuities at 6 per cent. on £180,000 were granted in accordance with the parliamentary bargain. These annuities, amounting in all to £525,380, valued at 4 per cent., represented a capital sum of £674,180, which, plus £76,000 mortgage debt, made the amount paid by the City for the Glasgow and Gorbals Works and their rights equal to three-quarters of a million sterling. The entire cost of the original Loch Katrine Works, as completed in 1860, was as already stated, so that £920,000, with the turning on of the Loch Katrine supply the total expenditure and liabilities had risen to £1,070,000. Between 1862 and 1882 additional lines of syphon pipes were laid over the valley tracks, new and additional piping was provided in the district, and the Gorbals' filters were greatly extended; all of which, with other minor expenditure, added £534,000 to the cost of the works, bringing the expenditure on the works up to £1,454,000, and the total cost of the water undertaking to £2,204,000. Such, roundly stated, according to the water engineer, Mr. James M. Gale, in his communication to the Institution of Engineers and Shipbuilders in Scotland in March, 1883, was the expenditure on the water supply of Glasgow up to May, 1882.

Turning now to the official accounts of the Water Committee, issued in June, 1896, we find the capital expenditure under the Acts previous to 1882 stated at £2,160,000. On new works, under the Acts of 1885 and 1892, there had been already expended £1,235,000, making in all a capital expenditure of £3,446,000. The principal items in the expenditure under the 1885 and 1892 Acts were £279,000 for the construction of the Craigmaddie
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reservoir, then approaching completion, £174,000 for the Blane Valley contract, £104,000 under the Loch Chron contract, £108,500 for the Kelty Tunnel, £110,000 for new mains between Craigmaddie and the City, £87,000 for the Duchray contract, £70,000 for lands and compensations under the Acts of 1885-92. In connection with the Hydraulic Power Supply Works the expenditure at May, 1896, stood at £78,000, and the balance was made up of payments of smaller amounts under contracts in progress, engineering expenses, and expenditure on properties, including contributions to the Municipal Buildings' account, equal to about £75,000. On River Supply Works for trade purposes the capital expenditure was £101,000, bringing the grand total of capital expenditure, as at 31st May, 1896, to £3,538,000. The indebtedness of the Water Commissioners at that date consisted of £234,980 of funded debt, £1,975,500 borrowed under the Corporation Loans Account, and the sum of the two Sinking Funds in operation together equal to £802,600. The value of the annuities granted to the Glasgow Water Companies (£483,700 at 6 per cent. and £41,680 at 4½ per cent.) has also to be taken into account. Under the Act of 1885 these annuities were, for Sinking Fund purposes, capitalized at £720,000, thereby adding £194,000 nominal to the debt. From Sinking Fund accumulations annuities of nominal capital value of £24,740 have been redeemed at a cost of £40,050. The Sinking Fund for the redemption of debt came into operation only in the year 1870, ten years after the water of Loch Katrine was turned on, and fifteen from the date of the original Act. The Act stipulates that a minimum of 1½ per cent. on the total debt shall be yearly paid into the Sinking Fund.

Under the 1855 Act unlimited power of rating was conceded only over the area within the municipal bounds lying to the north of the river. Within the municipality on the south side of the Clyde the annual charge for domestic supply was restricted to 1s. per pound of rental, the maximum eligible under the powers of the Gorbals Company; and for supply beyond the municipality the maximum charge was 1s. 2d. per pound of rental. Under these conditions there was a fear, not unnatural, that the rates might become excessive and unduly burdensome in the area north of the Clyde, but experience soon happily proved that such dread was without foundation. During the first few years—from 1856 till 1862—the charge on the north side of the river, and on areas outside the municipality, was at the rate of 1s. 2d. per pound, and on the south side it was 1s. During the two years, 1862-63 and 1863-64, it was found expedient to raise the rate on the north side of the Clyde to 1s. 4d. per pound; and since that period all changes have been in the way of reductions of the rate. In 1864-65 the municipal rate north of the Clyde was reduced to 1s. 2d.; in 1865-66 it was brought down to the level of the rate on the south side—1s. per pound; and ever since that year ratepayers within the municipal bounds, both north and south, have been treated alike. The rate continued at 1s.
per pound till 1870-71, when it was made 9d.; from 1871-72 till 1886-87 it stood at 8d.; for three years thereafter it was 7d., and since the year 1890-91 the domestic water rate has been 6d. per pound of rental. Beyond the municipality the charge has also been reduced, but to a less extent. In 1867-68 1d. was taken off the domestic rate, reducing it to 1s. 1d.; in 1871-72 it was further reduced to 1s., at which it stood for two years, when it was brought down to 11d.; and in 1890-91 the charge for domestic supply beyond the municipal bounds was fixed at 10d. per pound, at which it now stands. In the interim by annexations considerable areas have been brought within the municipality of Glasgow, which became thereby entitled to the lower municipal rate; and specially by the Act of 1891 a large population was added to the City, and thereby immediately gained the substantial advantage of a reduction in water rates to the extent of 4d. per pound on house rental. The domestic rate in Glasgow covers all charges for baths and closets in dwelling-houses, and there is no restriction to the number of such conveniences which may be fitted up in any house. There is further a public rate of 1d. per pound chargeable against owners on the annual value of all properties within the municipality, a tax imposed for the benefits derived through the introduction of the Loch Katrine supply.

The experience of charges for water supplied by meter and for special purposes has also been in the direction of steady and substantial reductions. In 1861-62 the prices charged for meter supplies ranged in a sliding scale from 1s. per 1000 gallons for minimum quantities down to 4d. per 1000 gallons where the quantity taken was above 4,000,000 gallons per quarter, with a minimum total charge of £5 per annum. From 1862 to 1864 the prices ranged from 9d. to 4'80d., the minimum charge remaining at £5 per annum. In 1871-72 the maximum price was reduced to 6d., ranging down to 4'80d., and the minimum charge was restricted to £4 per annum. From 1872 to 1875 the charge was fixed at £2 per 100,000 gallons, with a minimum charge of £4 yearly; and in 1875-76 the minimum charge was reduced to £3 per annum. In 1876-77 the meter rate was £1 17s. 6d. per 100,000 gallons; minimum charge, £3 per annum. Again in 1877 and until 1890 the rate was £1 13s. 4d. per 100,000 gallons, or 4d. per 1000 gallons; the minimum charge continuing at £3 per annum; but that minimum charge in 1890-91 was lowered to £2 per annum, at which it now stands. The rates also for hotels and spirit shops, restaurants, etc., have been reduced from 1s. 2d. per pound on rental to 8d. per pound. The annual charge for horses has fallen from 4s. to 2s., and for cows from 3s. to 2s. each.

Charitable institutions are all supplied free of charge, as are also the public baths and wash-houses in the City belonging to the Corporation. Nor do the Water Commissioners charge the Corporation for water used for cleansing purposes, watering streets, flushing sewers, extinguishing fires,
etc., and as a *guid pro quo* the Corporation as Police Commissioners do not levy any assessment on the value of the Water Commissioners' pipes, etc., in the public streets for police and statute labour purposes.

The saving to consumers represented by these decreasing charges amount to a princely sum. Under the domestic rate alone it is calculated that the saving to ratepayers till May, 1896, amounts to a total not less than £650,000. In the same way the saving represented by reductions under meter charges is not less than £490,000, and the decrease in trade charges equals a sum of about £120,000. In all therefore the savings under these several heads have amounted to nearly £1,200,000, and had the charges remained at the by no means exorbitant rates at first levied, the capital expenditure under the original Loch Katrine scheme would now have been nearly extinguished, and the community of Glasgow would have had their magnificent works almost free of debt. The sinking fund for the extinction of the debt on the extension works comes into operation in June, 1897, and is also fixed at a minimum rate of 1½ per cent. The whole additional expenditure thereby entailed will easily be met from the revenue now accruing to the Corporation, while the normal expansion of income will put it in the power of the Water Department either to further decrease rates, or to reduce the debt at a rate considerably more rapid than contemplated under the obligations of the statute.

Notwithstanding all the substantial reductions in rates and charges, the annual revenue of the Water Department has increased both steadily and with rapidity, having only on one or two occasions, when considerable reductions in rate came into operation, shown the slightest decrease or want of elasticity. In 1856-57, the first year of the Corporation’s collection, the revenue was £62,300; twenty years thereafter, in 1876-77, with greatly reduced rates it was considerably more than doubled, having amounted to £136,200; and there is no doubt that at the end of another twenty years from that period the revenue will considerably exceed three times the amount of the first year’s collection, and that with rates not one-half the amount originally levied. The total revenue in 1895-96 was £189,700, of which amount the domestic rate on houses yielded £61,600; the public water rate produced £16,780; for meter supplies there was paid £68,400; and trade charges, including payments by builders, came to £36,500. The River Supply Works produced almost £3000, and there were various other small items of revenue which make up the balance.

The annual expenditure has naturally shown a similar progressive increase which, however, has been neither so uniform nor so rapid. In the year 1856-57 it began at £58,605; twenty years afterwards, in 1876-77, it touched almost £120,000, and in the year 1895-96 it amounted to £147,800, exclusive of £36,000 carried to the credit of the Sinking Fund. In that expenditure, of course, the principal charges are for interest on debt under the form of annuities
and payments to the Corporation Loans Fund for advances, etc., which amount in all to over £96,700. The wages paid exceed £22,000 per year, and for salaries in Engineering Department and the salaries and expenses of the Treasurer's Department, including collectors of rates, etc., the annual expenditure is £8200. Rates, taxes, materials, and miscellaneous charges cost nearly £21,000. There is also an annual loss on the accounts of the River Supply Works of about £930, or with the payment of £1512 to the Sinking Fund, the deficiency of revenue under that account reaches £2440 yearly.

There is certainly not another city in the kingdom, indeed it is doubtful if anywhere on the face of the earth there is a large population so beneficially situated as the people of Glasgow for water supply in respect of abundance, purity, and cheapness. It has been of incalculable value in fostering the arts and industries of the City, in promoting the health and welfare of the people its blessings and benefits may never be reckoned up; and to come down to the prosaic but still essential question of price, what other community has control of a practically unlimited supply of such water at a cost of little more than a shilling per year to each person who enjoys its benefits?
CHAPTER XXVI.

CORPORATION GAS AND ELECTRICITY.


The arguments which go to show that the supply of water to a great city ought to be under the sole control of the municipal authorities thereof, can be used with almost equal cogency and force in favour of the municipalization of the supply of illuminating gas. Gas, it is true, is not a prime and fundamental necessity of human existence; the race has lived, and could yet exist without artificial illuminants of any kind. That consideration, however, does not affect the argument. Illuminating gas is an essential convenience of a modern civilized city, and the citizens are entitled to obtain it under the most convenient and least onerous conditions possible. That its production and distribution constitutes a natural monopoly may be easily demonstrated. Free competition in the gas industry is an obvious impossibility, and even the rivalry, we do not say competition of two companies, is carried on with such needless duplication of distributing pipes and other plant as to greatly increase the expense of the manufacture without any compensating advantage.
The rivalry of two companies implies two separate bodies empowered at will to tear up the public roadways, the duplication of pipes throughout every street and lane, two sets of pipes introduced into every house with all the attendant danger and destruction which characterize gasfitters' work generally; double leakage, double risks of explosion, double trouble all along the line but no real benefit of competition, which to be effective, must be unlimited. The legislature itself, at an early period, recognized the impracticability of competition when by statute a limit was set to the profits which any gas company could legally divide.

And yet the company stage in the gas industry was of great and practically indispensable value. A corporation cannot be a pioneer; it cannot undertake speculative risks, nor can it nurse and develop, at the public expense, systems and schemes, the public utility of which are only hypothetical. In this direction is the field of private enterprise; and it is right that the men who incur the risk of promoting and carrying to a practical issue any new undertaking should be allowed to reap a sufficient reward for their speculative boldness. The feasibility of manufacturing illuminating gas, and of conveying it by pipes throughout an entire city, had to be established; the public utility and importance of the undertaking had to be demonstrated before any corporation would be warranted in taking up the industry. These services the joint-stock companies rendered to the public, and they were justly entitled to the reward of an ample return on the capital they risked in nursing the new illuminant. For half-a-century the making and distribution of gas was a company enterprise in Glasgow. The shareholders received a good return for the money they invested, and in the end they got a generous price for the properties they were called on to hand over to the Corporation.

The Glasgow Gas-Light Company was formed and incorporated by Act of Parliament in 1817, with a sanctioned capital of £40,000 and power to borrow £10,000 further. Under the Act the company became bound, before paying any dividend, to lay aside a sum, not less than £2000 nor more than £3000, out of profits, as a fund to meet contingencies. Gas was turned on in the City in September of the following year; and that the advantages of gas-lighting were immediately and widely recognized is manifest from the fact that the company had, within four years thereafter, to apply to Parliament for power to double their capital. The contingent fund, under the Act of 1822, which authorized the raising of an additional £40,000, was increased to a minimum of £5000. Again, in 1825, power to raise further capital, to the extent of £20,000, making the whole capital account £100,000, was obtained from Parliament. In the Act then obtained the important proviso was inserted that “ay, and until there be another company incorporated by Act of Parliament or otherwise for the supply of the City and suburbs of Glasgow with gas, the annual
dividend of the said Glasgow Gas-Light Company shall not exceed in any one year ten per centum per annum." In the following year, so rapid was the expansion of the gas industry, and so profitable was the undertaking, the company were again in Parliament promoting a Bill to add £50,000 to their capital, and opposing a Bill under which it was proposed to incorporate a new company. They were successful in both issues, and received authority to sell to the public 2000 shares of £25 each; and it was enacted that the premium realized from such transaction should be expended on extending and improving the works, and that no part of it was to become a fund for division among the proprietors, so as to form a source of individual profit. By the sale of these shares the company realized a premium of £49,724, which, added to the £150,000 of dividend bearing capital, raised the total to £199,724.

So equipped, the company continued its prosperous career, but not without much grumbling and dissatisfaction from the public. The monopoly was evidently viewed with jealous eyes, and it was alleged that the company not only neglected the statutory duty of triennially investigating their profits to find whether they exceeded the average of 10 per cent., but that they added to their works out of revenue, and thereby unduly oppressed the consumers of the period. In 1835 five Commissioners, appointed at a public meeting, made an investigation and report, in which they brought out that, at 31st May of that year, the Gas Company were "justly and truly indebted to the consumers of gas in the sum of £53,788," and they were warned that if "they persevere in their present charges for gas, and refuse to give indemnity to the public, another gas company will in all probability be formed."

It is hardly needful to say that the hypothetical claim of Commissioners, which they suggested should be liquidated by a reduction of 50 per cent. on the rates then current over a period of five years, was disregarded. For eight years more the company continued to hold the field undisputed; but in 1843 a new company, "The City and Suburban Gas Company of Glasgow," was formed and incorporated by Act of Parliament, with authority to raise capital to the extent of £150,000, and to borrow on mortgage up to a sixth part of their share capital. The company proceeded with vigour to exercise their powers, and from 1844 the citizens had such benefit, or otherwise, as the existence of two companies with similar statutory powers was calculated to yield them.

The public, though at first better served, do not appear to have been more satisfied under the new conditions than they were when the old company had undisputed control of the industry. In 1857 both companies had occasion to seek in Parliament increased capital and extended powers, and the Town Council, rejoicing in the victory they had gained over the water companies, joined issue with the gas proprietors. The opposition of the
Council was so far successful that, while the companies were allowed to get their Acts, they severally entered into provisional contracts with the representatives of the Council, under which they agreed to transfer to the Corporation their works, property, and funds at the 31st May, 1858, subject to the discharge of their whole debts and liabilities, and the payment of perpetual annuities of 8 per cent. on the nominal amount of each company's shares, or on demand from the individual shareholders a money payment of double the nominal amount of such shares. The Council were also to have the right to pay out shareholders at the same double rate. The agreements fell to be ratified by the Town Council within four months of the date of their signature; but as the Council failed to homologate the action of their representatives the negotiations fell to the ground, and the companies were, in the meantime, left in undisturbed enjoyment of their new Acts. Thereby each company obtained power to add £50,000 to their capital; but it was stipulated that the new stock created should carry a maximum dividend of 7½ per cent. only, that it should be sold by auction, and the premiums realized on the sale should be applied towards extensions of the works.

The war between gas producers and gas consumers thereafter continued with increased bitterness. A public meeting of indignant citizens was held under the presidency of the Lord Provost in the City Hall, on 14th September, 1859, when a resolution was unanimously adopted to the effect that the price of gas was unnecessarily high, and ought to be immediately reduced, and calling for an investigation of the company's books to discover whether the surplus profits are applied in terms of the Acts of Parliament for reducing the price. A committee was appointed to carry out the sense of the resolution, and, after a good deal of friction, and an appeal to the Sheriff of Lanarkshire, ultimately detailed reports on the affairs of both companies were obtained from Mr. James M'Clelland, C.A. The most important inferences from these reports were that the City and Suburban Company had never throughout its career earned quite sufficient profit to enable it to pay 10 per cent., although from the year ending June, 1853, that maximum division had been steadily made, partly at the expense of a "premium account," and partly by making no sufficient allowance for depreciation of works and plant. In relation to the old Glasgow Gas-Light Company the investigation brought out the serious fact of an enormous loss of gas by condensation, leakage, or other untraced cause. For the three years over which the detailed investigation was carried the loss was in 1858 23'29 per cent. of the total make, in 1859 it amounted to 21'86 per cent., and again in 1860 it came to 23'19 per cent. A loss of almost one-fourth part of the total quantity of gas produced, of course, in itself meant a serious addition to the gas bills of the paying consumers. In ordinary well-controlled practice the gas unaccounted for does not exceed
10 per cent., so here there was one-eighth part of the gas made needlessly
gone to waste.

The Glasgow Gas Consumers Committee wind up their report with the
old threat of a new gas company. "Having," they state, "fully discussed
and considered all the information relating to the manufacture and sale of
gas which has been brought under their notice at numerous meetings held
by them, they have arrived at the conclusion that, to meet the wants of
the public, it is necessary that a new gas company should be established in
this City forthwith." Small good the second company did them, yet they
clamoured for the establishment of a third branch to the monopoly, with
the prospect of public confusion, wasteful and useless expenditure, and an
assured return to the shareholders.

A better solution of the hardships of the long-suffering gas consumer
was, however, to be reached. Once more the Town Council bestirred them-
selves, and after full discussion, in September, 1867, they arrived at the
unanimous resolution, "That in the opinion of this Council it would be for
the public interest if the supply of gas to the City and the citizens were
placed under the control of the Town Council, and that the following gentle-
men be and are hereby named a Committee to negotiate with the existing
companies, with a view to their interests being fairly dealt with, and the
supply of gas transferred from them to the Town Council." No amicable
understanding was arrived at between the committee and the directors of
the gas companies, and in the end the battle had to be fought out before
Parliamentary Committees. For the session 1868-69 notices of bills were
given on behalf of the Corporation (1st) for powers to erect gas-works and
to supply gas within the municipality, City, and Royal Burgh of Glasgow
and its suburbs, and (2nd) for the purchase of the works of the two com-
panies by agreement. At the same time the Glasgow Gas-Light Company
and the City and Suburban Company promoted bills for raising additional
capital for increasing and extending works, and so the forces were set in
battle array. Pending the opening of the fight an offer was made by the
Town Council to take over the works, property, assets and liabilities of the
companies, paying the holders of the 10 per cent. stock perpetual annuities
of 9 per cent., and the 7 1/2 per cent. stockholders with perpetual annuities of
6 3/4 per cent. The offer, substantially embracing the terms ultimately con-
ceded under parliamentary authority, was declined by the companies. Parlia-
ment refused to sanction the Bill for the erection of municipal gas-works;
but the Corporation Purchase of Works Bill, under the title of "The Glasgow
Corporation Gas Act, 1869," transferring the undertakings of the two com-
panies to the Council, received royal sanction. The shareholders received
perpetual annuities of £34,762 10s., being at the rate of 9 per cent. on
£300,000 of 10 per cent. maximum dividend stock and at £6 15s. per
cent. on £115,000 of 7 1/2 per cent. stock. In security for the payment of
these annuities the properties present and future of the Gas Department were mortgaged; and, as further security, power of rating to the extent of 6d. per pound over the rental of the City was conceded. The mortgage debts of the two companies, which amounted to almost £120,000 were also taken over by the Corporation. It cannot be said that the gas shareholders were inadequately recompensed in getting guaranteed annuities one-tenth less in value than the maximum dividends they were entitled to earn as traders. On the other hand, from the consumers point of view, the annual payment of nearly £35,000 of annuities represents a serious dead-weight on the cost of manufacture, and with the mortgage debts and obligations taken over, the capital cost of the works to the citizens as a going concern was a serious burden.

The Corporation entered on the possession of the gas-works, and began business as gas manufacturers on the 1st of June, 1869. The works acquired from the Glasgow Company consisted of three manufacturing stations, having, in all, 576 retorts, situated, one in the north of the City—Kirk Street, Townhead; a second in the western suburb of Partick; and a third on the south side—Tradeston. From the City and Suburban Company was acquired the large Dalmarnock station at the east end of the City, in which were accommodated 868 retorts. During the last ten years of their existence the price charged by the companies ranged from 5s. down to 4s. 2d. per thousand cubic feet, with discounts of 5 per cent. on accounts between £4 and £20, of 10 per cent. on accounts between £20 and £100, and of 15 per cent. on all sums above £100. The price per thousand feet, subject to these discounts in the last years of the companies, was 4s. 7d., and in that year their total production of gas was 1,206 millions of cubic feet.

In the second year of their undertaking the Town Council, allowing only half the previous discounts, reduced the price to 4s. 2d. within the municipality; but in the area of supply beyond the City bounds the price was 2½d. per thousand feet more, a differential charge which was productive of much trouble, and as things turned out, of heavy cost, to the Corporation. The odd 2½d. was justified on the plea that the ratepayers of the City had become liable to the imposition of a rate of 6d. per pound on their rental to meet any deficiency in the revenue; and an untoward accident might have necessitated the exercise of such a rating power. Certain suburban consumers, however, perceived in the differential charge a grievance, and a company was forthwith formed under the name of the Partick, Hillhead, and Maryhill Gas Company, with a capital of £130,000, to supply gas in districts outside the municipal bounds, but still within the limits of the compulsory supply of the Corporation. Consequently duplicate mains and pipes were laid down within these districts, and a competition with the Corporation was set up, with all its attendant friction, waste, and bad blood. The Partick, Hillhead, and Maryhill Company never obtained any statutory powers, although they made repeated efforts to
secure an Act of Parliament, and they were only allowed to open up streets and roads for laying their pipes by the sufferance of the several suburban burghs and local authorities. The company began to supply gas in 1873, and in the first year of their activity produced 67 millions of cubic feet. The company had a somewhat chequered and precarious career; dependent for very existence on the tolerance of shifting public authorities, and working in a state of chronic antagonism to the Corporation Gas Department. The various Annexation Bills promoted by the Town Council of Glasgow, with the view of absorbing the suburbs in which alone the company supplied gas, were felt to threaten the privileges they enjoyed, and in consequence the directors were among the strenuous opponents of all annexation measures. In the circumstances it was deemed expedient to buy up the concern; and in 1888 a provisional agreement was arrived at between the Town Council and the directors, but the shareholders declined to implement its terms. In 1891 the company was for the last time in Parliament seeking statutory recognition, and they had fortified their position by buying up for £11,000 the works of the Dalmuir, Kilpatrick, and Bowling Gas Company, lying principally beyond the range of the Corporation supply. Negotiations again ensued, and in the end the directors agreed to accept £202,500 for their works, and a clause embodying this agreement was inserted in a Bill promoted in Parliament by the company in 1891, and on 1st July of that year the Corporation entered into possession of the company's works at Temple. Notwithstanding the unfavourable conditions under which the works had been carried on, the quantity of gas made had increased steadily year by year, and in the last year of their working the quantity produced reached 342 millions of cubic feet. The undertaking had, however, little pecuniary success; and taken all over it did not realize on its preference capital (£30,000) more than an annual return of 5½ per cent., while the total dividend to ordinary shareholders on their £100,000 did not exceed 3½ per cent. per annum.

The works of the old companies, which came into the hands of the Town Council in 1869, were found to be in need of extensive renewals, and to meet the steadily growing demand large additions were also imperatively required. A loss of more than 23 per cent. of the gas made from the works of the Glasgow Company is a sufficient indication of the condition of the pipes and joints under the charge of that body. The Townhead work was, moreover, very badly situated for a gas-work, being in an elevated position and remote from any railway siding. One of the earliest duties of the Corporation was therefore the provision of additional facilities for making and storing gas, and consequently the Glasgow Corporation Gas Act of 1871, empowering the Corporation to erect and equip works at Dawsholm, near Maryhill, and to discontinue the Townhead works, was obtained. The Dawsholm works at the time of their erection had a productive capacity equal
to 3,000,000 cubic feet per day. Not again till 1882 did the Corporation require to go to Parliament for powers to add to their gas supply; and then it was the Dalmarnock works which they were empowered to double in productive capacity, and authority was also obtained to lead railway sidings into the station for the direct delivery of coal. The Act of 1882 also gave power to reduce the illuminating quality of the gas from 25 candle, which was the statutory minimum under the 1869 Act, to 20 candle; but as a matter of fact the illuminating power has not been permitted to fall under an average of 22 candle. An Act passed in 1888 enabled the Corporation to acquire additional land and railway sidings at Tradeston, and to entirely reconstruct the works at that station, thereby adding a productive capacity of not less than 6,000,000 cubic feet daily to the resources of the department. The acquisition in 1891 of the Temple works from the Partick, Hillhead, and Maryhill Company already alluded to, and the purchase in the same year of the Pollokshaws works for £14,500 completed the equipment of gas-works as at present existing. The old Partick works were abandoned, and now the great stations and works of the department are in the east at Dalmarnock, in the north-west at Dawsholm and Temple (the two connected by a tunnel under the Forth and Clyde Canal), and in the south by the Tradeston works. Subsidiary works are at Old Kilpatrick and Pollokshaws. The limits within which the Corporation now supply gas are extensive, ranging from Bowling on the west to Mount Vernon on the east, a distance of 16 miles; and from Bearsden on the north-west to Burnside on the south-east, a stretch of 10 miles.

The following figures indicate the capacity of the several works:

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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Dalmarnock</td>
<td>832</td>
<td>7,000,000</td>
<td>4,260,000</td>
<td>1,398,395,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dawsholm and Temple</td>
<td>1946</td>
<td>18,000,000</td>
<td>10,000,000</td>
<td>2,031,975,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tradeston</td>
<td>1088</td>
<td>10,000,000</td>
<td>8,000,000</td>
<td>1,338,831,000</td>
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<tr>
<td>Pollokshaws</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>165,000</td>
<td>150,000</td>
<td>29,656,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Old Kilpatrick</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>50,000</td>
<td>25,000</td>
<td>13,927,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>3901</td>
<td>35,215,000</td>
<td>23,413,000</td>
<td>4,811,884,000</td>
</tr>
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The largest gas-holder in possession of the Corporation—the third in size in the world, it is believed—erected in 1893 at Temple works, has a capacity of 6,000,000 cubic feet, and another of like capacity was in 1896 being erected at Tradeston.

Among the provisions of the Corporation Gas Act of 1882 there was a clause empowering the Corporation to make and sell gas for heating, for
MUNICIPAL GLASGOW

power-producing, and other non-illuminating purposes. There has been hitherto no attempt to manufacture a special non-illuminating gas in Glasgow, to provide which would obviously necessitate at least special storage and distributing mains and pipes. There is no doubt that the use of gas of high illuminating quality for heating and power production is wasteful and extravagant, but the duplication of gas-holders, the laying down of a second set of mains and pipes—indeed, we may say the initiation of a new industry—are serious undertakings, not to be lightly entered upon. And yet the amount of gas used in Glasgow for non-illuminating purposes must now be very large. The conveniences of cooking and heating by gas has been recognized for many years, and as the stoves and other devices have gradually improved, they have come so largely into use as to create no inconsiderable increase in gas consumption in all communities. The use of these conveniences in Glasgow has developed enormously since 1885, when the Gas Department opened a depot for the sale and hire of gas cooking stoves, and the sale of gas fires, etc. The undertaking proved an immediate success, the sale of stoves and fittings has been large and increasing, and in 1895-96 the receipts for sales have exceeded £800. Stoves of various sizes and qualities are hired out to consumers at rents ranging from 6s. yearly upwards, and from that source in 1895-96 no less than £4330 was derived. At the close of that financial year the department held on hire and in store stoves to the value of £27,200, and the direct profits of the undertaking for the year exceeded £500.

These figures indicate a very large consumption of gas for non-illuminating purposes, and beyond that there is the considerable employment of gas in the gas-engines which now are installed in many establishments. Indeed, it is now not uncommon for gas to be used indirectly only as an illuminant: being employed as the motive power in engines which drive dynamos for the production of electric light. Again, in the various forms of incandescent burners, now extensively used, the gas is really consumed as a heating and not as a directly lighting agent. Were the use of incandescent lights to become general, and the ordinary burner to become as much a thing of the past as the oily crucible, then might high candle-power gas also cease to be made—gas would become entirely a heating and power producing agent: it would be a light producer not from its flame, but more economically from its heat, and its heat also would be the quality of value for all its other uses.

Since the Corporation became gas manufacturer to Glasgow in 1869 the consumption has gone up leaps and bounds. The make of gas by the companies in the last year of their existence we have seen exceeded 1200 millions of cubic feet. In the year ending 31st May, 1870, the department made 1295 millions of feet, in 1875 the production had increased to 1649 millions, in 1880 it reached 1859 millions, in 1885 it was 2368 millions,
in 1890 the amount made was 3058 millions, and in 1895 there were produced no less than 4525 millions of cubic feet. In a quarter of a century the production has been increased by 249 per cent., an average annual increase of about 5½ per cent.

The increase of gas consumption is further strikingly exemplified by the increase of revenue from gas rents under the Corporation. Let it be borne in mind that in the first business year the price of Corporation gas, subject to certain discounts, was 4s. 7d., and that for the succeeding ten years it ranged from 4s. to 5s. 5d., reaching that high figure in the years of inflated prices and coal-famine, 1874-75. In 1876, after all discounts had been abolished, the price was reduced to 4s. 2d., and since that time the progress has been, with the brief exception of one year, steadily downward, till, for the year 1896-97, the price is reduced to 2s. 2d. per 1000 feet. The exception to the rule of reduction in price occurred in 1892, when, owing to a deficit in the previous year's account, it became necessary for the year only to increase the price from 2s. 6d. to 2s. 9d. In the face of this reduction of the price of gas to less than one-half of the rate charged in 1873-74 the gross revenue has risen, with however considerable fluctuations, till in 1895-96 it amounted, under a charge of 2s. 4d. per 1000 feet, to £605,800, while in the year 1869-70 with the rate of charge at 4s. 7d., the gross revenue was no more than £235,700.

Under the capital account the amount standing against expenditure on works in 1869-70 was £532,317. The necessity for great extensions and renewals of plant in the early years added rapidly to the amount under this head, notwithstanding the fact that considerable sums were annually written off in name of depreciation, and in 1876-77 the total reached £1,044,000. From that point the capital account decreased till, in 1889, it stood at £605,000, since which time extensions at Tradeston, the purchase of the works of the Partick, Hillhead, and Maryhill Company, and of the Pollok-shaws Gas-Light Company; and the provision of great additional gas-holders etc., have increased the account till, in 1896, it reached the large sum of £1,162,000. From the first year of the Corporation management down to 1896 there has been spent on reconstruction, extensions, and additions no less than £1,762,000. At the same time there has been written off in name of depreciation of works and plant about £1,005,000, while all existing works, pipes, and plant have been kept in a state of repair and efficiency. As a result the Corporation Gas Works and plant are now a fine property in the best working order, equipped with the most approved modern plant, and valued in the books of the department on a very moderate basis. The efficiency of the works is demonstrated by the fact that, whereas in 1869-70 the capital employed in relation to the quantity of coal carbonized stood in the ratio of £3 11s. 10d. to every ton, in 1895-96 the ratio was £2 5s. The average price of coal, of which 148,110 tons were used
in 1869-70, was then 13s. 5d.; in 1895-96 the average price paid for the 516,351 tons carbonized was 9s. 17d., being a reduction of 4s. 3'26d. per ton, or 32'46 per cent. But in the earlier year every 1000 feet of gas made cost for coal 18'41d.; in the latter year the same quantity of gas cost in coal only 11'77d.—a decrease of 36'06 per cent. The net reduction in the price of gas between the first and last year, after allowing for the discounts of the earlier period, is 23'6d.—due to enhanced value of residual products, improvements in methods of manufacture, and the greater efficiency and economy of the works generally.

The indebtedness of the Gas Department is represented in the first place by the annuities payable to the shareholders of the old companies, to which allusion has already been made. That amount, nominally £415,000 (£300,000 at 9 per cent. and £115,000 at £6 15s. per cent.), involving an annual charge of £34,760, is in reality equivalent to a capital sum of £1,269,000. Under the mortgage account the liability stands at the sum of £100; but the indebtedness to the Corporation Loans Department was in 1896 £520,000, and under the sinking fund the amount applied in the redemption of mortgages and loans was £248,435. The total nominal liabilities of the department therefore were £1,183,500, but valuing the gas annuities at the present market price, the indebtedness of the department would be increased to £1,789,000.

The Corporation Gas Act of 1869 provided for the institution of a sinking fund to be begun two years after the passing of the measure, the sum to be set apart to be not less than one per cent. per annum of the amount borrowed under the Act, with such interest accruing on the accumulations as was chargeable on the mortgages, etc., redeemed from the fund. In no case was the amount paid into the sinking fund to be less than £2000 in any one year. The accumulations under this head at 31st May, 1896, reached a total of £314,000, which had been invested in the redemption of mortgages, £188,500; on the redemption of Corporation Loans, £60,000; and in payments into the Corporation Loans Fund, £60,000—in all £308,500, invested at 31st May, 1896.

In regulating their financial affairs the Gas Committee have wisely been guided by a determination to make the consumer pay his fair proportion of the cost and risk involved in the manufacture and distribution of the gas. There is no thought of benefiting the gas consumer of a succeeding generation at the expense of the living citizens. But prudence demands that provision should be made against the possibility of a revolution in illumination and heating, whereby gas might become a thing of the past, and the gas-works and plant become obsolete and valueless, leaving only a legacy of heavy debt to future generations. That some great discovery of adaptation might suddenly render the gas-works, etc., quite useless is more than a possibility; but against that contingency, which may be contemplated with
perfect equanimity, the sinking fund is a sufficient protection. When any
great revolution in illumination and power production arrives it will be
widely and generally beneficial, and there is nothing unfair in a generation
which reaps the benefit of the march of knowledge and invention being
called on to pay the modified penalty which attaches to all changes and
even to all improvements.

Nor have the Town Council of Glasgow been tempted to earn a profit
from their gas industry whereby to foster other but alien objects. The man
who burns gas in Glasgow and its suburbs is assured that he is thereby
called on to pay for gas only and not for palatial erections, for libraries, or
art galleries, nor for any other public object however laudable and desirable.
And yet the temptation to apply gas revenues to other than gas purposes
was considerable, and the right was indisputable. The Town Council had
the precedent and example of several English municipalities in which,
systematically, surplus gas revenue is applied to other public purposes. The
Town Council, moreover, is supplying a wide-spread population with gas at
a cost far below what these scattered communities could produce gas for
themselves, and the City receives no benefit in return from these consumers.
In the gas-rents the Town Council had the means and the right to secure
and to divert substantial profits to such public purposes within the City as
they might deem proper; but they have justly and prudently refrained from
exercising their right, and the consumer's gas-bill, as nearly as practicable
represents the cost of the illuminant as it is consumed.

ELECTRIC LIGHTING.

Previous to 1890 little had been done in the way of providing electric
lighting in Glasgow. Under the Corporation Gas Bill of 1882 it was pro-
posed to take statutory powers to supply electric light, but the clauses
relating to that subject were struck out before the measure came to be con-
sidered by any Parliamentary Committee. The Town Council were watchful
to prevent any private company from acquiring an electric lighting monopoly,
or from obtaining power to interfere with the public streets; and while one
company was, in the centre of the City, carrying on a limited business as
producers and distributors of electric energy by means of overhead wires,
other work in this way was confined to private installations for the exclusive
use of the houses or premises for which the electricity was generated.

In 1890 the Town Council deemed the time to have arrived when it
became their duty to add to their enterprises that of electric lighting, and
accordingly a Provisional Order was applied for and obtained, which empowered
and required them to provide electric energy within a limited area embracing
the principal business streets and premises on the north side of the river.
The order sanctioned the raising and expenditure of capital, and the enter-
prise was attached to the Gas Department—the Gas Commissioners as Local Authority under the General Electric Lighting Acts becoming responsible for any deficit that might arise in conducting the undertaking. In 1891 active steps were taken, under the advice of Lord Kelvin, for carrying into effect the powers conferred on the Corporation, and Professor A. B. W. Kennedy was entrusted with the preparation of the general scheme.

On the 1st March, 1892, the Corporation acquired and entered on the possession of the premises and plant of Muir, Mavor & Coulson (Ltd.), in John Street and Miller Street, at a price of £15,000, and from that date the Corporation electric lighting dates. That company was then supplying to 37 consumers, by means of high tension overhead mains, current equivalent to 5,000 eight-candle power 33 Watt lamps, and the Board of Trade sanctioned the continuance of this supply only till August of the ensuing year.

Meantime a site for a central station was obtained in Waterloo Street, and in the spring of 1892 the building was commenced. The installation was sufficiently advanced to permit of the inauguration of the lighting of the principal street with arc lamps by the Lord Provost, on the evening of Saturday, 25th February, 1893, and on Saturday, 22nd April following, the current was switched on to the incandescent mains.

On the advice of Lord Kelvin the Electric Lighting Committee adopted the low tension three-wire system, with a direct current at not more than 200 volts pressure. The current, all carried underground, is conveyed and supplied to the distributing mains at various points throughout the area of supply by two conductors, positive and negative, termed feeders, which deliver the electricity to the distributing network at 200 volts. The distribution is effected by three wires, positive, middle, and negative, generally laid together on each side of the street; but in some streets two wires only are laid, positive and middle on one side, and negative and middle on the other. As a rule only two wires are led into the consumer, positive and middle, or negative and middle, and as far as possible care is taken to balance these so that current is equally taken off both sides. When a large supply is taken all three wires are led into the main switchboard of the building, which is then made to balance itself. The several wires—positive, middle, and negative—are in continuous connection throughout the area lighted, and the middle wire is led back into Waterloo station.

The demand for current for lighting purposes has increased with satisfactory steadiness. In the first year, ending 31st May, 1893, the consumers numbered 108; in 1894 they had increased to 378; in 1895 they were 586; and in 1896 they rose to 855. The electricity generated in the first of these years equalled 408,000 Board of Trade units, but of that the large proportion of 26 per cent. was unaccounted for. Private consumers took 262,218 units; street lighting accounted for 25,494 units, and 13,975 units were used on the works. The quantity generated in the year ending May,
1896, reached 1,279,687 units, of which 12.8 per cent. was lost—886,606 units going to private consumers, 204,353 units to the street lamps, and 23,898 units being used in the works. Thus while the quantity generated in 1896 is three times that generated in 1893, the total sold increased nearly four-fold.

The price charged to private consumers was for the first two years 7d. per Board of Trade unit; but in 1894 the charge was reduced to 6d. per unit, at which it continued till 1896, when an arrangement was introduced under which it becomes necessary to ascertain the greatest quantity of electricity taken at one time by any customer, which consumption is called "the maximum demand." An indicator for this purpose is placed in each consumer's premises, and that "maximum demand" must be consumed one hour daily, or 182½ hours each half-year, before any rebate is allowed. Under that consumption 6d. per unit is charged, and for all in excess thereof the charge is 4d. per unit.

The capital expenditure account at 31st May, 1896, stood at £131,961, after writing off £17,202 for depreciation of works and plant. The gross revenue for the year ending 31st May, 1896, was £25,862, the expenditure was £11,590, the depreciation written off for the year amounted to £6329, and after paying interest on the loans from the Corporation loan fund, and transferring £1316—1 per cent. on the borrowed capital—to the sinking fund, in terms of the Electric Lighting Act, there remained a surplus of £2381, which was transferred to the Gas Department, in terms of the Electric Lighting Provisional Order, and in repayment of sums advanced during the first two years of Electric Lighting operations.
CHAPTER XXVII.

MUNICIPAL MARKETS.


The markets of the City were relatively of much greater importance in mediaeval times than they are in these later days of free trade and unlimited competition. Their supervision, and the control of buying and selling generally, formed a leading and onerous branch of the duties of the Town Council. There were many reasons why that should be so, in addition to the fundamental circumstance that a large proportion of the revenues of the City was derived from the tolls and customs the magistrates exacted on trading. In accordance with the then prevailing conceptions of political economy the Council yearly regulated the price of all common articles of diet and drink of the people. The exercise of that function necessitated the enactment of special regulations to secure the due supply and distribution of the ordinary commodities, involving the enforcement of many minute and irritating rules, almost incomprehensible under modern conditions. The Council further considered themselves bound to directly supervise the quality and wholesomeness of the food and drink sold to the citizens, and to permit of such skilled inspection as was available, it was convenient that all articles should be exposed in an appointed public market. Accordingly we find in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries that there were numerous market stances throughout the City, with special days and hours on which alone they were open and active. Some of these markets were held on the open street,
the appointed place of others was within one or other of the kirkyards; and for certain others, such as the meal market, special buildings were provided. The precise locality in which the various markets were held is not always easily discoverable, but those held on the street were moved from place to place as suited the convenience of the magistrates or the traffickers. Thus in May, 1634, a Council minute enacts "the provest, bailleis, and counsell abone specifeit, haifing takin to thair consideratiouns that it is necessar and expedient that the mercatis within the said brugh sould be dispersit and sett in all pairwis of the towne and understandin that thair is na mercat place about and abone the Wynd Heid of the said brugh, and the houssis thair lyklie to decay and na competent maill to be gottin thairfoir, thairfoir they, be the tennour of this present act, statut and ordaine that the hors mercat daylie in all time cuming (except the tyme of the fair of Glasgow haldin yeirlie in the moneth of Julij) sall be haldin betuixt the Kirk port, the Stable Grene port, the Drygait Heid, Wynd Heid and Rattounrow; and als that the salt mercat, corne mercat, lint seid and hemp seid mercat be haldin in all tyme cuming abone the College, quhair the hors mercat was haldin of befoir; and ordainis the officeris of this brugh to vrgie all personis, sellaris of houssis, salt, hors corne, lint seid and hemp seid, to go and mak mercat in the placis abone specifeit." A few days earlier the Town Council "fund it neidfull for the tounes use to by James Brounes barne yaird and rig of land at the bak thairof lyand nixt to the West Port on the northe side thairof," and in August following they ordained "the removal of the old Tronegait Porte, and the flesche mercat, and to build the flesche mercat in the place of Thomas Brounes barne and yaird."

It would be an unprofitable task to follow the history and migrations of these several municipal markets. Under use and wont and chartered rights they continued till the beginning of the nineteenth century, and then they received statutory recognition and extended powers by the provisions of the great Police Act of 1800. Section 82 of that Act is in these terms:

"And whereas the Magistrates and Town Council of the said City have, for the accommodation of the inhabitants thereof, erected large and convenient market-places for the sale of meal and corn, butcher meat, fish, potatoes, and vegetables of all kinds, and other commodities and articles sold for the use and consumption of the said inhabitants, and have expended large sums in purchasing ground for these purposes, and in erecting buildings thereon; and have erected a large and convenient slaughter-house for killing cattle, and have lately enclosed and paved some grounds adjoining thereto to be used as a market-place for the sale of live cattle, in order to prevent the inconvenience arising from their being exposed to sale in the streets: Be it therefore enacted, That it shall and may be lawful for the said Magistrates and Town Council, in council assembled, and they are hereby empowered
and authorized, at any time or times, to make, ordain, and establish such orders, rules, and regulations, for the better regulating all and each of the aforesaid market-places, slaughter-house or houses, and all other public market-places erected, or which shall hereafter be erected, within the said City; and likewise to make, ordain, and establish such orders, rules and regulations, relative to the manner of collecting the dues in the said public markets, and in other places within the limits of the said City, or in any other place or places in the vicinity thereof, to which the said market-places, slaughter-house or houses, may afterwards be removed, as they shall judge fit and expedient; and also from time to time, as occasion may require, to repeal, add to, and alter such rules and regulations."

The Act proceeded to give the Magistrates and Council power to exact duties on live cattle exposed for sale in the Cattle Market; one penny for each ox, cow, or bull; threepence for a score of sheep or of goats; twopence for a score of lambs; a penny for each sow, hog, or boar, and a halfpenny for each calf. The sale of such animals on the public streets was prohibited, except during the recognized local fairs: Whitmonday, the Fair of Glasgow, St. Mungo's or twenty day of Yule Fair, and Skyers' Thursday. Finally, all former market dues, maills, duties, customs, and other taxes on traffic in markets were confirmed and continued to the Magistrates and Council.

Writing in the year 1815 Dr. Cleland, in his Annals of Glasgow, thus describes the public markets of the City:

"The principal Beef, Mutton, and Fish Markets are situated in King Street. The former occupies a space of 112 feet by 67 feet, and the latter 173 feet by 46 feet, subdivided into stalls around the area. The courts are paved with freestone, and the fronts formed of ashlar work, with rusticated entries; the Beef Market in Bell Street being fitted up in a plainer style. The Vegetable or Green Market is also allotted into stalls, and is so spacious as to occupy the whole site of the former Wynd Church, having its principal entry from King Street. The Butter, Cheese, and Poultry Markets are placed in Montrose Street. The Tron, or Weigh House, is a large building, situated on the north side and at the east end of Ingram Street, and is used for the general purposes of a Tron and Store-House. Prior to the late erection of markets in the City of Newcastle the markets in King Street were considered the best in the island. Each stall in the Fish Market has a water-pipe in it and a bench covered with lead. The other markets have also a plentiful supply of water."

The same writer, in a report prepared in 1840, in connection with the visit of the British Association to Glasgow in that year, says: "Previously to 1818 the principal fleshers in this City were frequently obliged to travel a circuit of seventy or eighty miles to purchase cattle in lots, and to rent expensive parks in the neighbourhood of this City to graze them in. The
mode of supply is now completely changed. In 1818 a spacious market-place for the sale of cattle was fitted up adjoining Graham Square, between the south-east and the north-east approach to the City, in which there are a commodious inn, stables, sheds, a byre to hold 120 bullocks in view, and 260 pens to contain 9360 sheep. This market-place, allowed to be the most complete in the kingdom, occupies an area of 29,561 square yards, or rather more than six imperial acres, is paved with whin, and inclosed from the streets by ashlar stone walls. Since its formation, graziers and dealers for more than fifty miles around Glasgow, find it their interest to send cattle to it, where they find a ready sale, and a return in cash. It is admitted that this market has been of great use to all classes of the community; excepting, perhaps, the more wealthy fleshers. The dealers are benefited by a regular sale, without running the risk of bad debts; the public have a more steady and plentiful supply of butcher meat of the best quality; the fleshers is saved the trouble and the public the expense of travelling. The fleshers of small capital, who formerly had not the means of getting good meat, can go to market, and if his capital be equal to purchase a bullock and a dozen of sheep or lambs, he can compete with his more wealthy brethren. Monopoly is now unknown. This market has also been beneficial to the Corporation of the City, whose members are the trustees. The dues, which are moderate, were let by auction at Whitsunday, 1836, for a period of years, at the annual rent of £1,285, a sum which, after paying the interest of the debt, ground-rent, repairs, and every other expense, leaves a clear profit to the trust fund of upwards of £500 per annum. It is matter of gratification to me to have projected this market, and to have brought it to its present prosperous state. Prior to its establishment, cattle of every description were sold on the streets in various parts of the City, and to a very limited extent. Since that period the sales have increased rapidly. During the year ending 1st May, 1828, viz., ten years after the market was opened, the sales, exclusive of horses, calves, and pigs, amounted to 162,740 animals; viz., bullocks and milch cows, 17,840; sheep and lambs, 144,900.

Markets then have belonged to the Town Council of Glasgow by ancient charter, and by the use and wont of seven centuries at least. Their existence has been recognized, and their continuance and extension sanctioned by modern legislation; and now we have several markets in Glasgow owned by the Corporation under the Common Good Account. As a Markets Trust, they control others, and the traffic in foreign cattle is under the Council, as Local Authority under the Contagious Diseases (Animals) Act of 1878. For the existence and the perpetuation of certain of these markets there is no better reason than the fact that they have been in our midst, owned and controlled by the municipality from time immemorial, or that they are the lineal descendants and heirs of ancient markets.
There has been no assize of bread, no magisterial and arbitrary fixing of the price of the food of the people, since the beginning of the nineteenth century; and petty customs, maills, and duties were abolished in the year 1846. There are obvious reasons why the sale and slaughter of animals for human food should be under the control of municipal authorities, and in a minor degree the traffic in fresh fish, perishable fruits and vegetables is also a fit object of public control. There is more difficulty in discovering any reason for the Town Council taking under its charge the dealing in dogs, rabbits, pigeons, and canary birds, as is the case in Glasgow, and why the Lord Provost, Magistrates, and Council should concern themselves with the dealing in and disposal of old clothes would be difficult of explanation, if not of defence.

The markets which now belong to the Corporation, and form part of the Common Good of the City, are the Bazaar, or Fruit and Vegetable Market, the Bird and Dog Market, and the Old Clothes' Market. These are under the supervision of a committee of the Council, to which is also allotted the control of the several public halls of the City, and of the various clocks maintained at the expense of the Corporation. As Markets Commissioners under statutes, beginning with the Glasgow Markets and Slaughter-houses Act, 1865, the Town Council owns and regulates the Cattle Market, the Dead Meat Market, the Slaughter-houses, and the Fish Market, and as Local Authority, through a special committee of the Council with the addition of a trade expert, they own and control the foreign cattle trade which comes to the Clyde at Shieldhall on the south side of the river below Govan, and at Yorkhill Wharf on the north side, within the harbour of Glasgow.

The Bazaar is the modern representative of the ancient vegetable market of Glasgow, which in the eighteenth century was situated over the site of the Old Wynd Church in King Street. It now occupies an oblong covered space, bounded on the north by Ingram Street, on the west by Candleriggs, on the south by Bell Street, and on the east by South Albion Street. In the south-east corner are situated the buildings of the Central Police Office; and elevated on iron columns the building and offices of the City Hall, extending from Candleriggs to South Albion Street, pass over the centre of the Bazaar area. The Bazaar was laid out in 1817 under the supervision of Dr. James Cleland, and occupies a site given off by the Town Council in 1696 as a bowling green, with the express condition that it should be used for that recreation in all time coming. As originally planned, the covered erection embraced an area of 2377 square yards. Subsequent additions and extensions have increased the accommodation, till now the Bazaar proper covers 7879 square yards, divided into 58 stances, which for site and buildings have cost £60,000.

In recent times the nature of the business and occupancy of the Bazaar
has changed very much, and the volume of what may be called the legitimate trade of the institution has increased enormously. In its early days the stalls of the Bazaar were by no means restricted to dealers in fruit and vegetables. They were occupied by retail greengrocers, dealers in provisions, eggs, butter, and cheese, poultry and game dealers, and second-hand book-sellers; and there were also toy shops and undefined stores. The concentration of the wholesale provision and produce trade in the immediate neighbourhood to the present day indicates the influence the Bazaar had on determining the trade of the district. Miscellaneous trading has now been entirely eliminated, and the cheese market is the only establishment unconnected with the fruit and vegetable trade which remains within the limits of the structure.

Although the area of the Bazaar has been increased more than three-fold since it was first opened, the increase has not been in proportion to the growth of the population, and incalculably less has it kept in measure with the development of the vegetable, fruit, and flower trade. Since the opening of the Bazaar indeed an entirely new trade has sprung up; it has assumed enormous dimensions; and every season adds to its wide range and to the variety of its staples. In 1817 Glasgow was, of necessity, restricted for its supply of fresh fruit and green vegetables to the immediate vicinity of the City, and to the orchards of Clydesdale. Culinary vegetables and ordinary small fruits were grown only on the garden scale, and apples and pears were almost the only fruits which were then cultivated for sale. The business of the greengrocer must have been of very modest dimensions, fruits were not yet looked on as fit material for ordinary trading, and it is doubtful if a single cut flower was then sold in the City. But steam navigation had just established itself in the waters of the Clyde, and was beginning to spread throughout the world, roads were being formed, and in due course railways appeared, and with these came marvellous changes in the possibilities of traffic and in the habits of the people. We have become a fruit-eating people, and we eat fruits simply because they have been made available for our consumption. The tribute of the tropics comes to our table; in the remotest ends of the earth fruits are cultivated for our consumption, and from far Tasmania we draw part of our apple supply. The variety of vegetable products now available for everyday use is no less remarkable than the growth in the demand, and there is scarcely a desirable vegetable or fruit cultivated under the sun which is not to be found in the Bazaar of Glasgow. The development of the foreign traffic has had a marvellous influence in stimulating the home industry in fruit and vegetables. Fields are now stocked with growing vegetables and fruits which till recently were never cultivated outside kitchen gardens; and acres of glass houses are devoted to the cultivation of forced fruits, which but a few years ago were quite unknown in our midst.

As a result of the phenomenal development of the vegetable and fruit
trade, the Bazaar of Glasgow, which is the pivot on which the traffic turns, is entirely inadequate for the demands on its space. In the congestion of its approaches in the early parts of the day, and in the bustle and confusion that pervade the whole place throughout market hours, it is not incomparable to Covent Garden and its surroundings. The result of the cramped and hampered conditions is that a large proportion of the trade, which naturally and properly should pass through the Bazaar, is carried on in great warehouses built in the neighbourhood, and the chief good effected by the institution consists in centring the wholesale trade in one well-defined district of the City.

The Bazaar business has changed with the changing times. Retail trade is still carried on, but it is on the most insignificant scale, and steadily the tendency is towards dealing on the great scale. Nearly all the stanceholders, of whom there are about two dozen, hold auctioneers' licenses, and conduct a large portion of their business by auction methods. In summer, during the height of the fruit season, auction sales are held daily beginning at 9 o'clock; and during the winter months such sales are held only thrice a week, beginning at 11 o'clock in the forenoon. With increasing trade and restricted accommodation there has arisen a strong competition for stances in the Bazaar, which therefore has become a highly remunerative property to the Common Good of the City. Within ten years the receipts for stances have increased from a little more than £2000 to over £3300. The stances are let on monthly occupancies with rents payable in advance; but the Town Council reserves the right, in lieu of rent, to charge such dues on goods as they may fix.

Cheese Market. A portion of the Bazaar, entirely distinct and divided off from the fruit and vegetable stances, and having its own entrance in South Albion Street, is allotted to the wholesale cheese market. About 1500 square yards of floor space is devoted to it on the South Albion Street side, and in galleries one stair up carried round three sides of the north division of the vegetable market. The cheese market is open only on Tuesdays, Wednesdays, and Fridays, and the business is entirely wholesale. The market is, indeed, the lineal representative of the ancient cheese market of Glasgow, which was held on certain days under magisterial supervision, and in which dues were charged according to the quantity offered for sale. The cheese sold is entirely native produce, principally the kinds known as Cheddar and Dunlop from Ayrshire. There is no appropriation of stances or positions to dealers, and any one who has cheese to sell may have it placed on the racks in the market on payment of the prescribed dues. A rent charge is made at the rate of 4s. 6d. per ton for all cheese brought into the market. For a payment at that rate the cheese is weighed and allowed to remain over two market days, but if not sold and removed within that time, an additional charge of 1s. per week or part of a week is levied on every ton weight. Goods sold must be taken away within forty-eight hours;
MUNICIPAL MARKETS

if left longer, a charge of 2s. per ton for every day or part of a day after
the expiry of the forty-eight hours is made.

The Bazaar is under the direct control of the Markets Sub-Committee of
the Corporation, under whom a superintendent deals with stanceholders and
their servants, and supervises the working of the institution in accordance
with the code of bye-laws drawn up in 1883 and approved of by the Home
Secretary. These bye-laws regulate the times of opening and closing, give
powers to deal with drunk and disorderly persons and loiterers, and to regulate
the traffic within the Bazaar. They also provide for keeping the place clean
and free from obstructions, for regulating fires and preventing conflagration,
for the confiscation and destruction of unwholesome goods, for the regulating
of auction sales, and for the licensing of porters, jobbers, etc.

As an asset in the accounts of the Common Good the Bazaar has in-
cluded with it certain properties facing the four streets which bound it, and the
City Hall which is elevated over its central area. Together they stand in
the books at a valuation of £117,000, they yield a revenue of £7500, of
which £4300 is credited to the Bazaar side, while the annual expenditure is
£3600, one-half of which goes against the Bazaar. The balance represents
the Corporation's interest and profit on the undertaking.

The Bird and Dog Market. Why the Corporation should be specially
concerned with the traffic in canary birds, pigeons, rabbits, and dogs is not
very obvious; but that the market meets a public want is a sufficient justi-
fication of its existence. Its institution has put an end to the hawking of
such live stock along the streets, and to the establishment of a prescriptive
right to a street market, which under modern conditions would prove an
unmitigated nuisance. The Bird and Dog Market under comfortable and
convenient conditions enables fanciers and dealers to come together; it gives
a richer choice to the one side and a better market to the other, all at a very
small charge which recoups the Corporation for the trouble and expenditure.

The market within living memory was centred in Cochrane Street; sub-
sequently the dealers migrated to Ingram Street, and attached their cages
to the railings of the Ramshorn (St. David's) Church. Thence they were
moved under magisterial authority to a lane between the Central Police Office
and the Bazaar, and latterly they were accommodated with a wooden shed
in Jail Square, where now the market stands. It is a spacious and sub-
stantial masonry erection covering an area of 720 square yards, lighted from
the roof, and flanked, in the front facing the Green, with shops. The present
structure was opened for business in December, 1876, and it stands in the
accounts of the Common Good at a value of £4000. It is rented to tacks-
men for £112 per year, and from shop rents another £110 is drawn.

The market is held on Monday, Wednesday, and Saturday, and is
divided into a wholesale and a retail department. The wholesale side is set
apart for dealers who have stock to dispose of to stanceholders or other
retailers. A charge of a halfpenny for each creature exposed in it is made, and buyers other than stanceholders pay a penny for admission to the wholesale market. In the retail department stances, 6 feet wide by 9½ feet high, are let for not more that 3s. per week, and casual dealers are charged a penny per day for each animal they bring in, and a halfpenny for each cage space they occupy. Cages are supplied in the market, when necessary, for a halfpenny per day.

The Clothes' Market, or in popular parlance Paddy's Market, an institution primarily for trafficking in old clothes offers a very curious example of magisterial supervision. The market is really an outcome of purely humanitarian care for the very humbdest stratum of the population. About the middle of the century a site was granted for it on an uncovered space in Jail Square where the Bird and Dog Market is now established. Subsequently it was accommodated in a partly-roofed space in the old City slaughter-house with entry from the Briggate; and in July, 1875, the present spacious market in Greendyke Street, with a floor area of 2380 square yards, was opened.

The market is farmed out at an annual rental of £2295, in addition to the cost of watching, lighting, cleaning, and keeping the internal fittings in repair. For this the tacksman is entitled to charge rent for stances at the rate of not more than 5s. per day, and 1s. per day for the use of a lockfast store. Shopkeepers and retail dealers who have no stance nor store, when purchasing in the wholesale market, are required to pay 6d. per day; and every person who enters the market with goods for disposal to dealers is liable to be charged one penny. The market is open every day at nine o'clock, closing in summer at eight, in winter at seven, and on Saturdays throughout the year at ten o'clock.

The market stands in the Common Good Accounts at a value of £27,500. The ordinary expenditure amounts to about £480, which deducted from the rent leaves £1850 as the rent and profit of the Corporation for its participation in this humble, but, at present, useful traffic.

Markets Commissioners. By an Act of Parliament—Glasgow Markets and Slaughter-houses Act—passed in 1865, the Town Council were constituted Commissioners for holding and managing the Cattle and Horse Market, the Slaughter-houses and the Fish Market of the City. Subsequent measures passed in 1871, 1877, 1884, confirmed and enlarged their powers under the original Act, and specially gave them power to add a Dead Meat Market to the conveniences of the Cattle Market of the City.

Cattle Market, etc. In the year 1818 the Cattle Market, as we have seen, was removed to what was then the eastern bounds of the City, and established on a space which had been intended for an open square in the district. At frequent intervals it has been much enlarged, and now the market covers an area of 35,000 square yards, a large proportion of which is roofed over, and it provides accommodation for showing for sale about
2000 cattle and 15,000 sheep in pens; and, at the same time, 1000 cattle can be loose up in sheds, and 160 milch cows can be fed in byres within the market. A hotel, several bank offices, and numerous other offices are accommodated within its bounds. *En suite* with the Cattle Market there is a Horse Bazaar, occupying an area of 980 square yards, with the necessary stables for putting up 112 horses. The Moore Street Slaughter-houses attached to the market extend over 12,500 square yards of ground; and the Dead Meat Market, erected under powers of the 1877 Act and opened for trade in 1879, covers about 3700 square yards. For many years the market accommodation, specially the slaughter-house side, has been cramped and inconvenient; and plans are now under consideration for greatly adding to the lairage and slaughter-houses, for providing for the scientific inspection of carcases, and for otherwise bringing the resources and accessories of the markets fully abreast of the most completely equipped institutions of the kind in the kingdom or on the continent.

These markets and slaughter-houses are enclosed in an area bounded by Duke Street on the north, Moore Street on the west, Gallowgate on the south, and Bellgrove on the east. The City Union Railway passes in a tunnel under the market, and from it, by extensive cattle sidings, there is direct communication to the market from both the North British and the Glasgow and South-Western Railway Companies. The other great Scottish Railway Company, the Caledonian, although serving the largest cattle producing area of the north country, has no direct access to the market, and is bound either to drive live stock through the streets from St. Rollox depot, or to pass over its north country cattle traffic to the North British system at Greenhill.

The principal Cattle Market day is Wednesday; but the market is open for business every day of the week. Under the Glasgow Corporation Act the maximum tolls leviable are for oxen, cows, bulls, and heifers per head 9d.; for sheep and lambs per head 1d., for calves 2d.; for swine and goats 3d.; in the Horse Market the rates are for animals over 13 hands high 6d., and under 13 hands 3d. In the year ending 30th May, 1896, there were exposed for sale in the market 59,247 cattle, 245 calves, 439,584 sheep, 29 goats, 9235 swine, and 15,385 horses.

Section 52 of the Glasgow Markets and Slaughter-houses Act, 1865, makes it clear that the legislature meant the Markets Trustees to have a monopoly of market rights in cattle and horses within the City. The clause reads: "Every person who shall sell or expose to sale any cattle or any horses, mule or ass in any public place within the limits of this Act, or within three miles of the cross of Glasgow except in the market-places established by the trustees, shall for every such offence be liable to a penalty not exceeding five pounds; and after a market-place for the sale of raw hides shall be opened by the Commissioners, every person who
shall sell or expose for sale or cause to be exposed for sale any raw hide or hides of cattle in any public place within the limits of this Act or within three miles of the Cross of Glasgow except in the market-place established or to be established by the trustees, shall for every hide so sold or exposed to sale be liable to a penalty not exceeding ten shillings; provided also that none of the penalties before mentioned shall extend to any cattle, horse, mule, ass, or raw hide exposed to sale or sold in the Burgh of Rutherglen, or in the villages of Pollokshaws, Langside, or Long Govan, in the counties of Renfrew or Lanark, or to any private sale thereof in private premises, or to any sale thereof in such premises by a licensed auctioneer, or in the case of raw hides to any private sale thereof in the slaughter-houses."

Section 13 of the Markets and Fairs Clauses Act (1847), also incorporated in the Act, is to the following effect: "After the market-place is opened for public use, every person other than a licensed hawker, who shall sell or expose for sale in any place within the prescribed limits, except in his own dwelling-place or shop, any articles in respect of which tolls are by the special Act authorized to be taken in the market, shall for every such offence be liable to a penalty not exceeding forty shillings."

Notwithstanding the manifest purport of these clauses many firms of auctioneers and certain semi-public associations deal in cattle in the immediate neighbourhood of the market, and there are horse bazaars throughout the City where periodical auction sales are advertised and conducted. In his examination before the Royal Commission on Market Rights and Tolls in 1889, Bailie Stevenson, chairman of the markets committee, stated: "I submit that such sales are really rival markets and contraventions of the protection which was intended by the above sections to be given to public bodies, who, in the interest of the community and under the authority of Parliament, had provided markets and slaughter-houses. The language of the above section is, however, somewhat unfortunate and ambiguous, and I submit that you should recommend that it be amended by public legislation, so as to make it clear that such sales outwith the Cattle Market are illegal."

To the Commissioners Bailie Stevenson also complained of the absence of power to seize and condemn animals apparently unfit for human food; and he pointed out that the existence of numerous semi-private markets rendered the detection of disease among animals an undertaking of great difficulty.

Slaughter-houses. In the meantime there are three public slaughter-houses in the City: Moore Street, at the Cattle Market, in the east; Scott Street, off Dobbie's Loan, in the north; and Victoria Street, in the southern district. But as soon as the contemplated additions to the accommodation at Moore Street shall have been carried into effect, it is intended to concentrate the whole of the business in that huge place, where indeed by far
the greater part of the slaughtering is already carried out. The sheds and yards at Moore Street presently provide accommodation for dealing with 560 cattle, 2500 sheep, and 240 pigs at one time; and the dues payable on animals killed in the public abattoirs are: for oxen, 9d. per head; for calves, sheep, and goats, 1½d. each; for lambs, 3d.; and for pigs, 1s. The following table shows the number of animals dealt with in the three slaughter-houses in Glasgow yearly from 1st June, 1890, till 31st May, 1896:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Oxen</th>
<th>Calves</th>
<th>Sheep</th>
<th>Lambs</th>
<th>Pigs</th>
<th>Goats</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1891</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>36,008</td>
<td>1502</td>
<td>177,687</td>
<td>38,081</td>
<td>28,497</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1892</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>39,032</td>
<td>2451</td>
<td>215,686</td>
<td>56,366</td>
<td>30,621</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1893</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>56,304</td>
<td>3143</td>
<td>242,038</td>
<td>68,178</td>
<td>23,760</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1894</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>45,263</td>
<td>3339</td>
<td>242,333</td>
<td>85,323</td>
<td>28,533</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1895</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>43,668</td>
<td>2880</td>
<td>224,188</td>
<td>65,136</td>
<td>39,409</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1896</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>39,554</td>
<td>2537</td>
<td>211,908</td>
<td>51,601</td>
<td>54,878</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The fluctuations under the head of oxen, and the serious decrease in recent years, are accounted for by the growing importations of foreign cattle, which, under Board of Agriculture regulations, must be slaughtered at the landing place. On that account a huge abattoir has been established at Yorkhill, at which, in the meantime, a large proportion of the meat supply of Glasgow is obtained.

The Dead Meat Market, also facing Moore Street, and extending to Graham Square, opened in 1879, was a necessary outcome of the successful inauguration of the ocean traffic in carcases during that decade. The meat came at first from America in chambers chilled by air passing over ice, a method of limited and imperfect application, which, however, was sufficient for the comparatively short Atlantic voyage. The invention of the Bell-Colman dry-air refrigerator and other cold-producers put it within the power of shippers to draw from all parts of the world, and with the introduction of such machines the trade in foreign dead meat became an established factor in the food supply of the United Kingdom, with which home stock rearers had to reckon. The facilities offered by the Dead Meat Market have exercised a marked influence over the retail butcher trade in the West of Scotland. The market may now be regarded as the central depot of the wholesale meat business, and the butchers, instead of dealing in live animals, buy from the exposed carcases such portions and qualities as suit their business; and thus the trade is better and more economically supplied, and food is more expeditiously distributed than under the old system.

In the Dead Meat Market there are 45 stances let weekly, at the rate of ½d. per square foot per week, to wholesale dealers, from which a rent of about £1,200 is obtained. In addition dues are levied on carcases at the following rates: For oxen, 6d.; for fall calves, 3d.; slink calves, 1d.; sheep
and lambs, 1d. each; and for pigs, 2d. per animal. There is also exigible, for weighing meat, a toll at the rate of ½d. per hundredweight or any part thereof.

Under the Police Amendment Act, 1890, greatly enlarged powers were granted to the police authorities for the inspection and seizure of suspected animal food, and for the destruction of carcases, etc., which have been condemned as unfit for consumption. Not only can the person in whose possession such meat is found be proceeded against, but the original seller, wherever the sale may have taken place, is subject also to prosecution, and liable for the same pains and penalties as the immediate owner or possessor of the suspected meat.

Comprehensively viewed the Cattle Market may be looked on as a great factory for the preparation of butcher meat, with a depot for its distribution, and with several sections for dealing with the by-products and waste material of the industry. Without coming on any public street, animals—the raw material—may be brought from the railway siding direct into the market. Thence, after sale, they pass into the slaughter-house department; and as dressed meat they are conveyed into the Dead Meat Market, from which the carcases are distributed to the shops of the retailers. The blood is carefully collected, and goes principally to the albumen makers; hides are conveyed to the hide markets; and tallow is prepared for the market in the searching-room, and is sold by auction in the sale-room of the dealers in hides, and taken direct from the searching-room to the warehouses of the purchasers. A large department, fitted with numerous steam-heated iron vats and cold water troughs, is devoted to the preparation of tripe, where that material is cleaned, soured, and prepared for sale and cooking; and a section of the same place is set apart for the cleaning and preparation of ox and calf feet, and the hoofs there separated are sold to comb factories, etc. In the gut-cleaning department intestines are prepared for the sausage makers and for other purposes, and bladders are inflated and dried for the various uses of that membrane. All these departments bring a certain amount of grist to the mill of the Markets Commissioners, and among them they dispose of everything that belongs to or comes from the slaughtered creatures.

Fish Market. The Fish Market, situated by the side of the river between East Clyde Street and the Briggate, covers an area of upwards of 2000 square yards. Nominally it is divided into a wholesale and a retail department, but while it possesses conveniences for retail dealers, practically there is scarcely any such business in the market. The revenue of the market is derived from the renting of stances, of which there are forty-seven, and from dues on goods brought into the market by dealers who are not stanceholders; but the latter source of income has completely dried up, showing that the whole trade is in the hands of the established
dealers. The rents levied for stances are at the rate of 4s. 6d. per annum for each square foot of space occupied, payable weekly in advance; and casual dealers getting the use of a stance pay 4d. for each box or barrel of fish they bring into or buy within the market.

The Commissioners have the same claims for a monopoly of the wholesale trade for fish as they possess for meat under the Glasgow Markets and Slaughter-houses Act of 1865; but no attempt has been made to enforce such rights, nor to cause the wholesale trade to pass through the market, or to pay dues to the Commissioners. With the view of detecting and condemning unsound fish, as well as from other considerations of public policy and convenience, the Commissioners consider that all wholesale fish trade outside the limits of the market should be expressly prohibited.

For the year ended 31st May, 1895, the entire revenue of the Markets Commissioners amounted to £22,500. In that amount the principal items were: from the Cattle Market £6,300, Moore Street Slaughter-house £5,500, the Dead Meat Market £3,200, and the Triperies £1,800. The Fish Market yielded £2,900, and the remaining items of revenue arose out of the minor slaughter-houses, and from various properties adjacent to the markets owned by the Commissioners. The ordinary expenditure was £17,000, including £6,600 of interest and sinking fund, leaving £5,500 of a surplus revenue; but deducting £2,200 of extraordinary expenditure the actual excess amounted only to £3,300 on the year's transactions. Under the capital account the Cattle Market with its accessories, the Dead Meat Market, Moore Street Slaughter-house, and several adjoining properties, are valued at £182,300; Milton and Victoria Street Slaughter-houses, £16,900; property at Victoria Street, £2,900. The Fish Market is valued at £40,000, and contiguous property represents £13,900. These sums, with movable property and open accounts, raise the assets to £260,800, against liabilities equal to £160,000, bringing out free assets amounting to £100,800. The liabilities are principally loans from Corporation loans fund £129,700, and sinking fund £27,800.

Foreign Cattle. When the Contagious Diseases (Animals) Act of 1878 was passed, it was not anticipated that the Magistrates and Town Council, constituted Local Authority under its provisions, would, in that capacity, become owners of the chief cattle markets, and come into the control of a large share of the meat trade of Glasgow. Under the Privy Council they were entrusted with the duty of dealing with contagious outbreaks among animals, with compensating owners for the loss of herds, and with the levying of rates to meet such compensation allowance. The importation of foreign cattle is, under Privy Council—now Board of Agriculture—orders, only permitted at certain specified landing places, and except under special exemption all animals must be slaughtered where they are landed. For some years there was permission to import, and pass into the country, cattle
MUNICIPAL GLASGOW

from Canada, where there are stringent and efficient cattle quarantine laws. On account of the exemption of Canadian cattle it became necessary to keep them entirely separate from all other imported stock which fell to be slaughtered at the landing-place. Special landing-place and lairage for Canadian cattle were provided first at Plantation Wharf within the harbour, and subsequently at Shieldhall, on the south side of the river, below Govan, whence live stock was moved to abattoirs, or into the country for feeding purposes as desired. For the reception of other foreign cattle, landing, lairage, and slaughtering accommodation was secured on ground leased from the Clyde Trustees at Pointhouse Wharf, Yorkhill, on the north side of the river. Begun on a modest scale the trade in live cattle increased with marvellous rapidity, and with it there were required many changes and increases in the accommodation for the trade. In 1894 there was completed, at a cost of almost £50,000, a nearly entire reconstruction of the Yorkhill lairage, etc., giving provision at that landing-place for dealing with 4000 cattle. The slaughtering accommodation and conveniences are of the most improved description, and spacious chill rooms have been provided in which meat can be stored and preserved in perfectly sound condition any length of time. In all, the capital expenditure on Shieldhall and Yorkhill has amounted to upwards of £110,000; but of that about £25,000 has been written off on account of the sale of old materials, and removal from the west lairages at Yorkhill on the completion of the new buildings on the east section of that landing-place.

The trade is almost entirely in cattle and sheep, with an occasional but altogether insignificant consignment of calves and pigs. Beyond the United States and Canada only two regions whence supplies have been drawn appear in the Clyde list. From the Argentine Republic, in two years, a small number of cattle, 267 in all, and 2744 sheep were received; and within the two years, ending in May, 1896, a considerable and increasing trade in sheep from Iceland has grown up. In the year ended May, 1895, there were imported 7479 Iceland sheep, and in the following year the number increased to 10,844. The cattle trade from the United States began in June, 1879, and in the following twelve months 5065 head were landed. In the next year the number rose to 9221; in 1884 it was 19,443, a maximum it did not again reach till 1889, when it amounted to 21,569. From that it increased to 43,580 in 1892, which is the high-water mark of the United States cattle trade up to this time, for, after dropping to 31,591 in 1893, and to 30,381 in 1895, the number reached only 38,426 in 1896. The Canadian cattle trade has also grown to great dimensions, but that too in a fluctuating manner. In its first complete year, ended May, 1881, there were imported 14,591 head. After a decline of 3000 in each of the next two years the figures bounded up to 17,585 in 1884, and, continuing to mount, reached 26,036 in 1887. After another great drop
MUNICIPAL MARKETS

and gradual rise the imports reached the maximum 38,026 in 1891. In 1893 29,886 were inspected and passed, but 243 were ordered to be slaughtered. In the following year the number inspected and passed was only 16,000, and 1778 were slaughtered. In that year the order of the Board of Agriculture permitting the distribution of Canadian cattle was rescinded, and during the two years, ended May, 1896, the importations from Canada have been 18,240 and 22,584 respectively, all of which have been slaughtered on landing. The withdrawal of the exemption of Canadian cattle from compulsory slaughter has rendered it unnecessary to maintain any distinction in landing, and in the meantime, since 1st January, 1896, the Shieldhall landing-place and lairage have not been in use. At the present time the Yorkhill stage is the only public landing-place for foreign cattle in Scotland.

The importations of sheep have been of a very fluctuating and uncertain character. Till 1894 the number brought from the States never exceeded in any one year more than 4000, frequently they were under 1000, and in three separate years there was an entire blank. In 1894 the number brought from the States was 4133, next year the number rose to 32,446, and for the year ended in May, 1896, the number was 19,792. The Canadian sheep trade has been more extensive, but little steadier. For the first complete year ended May, 1881, the Canadian sheep imported numbered 8675; they rose to 12,622 in 1884, whence with fluctuations they descended till, in 1888, they numbered 2448. From 1890 till 1895 they did not reach 1000, the number being only 50 in 1892, and in 1894 there was not a single head imported. Then in 1895 the imports sprang suddenly up to 16,472, and in the year ended May, 1896, the maximum number of 34,724 Canadian sheep was brought to the Clyde. In all, since the opening of the Yorkhill and Shieldhall landing-places in 1879 till the 31st of May, 1896, there have been landed 728,967 cattle, 226,539 sheep, and 1213 pigs— a grand total of 956,719 living creatures brought from the Dominion of Canada and from foreign states.

The market days at Yorkhill are Monday and Tuesday weekly, and about 40 per cent. of the carcasses which pass out of the gates are taken to the Dead Mead Market. At that market also all the offal is dealt with; but for convenience a searching-house for tallow, under the supervision of the Markets Commissioners, is maintained at Yorkhill.

Formidable indeed is the competition with Scottish stock farmers, which the figures given above represent, and let it be remembered that this is only one wing of the foe they have to face, for we take no account of the chilled meat trade and the tinned meat industry which from all parts of the world converge on our island. But to the wage-earning millions the point of view is different, and were it not for this foreign competition animal food would certainly have reached prohibitive prices in the British Islands, and it would have been as rare as hot-house grapes on the tables of the poor.
CHAPTER XXVIII.

THE CORPORATION TRAMWAYS.


When the formation of street tramways in Glasgow was first suggested it was not contemplated that the Corporation should have any direct interest in the enterprise, either in the way of making the lines or in working the traffic; but our ends have been so shaped that the lines from the first were municipal property, and in later days the Town Council saw fit to take the working of the traffic into their own hands. In undertaking the duties of public carriers of passenger traffic the Council became committed to a huge and very significant extension in communal activity, but the step was not without logical and practical sanction. The streets of any city are in the widest sense public property, open to the traffic of the whole world. In their use there can be no monopoly, and only such restriction as may be needed to enable all to enjoy to the full their advantages. A line of tramway rails is in an entirely different position. It forms a natural monopoly special and limited in its application, and of necessity restricted and exclusive in its use. It was manifestly right that the official conservators of the public streets should have the first, if not the sole, right of carrying rail tracks through them. Although Parliament did not in the beginning contemplate conferring general powers of working tramways as a municipal enterprise,
and indeed had a standing order against granting such powers, yet we cannot
but regard the distinction between working the property direct or through
the agency of a leaseholder as one of convenience, not of principle; and
being the owner of the tramways, the Corporation has naturally the right
and even the duty of directing the traffic on them. The question simply
resolves itself into whether a corporation can best serve the interests of a
community by direct service or through the medium of a commercial agency.
That question the Tramways Committee of the Town Council, after an
experience of leasing their property for twenty-three years to a public com-
pany, and after two years' direct working, have now solved.

Tramway enterprise, as we have said, did not begin in Glasgow through
the direct initiation of the Town Council. About 1870, when the tramway
fever overran the country, two rival companies sought to induce Parliament
to entrust them with the exclusive rights of laying down street tr胺-
ways in Glasgow. Between these would-be benefactors the Town Council
interposed, opposing the projects of both, and ultimately an agreement was
arrived at under which their Bills were amalgamated. Among the heads
of the agreement there was this important clause that, in the event of the
Bill becoming law, the promoters should suspend all active operations for a
period of six months from the date of enactment, and if within that period
the Corporation determined to enter into possession, the joint promoters
were to stand down and the Town Council were to take their place as owners
of the measure with all the powers and responsibilities it implied. The
Bill was duly passed, the Town Council within the specified time resolved
to take over the Act, and so the duty of making the tramway lines became
part of the functions of Glasgow Town Council. The provisions of the 1870
Act conferred on the Corporation power either to work the tramways as a
municipal enterprise or to lease them to private adventurers. The Council
elected to lease the undertaking, and the British and Foreign Tramway
Company having acquired the promoter's right to a lease under the Act,
the prospectus of the Glasgow Tramway and Omnibus Company was issued
by that body.

The terms of the prospectus provided for a payment of £350,000 to
the British and Foreign Company, in return for which they undertook to
assign the lease to the new company, to equip the tramways with 200 cars
and 50 omnibuses, to supply 2000 horses of an average value of £25 each,
with all the appliances, harness, etc., necessary for working the traffic, and
to endow the company with heritable property of the value of £60,000.
They, moreover, undertook to implement certain agreements entered into
with omnibus proprietors in Glasgow, to bear the expense of the formation
of the company, including a proportion of the cost of administration during
the construction of the lines, and to free the company from certain minor
obligations to the Corporation. After the formation of the Glasgow Tram-
way and Omnibus Company it was found that the full equipment was not required; and of the subscribed capital, 3500 shares at £10, only £8 per share was called up. When accounts came to be cleared between promoters and company, it was found that the Glasgow Tramway and Omnibus Company received in property, plant, horses, and cars to the value of £116,424, and that the cost of the lease was £179,576. The latter amount represented manifestly a heavy deadweight on the Tramway Company's enterprise; and as against it there were no assets whatever the company had to endeavour to extinguish the amount by systematic payments out of revenue.

Between the Corporation and the Glasgow Tramway and Omnibus Company an agreement was drawn up for leasing the lines for a period of twenty-three years from 1st July, 1871. Under the conditions of that agreement the Council undertook to begin the making of the tracks within four months after the 1st of June of that year. The Company on their part were to provide a working capital of not less than £20,000. They undertook to maintain the lines throughout their tenancy in good working condition, to keep up the roadway between the rails and 18 inches beyond the outer rails, and at the end of their lease they bound themselves to hand over the lines in a condition as good as new. For the due implementing of these conditions the company agreed to set apart yearly a sum equal to 4 per cent. of the cost of the construction of the lines, to be applied to their maintenance and renewal. Any unused balance of this renewal fund, it was agreed, should at the close of the lease revert to the company. The further payments by the company to the Corporation were arranged as follows: (1) The recouping to the Corporation of the interest actually paid on the total expenditure on the tramways including parliamentary expenses; (2) payment of 3 per cent. per annum on the same expenditure to a sinking fund for redemption of the debt; (3) a rent equal to £150 per mile for the tramway lines constructed and actually in use; and (4) repayment to the Corporation of the expenditure connected with the Council's management of the tramway undertaking. For the due implementing of their contract the company became bound to invest £60,000 in approved heritable property, over which a bond and disposition in security was to be granted in favour of the Corporation. Future extensions of the tramway system sanctioned by Parliament, it was agreed, should be subject to the same conditions; but a right to oppose any such extensions in Parliament was conceded to the company. A tariff of maximum fares to be charged was scheduled and attached to the agreement, and the company undertook to carry working people morning and evening between the hours of five and seven for half tariff fares. The cars and their rate of travelling were to be subject to the approval of the Corporation, and power to make bye-laws for the regulation of the traffic as well as for
the licensing of drivers and conductors was reserved. Any failure on the part of the company to duly conduct a sufficient service over any line was to be punishable with a penalty of £10 per day, and the recouping of such expense as might be incurred by the Corporation in making good the deficiency, and a general penalty of £1000 for non-fulfilment of the terms of the agreement on either side was imposed. If required, the Corporation became bound to obtain parliamentary authority for making effectual the conditions of the lease.

The construction of the authorized lines was vigorously proceeded with, and on the 19th of July, 1872, the first section was open for traffic. It extended from St. George's Cross to Eglinton Toll, a distance of 2\(\frac{1}{2}\) miles, through New City Road, Cambridge Street, Sauchiehall Street, Renfield Street, Union Street, Jamaica Street, Glasgow Bridge, Bridge Street, and Eglinton Street. Thereafter in quick succession the line in Sauchiehall Street was extended westward from Cambridge Street to Royal Crescent. The line from the east to the west of Glasgow was begun by the formation of the section from Bridgeton Cross to Candleriggs. On the south side a connection was formed from Bridge Street to Paisley Road Toll; and in the west the long stretch from Whiteinch beyond Partick to Royal Crescent, more than 2\(\frac{1}{2}\) miles of line, was constructed—all these being open before the end of 1872. In the following year the line from Whiteinch to Bridgeton Cross was completed by the formation of a connection from Derby Street to Elderslie Street, thence to Jamaica Street, and on to Candleriggs; and in the same year a branch from that trunk stretching from Great Hamilton Street to Camlachie Burn was inaugurated, as was also, a little earlier, the line from St. Vincent Street to Dennistoun. In all, within the first three years of the lease, 15\(\frac{1}{2}\) miles of double track was constructed and opened to traffic through the most crowded thorough-fares of Glasgow. From that period to 1880 the extensions of the system were comparatively unimportant, those of any consequence being the loop from New City Road by Cowcaddens to Sauchiehall Street, from Bridgeton Cross along the London Road, and on the south side the extension from Eglinton Toll to Queen's Park. In 1880 and the two following years important extensions in all amounting to about 9 miles of double track were carried out. These included the prolongation of the Hillhead lines from Belhaven Terrace to Hyndland Road, the extension from Butterbiggins Road, first to Shawlands, and ultimately to Pollokshaws, the formation of the Saltmarket and Govanhill line, the Glassford Street line, the branch from St. George's Cross, first to Garscube Toll, and later to Maryhill terminus, the extension from Camlachie to Parkhead, the Rutherglen Road line with its connections by Govan Street and Norfolk Street. With these all in operation in September, 1882, the City possessed fully 25 miles of double track tramways. Again in 1886 there occurred a period of
activity in tramway development when the extremities of the Crosshill and Govanhill systems were joined by a line along Queen's Drive. The line from Mitchell Street to Great Western Road by Bothwell Street and Woodlands Road was constructed, and the Springburn line was also laid down. In all, on this occasion, about 5 miles of tramway line was formed, one portion along Woodlands Road being single track. Subsequent additions during the currency of the lease were comparatively unimportant, consisting only of minor connections and a short line laid along Sandyford Street, with the view chiefly of accommodating the International Exhibition traffic in 1888. With stable connections, etc., there were at the end of the lease of the Tramway Company about 31½ miles of tramway line in operation.

Under the Corporation Act of 1893 powers were obtained inter alia for the formation of about 7½ miles of new line, and some portions of the routes thus sanctioned were ready for opening on the 1st of July, 1894, the day on which the Corporation entered on the working of the traffic. These lines embrace a branch from Bridgeton Cross by Main Street to Rutherglen Bridge, a line from Argyle Street to Mount Florida through Stockwell Street, Main Street, Gorbals, and Cathcart Street, and an extension from Rockvilla to Possilpark, opened in April, 1896. A connection was made from Bothwell Circus along St. Vincent Street to Dumbarton Road, towards the formation of which line a sum of £2500 was received from the Caledonian Railway in compensation for the interruption of traffic in Argyle Street, caused by the Sunday workings in connection with the formation of the Central Railway. Certain doubling of the Woodlands Road line was also carried out. In all, with depot connections, etc., there was open in Glasgow at the 31st of May, 1896, 35 miles 1 furlong 18 yards of tramways, of which 5 furlongs 61 yards are single track, and 2 miles 1 furlong and 103 yards consist of depot connections.

The tramway lines have been skilfully planned with the view of best serving the great traffic avenues of the City. The heart of Glasgow lies in a triangle formed by the three great railway stations, the Central, St. Enoch, and Queen Street; thence the great arteries of communication radiate in every direction to the outskirts. The main tramway routes in operation, of which there are now 12, are so planned that the cars enter that triangle, and nearly all pass through it going from one extremity of the City to the other. Consequently within this very circumscribed triangle a traveller has the opportunity of proceeding by car to any quarter in the City served by the tramways, and by passing from one car to another he can in succession go over every route without, at any point, walking more than a few yards. The arrangement of long through routes has added greatly to the convenience and celerity of the service without unduly taxing the horses. Cars keep going steadily on picking up and putting down passengers at the most
convenient points. They do not make any arbitrary and somewhat prolonged 
stoppage at one central point where the congestion of other traffic renders 
the shifting of the horses a risky operation, while the obstruction of the road-
way by the standing cars becomes a public nuisance.

For many of the lines formed during the currency and later portion of 
the lease new parliamentary powers had to be obtained. Bills were promoted 
by the Corporation and Acts passed in 1875, 1879, 1884, and 1885, and to 
the whole of these measures the Tramway Company declared their opposition. 
In consequence of their hostile attitude it became necessary for the Corpora-
tion to enter into modified agreements with the company which, while not 
afflicting the original lease, resulted in granting concessions of importance to 
the company in their working of the extensions. The following is a statement 
of the sums expended during the currency of the lease by the Corporation 
on the construction of lines, with the modifications secured by the Tramway 
Company under each new agreement:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Section</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Expenditure</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I.</td>
<td>Expenditure on basis of Original Agreement and Lease with the Company of 1871</td>
<td>£223,563 8 0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>II.</td>
<td>Expenditure under Agreement of 1879, on which neither Sinking Fund nor Renewal Fund is paid</td>
<td>72,533 14 6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>III.</td>
<td>Expenditure under Agreement of 1881, upon which payment of interest, at the same rate as under Original Agreement, was postponed until the lapse of four years from date of opening the lines for traffic, viz., till 15th September, 1886</td>
<td>9,844 4 0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IV.</td>
<td>Expenditure upon the relaying of the lines along Tobago Street, upon which a Sinking Fund of 5 per cent. per annum and interest at rate fixed from time to time under Original Agreement is chargeable</td>
<td>362 11 6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V.</td>
<td>Expenditure under Agreement of 1882, in extension of lines to Pollokshaws, as sanctioned by &quot;The Glasgow Corporation Act, 1884,&quot; upon which interest at 4½ per cent. per annum is chargeable, no payment being made on account of Sinking Fund, mileage rate or renewal</td>
<td>4,260 12 4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| VI.     | Expenditure under Agreement of 1885, on Bothwell Street, Woodlands Road, St. George's Road, and Queen's Drive tramways, on which interest at 4 per cent. per annum is payable, commencing to run at Whit-
sunday, 1887, with mileage rate on 1 mile 6 furlongs 209 yards of the tramways, commencing at Whitsunday, 1892, no Sinking or Renewal Fund being paid | 19,116 14 0 |
| VII.    | Expenditure on lines to Springburn, on which interest is payable at 4 per cent. from date of opening the lines to traffic, no Sinking nor Renewal Funds being provided | 18,168 14 4 |

Total, $\ 347,849 18 8$
Although under these later agreements no renewal fund was provided on the capital expenditure, the accumulations under the original agreement were to be applied equally to the renewal of all lines, old and new.

In 1887 the Tramway Company promoted a Bill in Parliament to widen the scope of their Articles of Association, and to enable them to enter on a class of business foreign to the object for which they were primarily incorporated—the working of the tramways of Glasgow. That measure the Corporation resolved to oppose, and, after negotiations, an agreement was arrived at under which the company consented to withdraw their Bill. In that agreement there was embodied a condition that, five years before the expiry of the company's lease, negotiations should be commenced between the Corporation and the company, with a view to the prolongation of the lease, and that for the pourparlers six months should be allowed. It was made a condition that, in the event of a lease for a prolonged period being agreed on, both parties should reserve the right, at intervals of five years, to have the rent and other financial conditions reconsidered, on either giving six months' notice to the other party. And failing to come to an agreement, it was provided that the Corporation should be free to enter into treaty with other parties.

Under these conditions an interchange of views began in 1889, and a series of conditions of let were formulated by the Corporation, and duly submitted to the company. Into these conditions it is now needless to enter. They were not satisfactory to the company for the reasons that they would, if agreed to, limit the working hours of the tramway servants—the Corporation proposed a sixty-hours' week—that they would narrow the scope of the company's business, and reduce its income from hiring and the carriage of mails and parcels—the Corporation proposals read that the company was to restrict itself to the business set forth in the Articles of Association; that it would take away profit from advertisements in and on cars, which were to be prohibited; and that it would burden the company with unnecessary renewals, and with the expense of uniforms to drivers and conductors. What was most strenuously objected to were the proposals of the Corporation to restrict the lease to five years, and to retain to themselves the right to enter on possession of the lines two years before the expiry of the lease for the purpose of adapting them for mechanical haulage. The conditions which were most popular with the public were the resolution of the Corporation to restrict the hours of labour of tramway servants, and to insist that the car attendants should be properly dressed. No agreement was arrived at between the parties, who on several points stood resolutely apart, and the statutory time for the negotiations expired, leaving the Corporation with a free hand to deal with other offerers, or to undertake the duties of the traffic as a municipal enterprise.

There never was any thought of inviting offers from a second party, and the Council turned earnestly to the question of taking the working into their own hands. Some doubts having been expressed as to their legal right to
undertake such work, and as to the financial arrangements involved in it, an opinion was obtained from the Attorney-General of England and the Lord Advocate of Scotland, which clearly and unequivocally maintained that the Corporation possessed powers to work their whole lines, and to employ the resources of the Common Good towards the equipment of the undertaking.

In the meantime the Tramway Company prepared for a struggle with their old opponents the Tramway Committee. They presented a petition to the Court of Session for powers to widen the scope of their Articles of Association, so as to enable them to carry on business, not only as a Glasgow Tramway Company, but also as omnibus, road car, coach, stage carriage, and cab proprietors, carting and general contractors, carriers and undertakers. Notwithstanding the opposition of the Corporation the powers asked for were granted, and the company found themselves in a position to compete with the Corporation for the street traffic of Glasgow. They anticipated that with their large capital, their hands free from all Corporation control, and unhampered by mileage rate, sinking fund, and other charges, and with liberty to charge such fares as they considered expedient, they would be able to control the passenger traffic of the City. Naturally they set themselves to encourage their non-tramway trade, and smart 'buses drawn by four horses were placed as models on certain important routes, and off the rails traffic was fostered in the most careful and painstaking manner.

Some time after the failure of the lease negotiations, and after the Corporation had determined to enter on the tramway working, in accordance with agreement conditions, they approached the company with the view of acquiring their stations and plant, or such proportion of these as might be required for the traffic. In December, 1891, the company offered under certain conditions to sell to the Corporation their whole property, plant, and horses, or alternatively to sell their five properties, 250 cars at least, and not fewer than 1500 horses, the price of the properties to be paid at Whit-sunday, 1892, and the company to lease these from then till the 1st July, 1894, at a rental of 5 per cent. on their price, the cars and horses to be paid at the end of the company's lease.

In their half-yearly report, issued soon thereafter, a statement was made of the intention of the company to organize a complete system of omnibus traffic in the streets of Glasgow, and thereupon the Tramway Committee caused an intimation to be made to the effect that, as a condition essential to the continuance of the negotiations, the company should undertake not to enter into competition with the Corporation in carrying street traffic of the kind served by tramway cars. This condition the Tramway Company declined to recognize. They pointed out that they did not offer to sell the goodwill of their business; that they had bought up omnibus companies' undertakings at large prices, and they complained that the Corporation had
in the middle of their negotiations imported new conditions into their proposals. Moreover, they affirmed that, on the faith of the original basis of advances on the part of the Corporation, important and valuable details of the company's business had been imparted, which might properly enough be given to a bonâ fide buyer, but which would never be communicated to a rival. After the interchange of certain further recriminations and justifications these negotiations also ceased, and the Corporation and company stood prepared for war to the knife.

The Tramway Committee were now left with little more than two years in which to obtain sites and build depots, stables, and car sheds for their extensive business, to procure cars, to collect horses sufficient to equip an army, to accustom those animals to their work, and to organize a personal establishment of considerably over one thousand hands. They had, moreover, to consider the question of mechanical as against horse haulage, but the time at their disposal practically shelved that subject. Nevertheless in all their plans the probability of substituting some form of mechanical haulage for horse-power was kept in view, and the depots and stations were acquired and planned, primarily to accommodate horses and horse-drawn cars, yet so as to be serviceable for other forms of power, should such afterwards be resolved on. Indeed, in relaying the lines along Trongate and Argyle Street, lifted in connection with the Central Railway operations, cast-iron boxes have been fitted for holding sheaves or blocks, in view of the possible adoption of cable haulage on that important section.

At midnight on Saturday, 30th June, 1894, the Tramway Company finally withdrew their cars from the streets of Glasgow, and on Sunday, 1st July, the Corporation service was inaugurated. To get everything ready for this start had involved a vast amount of preparation, and a necessarily great expenditure all within a limited period. Sites for depots, stables, and car sheds had to be selected, and the necessary erections planned and carried out without delay. Nine convenient sites were acquired, two on the south side—Coplawhill and Kinning Park; two in the western district—Kelvinhaugh and Partick; three in the northern part of the City—Maryhill, Cowcaddens, and Springburn; and two in the east—Whitevale and Dalmarnock. At these various establishments there was provided stabling for 3500 horses, sheds for 300 cars, and accommodation for other vehicles, such as lorries, water vans, brakes, and offices and stores. At the Coplawhill establishment, in addition to sheds, stables, and offices, there was erected car-building and repairing works, a saddlery factory, a rail repairing shop and general stores; and at Kinning Park the granaries and forage stores for the entire system were centred. Fully three months before taking over the traffic several of the stables and sheds were ready for occupation. Then the purchase of horses was entered upon, and simultaneously the delivery of new cars, which were contracted for in
Birmingham and Shrewsbury, began. Before the end of May, upwards of 3000 horses, drawn from all parts of the United Kingdom, France, Canada, and the United States, were purchased, and as far as possible the animals were practised in drawing cars over short reaches of lines leading to and from the sheds—for the Committee were precluded from using the street tracks. Before the end of June 244 cars of a light and elegant construction, having capacity for 40 passengers each—18 inside and 22 outside—were delivered, and the 1st of July found the department fully equipped and ready to offer a service little short of that till then conducted by the Tramway Company.

That service began with running only 108 cars, and with horses doing half work, for it was judged prudent to harden and train the animals to their labour by degrees. Simultaneously the Tramway Company put 175 omnibuses, drawn each by three horses, on the familiar routes, and proceeded to do their best to "blanket" the car traffic. From the first halfpenny stages of about half-a-mile were adopted on the cars, and on the 'buses that minimum fare soon afterwards was conceded. The number of Corporation cars was quickly added to, and within three months more than double the original service was placed on the streets. Moreover, a revised tariff of fares was adopted, under which the penny stages were greatly lengthened, and long through routes were arranged. Facilities for street locomotion in Glasgow were thus plentiful and cheap, but the rumbling of the heavy 'buses was the cause of a distracting din. It was not long till it became obvious that the Tramway Company were waging an unequal war. In the struggle for public patronage the car waxed and the 'bus waned; in the end the company had to confess themselves beaten, and by degrees they withdrew from the contest.

During the first eleven months of the Corporation service, from 1st July, 1894, to 31st May, 1895, cars with small omnibuses for terminal traffic to a maximum number of 272 in any week, ran 5,192,031 miles, carrying 57,104,647 passengers, about 39 per cent. of whom paid one halfpenny only, and the total receipts from fares amounted to £221,121, being at the rate of 10'26d. per car mile. In addition to the opposition of the Tramway Company, the Corporation enterprise had several adverse circumstances against which to contend. A very large number of horses were at first idle and unremunerative, and although they consumed full rations and were otherwise costly to keep and manage, they did only half work. Then a winter of quite unexampled severity and duration had to be faced, which at once added to the expenditure and decreased the income. The Corporation, moreover, deliberately cut off one source of revenue from advertisements, and on the cars they dressed their drivers and conductors in neat uniforms, and they reduced the hours of labour to as nearly as practicable ten hours daily. They must further be credited with greatly
improving the traffic by the employment at all stations of an adequate staff, and even such small details as the employment of points boys at junctions did not a little to expedite and improve the running. With all their additional expenditure, with cheapening of fares, and with the cutting off of revenue, it was with more than relief that the Tramway Committee were able to end their eleven months working with a fair credit balance of £24,204, and that after allowing £18,644 for maintenance and renewals of tracks, buildings, horses, and equipment. Out of the £24,204 profit £9,193 was written off capital account in name of depreciation, £6,750 was placed to the beginning of a permanent way renewal fund, and to the Common Good there was paid £8,260, being eleven months' proportion of the agreed on annual payment of £9,000.

The accounts for the first complete financial year, ended 31st May, 1896, present even a more favourable picture than the statement for the preceding eleven months. In that year the mileage run was 6,932,650 miles, the passengers carried numbered 86,462,594, and the traffic receipts were £328,827, being an average of 11'38d. per car mile. Extra receipts raised the revenue to £334,337; and, the total working expenses being £251,110, there remained a balance of £83,267. After paying interest on capital £12,656, sinking fund £10,541, the stipulated contribution to the Common Good £9,000, depreciation £17,809, and crediting the permanent way renewal fund with £17,000, there was still left a balance of £16,259, which has been placed to the credit of a general renewal fund.

In connection with this gratifying result it should, however, be remembered that the Tramway Committee obtained possession of lines at a cost of £143,000, on the making of which £345,000 had been expended. The capital expenditure on lines at the close of the Tramway Company's lease amounted to £344,965, but towards the reduction of that total payments to sinking fund from the Tramway Company and interest allowed by the Corporation on the accumulations amounted to £201,470; hence the balance of the Tramway Construction Account when the undertaking reverted to the Corporation was £143,495. As a return the Tramway Committee came under obligation to pay yearly into the Common Good the sum of £9,000, which payment is made a first charge on the profits of the undertaking. In the last complete year of the company's enterprise their payments to the Corporation amounted to £30,018, made up of interest on capital expenditure, £12,465; mileage rate, £3071; sinking fund, £6725; renewal fund, £7456; and allowances for Chamberlain's department expenses, £300; and the converse payments of the Corporation amounted to £24,358, comprising interest, £9876; the sinking fund and renewal payments, £6725 and £7456 respectively; and the expenses of the Chamberlain's department, £300—leaving a free revenue to the Common Good of £5600.

In all, the total amount received by the Corporation from the company
during the currency of the twenty-three years' lease was £240,239 in name of interest on capital expenditure, and £45,992 as mileage rate: while the sum expended by the Corporation for interest on current tramway debt and on sinking fund was £222,604, leaving a balance of £63,628, or an annual average of £2766 as the mileage rate and other profits of the Corporation. In addition the Corporation received, as above stated, £201,470 towards the cost of construction of the lines, reducing the capital account by that amount, and enabling the Tramway Committee, as we have already seen, to enter in possession of a property which cost almost £345,000 at a nominal cost of £143,495.

The capital account of the Corporation Tramways, as at 31st May, 1896, stood at £582,993. The chief items which go to make up this respectable total are the permanent way account, which stood at £172,067; and ground, buildings, and fittings, which cost £184,901. The horses, 4082 in number, stand in the books at £114,296; the cars and other rolling stock come to £49,949; miscellaneous expenses incurred previous to 1st July, 1894, add other £38,992; and harness, utensils, uniforms, and furniture are responsible for the balance of the capital expenditure.
CHAPTER XXIX.

THE CLYDE NAVIGATION.


"Glasgow made the Clyde—the Clyde made Glasgow." In such brief and pithy terms much of the secret of the prosperity and the remarkable commercial development of the City is to be found. Among the undertakings fostered and built up under the supervision of the Town Council of Glasgow none is comparable in magnitude and in far-reaching influence to the work done by and for the City in developing the navigation of the Clyde up to the harbour of Glasgow. From time immemorial the City of Glasgow has been in possession of extensive powers and privileges over the river from the City outwards—rights which not infrequently brought the burghers into conflict with their neighbours in the Burgh of Dumbarton. The ancient privileges of Glasgow were narrated, confirmed, and renewed to the citizens under the great charter of Charles I., granted in 1636, instituting the City as a Royal Burgh. In that important deed it is narrated that "the Provost, Bailies, Councillors, and community of our said Burgh and City of Glasgow have undertaken not a few excellent works, and expended great charges and expenses these many years past, in rendering the River of Clotta, that is the River of Clyd, upon which the said City is founded and situated, navigable for ships, boats, and barks, and other vessels, for importing and exporting native and foreign commodities, to the great comfort of our lieges
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dwelling there, and to those coming to the bounds and counties next adjacent to the same." In the grants de novo there is, in the charter, included "liberty of the said river of Clyde, and width either side from the Bridge of Glasgow to the Clochstaine; likewise with liberty and immunity of ship stations, that is of the Roidis of Inschgreen, Newark, Pot of the Rig, or of any other station of ships within the said river of Clyde, between the Bridge of Glasgow and the said Clochstaine, for loading and unloading merchandise and goods belonging to the said burgh, burgesses, and inhabitants thereof; as well imported and exported by them in ships and other vessels of this our kingdom of Scotland, as imported and exported in ships belonging and pertaining to foreigners and strangers." And in a subsequent clause there is given and granted "free power, liberty, and privilege to our said Burgh of Glasgow, burgesses and inhabitants thereof, to the trad, traffick of selling and making merchandise within the parts of the said river and water of Clyde with foreigners, and all other persons coming and resorting thither, and of building harbours and stations of ships, embankments, and the gittle-heads, for rendering the said river more navigable, within the entire bounds of the said river, from the said Bridge of Glasgow to the Clochstane, and for receiving their ships, boats, and barks, within the bounds of the said river as far as the greatest tide flows, and for taking stones and sand within any part of the said river, so far as said the greatest tide, the spring-tide, flows, for building embankments, harbours, stations of ships, and the gittle-heads, and for repairing and improving the same, and with the same ballasting their ships, boats, barks, and other vessels, together also with power and privilege to them of exacting, asking, and levying anchorage dues, and the shore siller and other duties of all merchandise, boats, barks, and other vessels arriving at the Broomielaw of Glasgow, or at any other port within the said river of Clyde, according to use and custom." The police supervision of the river and the jurisdiction of the water bailie are also confirmed by the charter.

The "great charges and expenses" and the "excellent works," to which the charter of Charles I. alludes, had up to his time been productive of little good effect in clearing the river, although the condition of the channel, and the defence of their rights in it, had on many occasions given much concern to the magistrates of Glasgow. Above the City a short swift-flowing hill stream, subject to sudden spates which brought down vast quantities of soil and debris, the Clyde from the City downwards was tidal, its course was continued through a level plain, its feeble and resurgent currents found a devious and shifting path between soft, muddy margins, and amid sandbanks and shifting shoals.

So far as recorded, it was about the middle of the sixteenth century that the authorities of Glasgow, Renfrew, and Dumbarton jointly made the first serious effort to improve the navigation of the upper reaches. At
that time and for two centuries later the first and the most serious obstacle to inward navigation consisted of Dumbuck Ford, situated immediately above Dumbarton. To cut a channel through that compacted mass of gravel was the first requisite for improving the navigation; but the united efforts of the three rival burghs, with the appliances then at their disposal, appear to have been practically fruitless. Access to Glasgow by water could be obtained only by boats and lighters, carrying burdens of not more than 4 or 5 tons, and in that state the navigation, if such it can be called, continued till the later part of the eighteenth century.

But the mercantile instincts of the inhabitants of Glasgow were strong, and an outlet for maritime enterprise was eagerly sought after. As we have already seen the Town Council of Glasgow made overtures to the Burgh of Dumbarton for the acquisition of a harbour there, but partly from jealously and partly from a short-sighted policy, at which men of the present day marvel more than did contemporaries, the proposals of Glasgow were declined. Undaunted, the Glasgow councillors crossed the river, and on the other bank, 3 miles above Greenock, they, in the year 1662, laid the foundations of Port-Glasgow, and there built for themselves a harbour. The adventure did not answer the expectations of its promoters, and the improvement of the channel from Broomielaw downwards continued to engage the attention, and sometimes the efforts, of Glasgow Town Council. In 1688 a quay was built at the Broomielaw at a cost of £1666 13s. 4d. sterling; but for nearly a hundred years thereafter no substantial improvement was effected on the water-way to and from it.

In 1755 the magistrates obtained from the celebrated engineer, John Smeaton, a report on the condition of the river, and on the possibility of improving the navigation. Smeaton took no sanguine view of the Clyde as a navigable stream, and his principal recommendation was the construction of a lock and dam at Marlin Ford, about 4 miles below the City, to secure a depth of 4 feet 6 inches at all times up to the Broomielaw quay. The lock he proposed should be sufficient to take in a vessel 70 feet long, or to let pass a sloop or brig of above 100 tons, "when there is water in the river to admit it."

Acting on this recommendation, the magistrates of Glasgow obtained, in 1759, the first Act of Parliament for the improvement of the navigation of the Clyde. Under it powers were given "to cleanse, scour, straighten, enlarge, and improve the said river from Dumbuck Ford to the Bridge of Glasgow, and to dig, cut, and deepen the same or any part thereof, . . . and to build, erect, or make in, over or on the said river, . . . such and so many locks, weirs, pens, dams, and cuts, trenches, and other works as to the said Magistrates and Council and their successors in office shall appear necessary and convenient for the promoting the said navigation." The Act provided that no lock or dam should be placed lower down the river
than Marlin Ford, and it gave power to the Council to levy tolls, and lock and keelage duties, which, however, were to be leviable only from the time the lock or locks were erected and in working condition.

Smeaton's proposals and the Act founded on them did not hold out much promise for the Clyde navigation, and it is a fortunate circumstance that the parliamentary powers were not acted on. The prospect was, indeed, not stimulating to a cautious and prudent Council; the expenditure involved would have been great, and the return for it was problematical. But at this time the City was rapidly growing, and its trade with the colonies was bringing it into the front rank among commercial cities. The problem of the navigation of the river became increasingly important, and again, in 1768, the magistrates called in skilled advice. The report obtained in that year from Mr. John Golborne, of Chester, formed the foundation and starting-point of every improvement and development of the Clyde navigation to the present day. Golborne's simple proposals are thus set forth:

"The River Clyde is at present in a state of nature, and, for want of due attention, has been suffered to extend too much; for the sides in most places being much softer than the bottom, the current has operated there, because it could not penetrate the bed of the river, and has by those means gained in breadth what is wanting in depth.

"I shall proceed on those principles of assisting nature, when she cannot do her own work, by removing the stones and hard gravel from the bottom of the river where it is shallow, and by contracting the channel where it is worn too wide; for quantities of sand brought down by the spates form banks in the channel to the great detriment of the navigation. The first and grand obstacle is Dumbuck Ford, 12 miles below Glasgow Bridge, where, the river dividing itself into two channels, the reflowing current is greatly weakened, and the bottom, being covered with a crust of hard gravel, cannot be worn down to a proper depth; but, if a jetty were extended over the south channel, to confine the current and the hard crust of gravel removed by dredging, the reflowing current would then act with greater force, and soon grind down a deep and capacious channel.

"By these means, easy and simple in themselves, without laying a restraint on nature, I humbly conceive that the River Clyde may be deepened so as to have 4 feet, or perhaps 5 feet depth up to the Broomielaw at low-water."

The whole expense of these improvements, he estimated, would not exceed the modest sum of £8640. In connection with Golborne's report James Watt was instructed by the Council, in 1769, to make a survey of the river; and among the shoals noted by him it is interesting to find that Dumbuck Ford itself at low water gave a depth of 2 feet, and at Hirst Ford, now within the harbour of Glasgow, only 14 inches of water at low tide, and at neap tides
only 3 feet 3 inches of water were found. At that time the neap tide was sensible only the length of Glasgow Bridge.

Acting on these reports the second Act of Parliament for the Clyde Navigation was applied for and obtained in 1770. Under it power was given to deepen the channel and improve the navigation between the lower end of Dumbuck Ford and Glasgow Bridge, “so that there shall be 7 feet of water in every part at neap tides.” The method sanctioned for effecting this deepening and improvement was that suggested by Golborne in his report. The Council were for that end empowered “to alter, direct, and make, or cause to be altered, directed, and made, the channel of the said river through any land, soil, or ground—part of the present bed of the said river—between the lower end of Dumbuck Ford and the Bridge of Glasgow aforesaid, and to make, set up, and erect on both sides of the said river such and so many jetties, banks, walls, sluices, works, and fences for making, securing, continuing, and maintaining the channel of the said river within proper bounds, for the use of the said navigation, as to the said Magistrates and Council and their successors in office, shall seem proper and convenient, and for that purpose to cleanse, scour, deepen, and enlarge, or straighten or confine the said river and channel thereof, or any part or parts of the same, within the limits aforesaid, and to dig or cut the soil, ground, or banks of the said river, and soil, sand, and gravel in the bed thereof, and to lay the same upon the most convenient banks of the said river, and to plant the banks on each side of the said river within the bounds aforesaid with willows, or other shrubs, for the safety or preservation of the said banks, and for preventing the same from being hurt or carried away by the said river.”

The Act further repealed the provision of the 1759 Act, under which the right to levy and collect rates and duties was suspended till the dam and lock authorized by it should be constructed and ready for use, and immediate power was granted to impose and collect rates specified in the Act. The work recommended by Mr. Golborne and authorized by Parliament was proceeded with forthwith, and Golborne himself undertook the then formidable task of removing Dumbuck Ford. For the sum of £2300 he contracted to make a channel 300 feet wide, and at low water 6 feet deep. So well did he fulfil his undertaking that, in 1775, the magistrates, finding he had deepened the ford 10 inches more than contracted for, paid him £1500 beyond his contract price, presented him with a silver cup, and made a present of £100 to his son. The confining of the flow in a definite and narrow channel by means of projecting jetties was successful in creating a scour, and thereby helping nature to make and keep a channel. The spaces between these jetties, as Golborne anticipated, began to silt up and form a solid, grass-covered foreshore. In this way the landowners ex adverso obtained much valuable land, which at later times they sold back to the Clyde Trustees, when it became necessary to widen the navigable channel beyond the limits to which it was reduced under Golborne’s
scheme. In 1781 Mr. Golborne reported: "It gave me great pleasure to observe the channel at Dumbuck has considerably increased its depth since I removed the ford," and that, "on sounding it with the magistrates, on the 8th day of August, 1781, at low-water, we had the pleasure to find no less than 14 feet; for the jetty which I had carried over the south channel turned the current so effectually down the north channel, and the machines which I have used having cut through the stratum of clay into the sand, it was in many places from 20 feet to 22 feet deep."

The work of deepening, straightening, and otherwise improving the channel from Glasgow Bridge downwards thus auspiciously and simply begun has continued, it may be said, without intermission to the present day. The third Act of Parliament promoted by the Town Council for the improvement of the navigation was passed in 1809. It was based on reports previously obtained from the eminent engineers Rennie and Telford. In 1799 Rennie had recommended the alteration of some of Golborne's jetties and the running of a rubble wall from point to point of them on each side, thus making continuous banks for the stream. The report from Telford in 1806 insisted on the imperfection of projecting jetties, and urged the completing of the parallel dykes begun by Mr. Rennie. He further recommended the formation of a towing path from Renfrew to Glasgow, to expedite by aid of horse-power the passage of vessels over the 5 miles which lie between these points. Instead of any extension of the quays along the river sides Telford recommended the formation of a wet dock within the river bed, and the diversion of the channel to the south to obtain the necessary dock area. Rennie's report in 1807 dealt with the channel and width he recommended it should have throughout. Telford's proposals to form a dock were allowed to drop, the towing path was formed and continued to be used till the days when steam tugs supplanted the horse and the towing rope, and power was obtained under the Act to deepen the river till such time "as the said river is at least 9 feet deep at neap tides in every part thereof between the Bridge of Glasgow and the Castle of Dumbarton."

The era of steam navigation now dawned, and in 1812 Henry Bell's little "Comet" was launched from the shipbuilding yard of John Wood at Port-Glasgow. The qualified success of the little craft was sufficient to establish the practicability of the propulsion of vessels by steam. In 1813 the "Comet" was followed by three steamers of larger capacity, the "Elizabeth," the "Clyde," and the "Glasgow," and thereafter steamboats increased rapidly, adding largely to the briskness of the river. General traffic to the river and harbour was also flowing with satisfactory though fluctuating rapidity. Till the year 1785 the annual revenue never touched £2000; from that year, in which it suddenly rose to £3256, it ranged till 1795 from about £2000 to £3000; and afterwards with minor fluctuations the receipts increased till, in the year of the third Act of Parliament, 1809, it reached £5407. Between
that date and the year of the fourth Act, 1825, the revenue increased with considerable fluctuations to upwards of £8000, the minimum year being 1812 with an income of £4597; and the highest point touched was in 1824, when £8555 was gathered.

The fourth Act of Parliament, which gave powers to deepen the river from Glasgow Bridge to Port-Glasgow and Cardross to at least 13 feet was passed in 1825. Under it also a special Board of Trustees was constituted, consisting of the Town Council of Glasgow and five other persons interested in the trade and navigation of the river and Firth of Clyde, to be nominated by the Town Council. Up to this period the harbour and navigation rights had been the sole and exclusive property of the Town Council as representing the burgh, burgesses, and inhabitants; and all the improvements effected were initiated and carried into effect by the Council alone. The Clyde Navigation was indeed a department of the Corporation of Glasgow, carried on since 1759 under statutory restrictions, with a finance department distinct from the ordinary treasury of the City.

From 1825 onwards the progress of the general trade of Glasgow may be said to have been the measure of the expansion of the revenues of the Clyde Trustees, for by that period the river was in a condition fitted to receive and deal competently with all tonnage which presented itself. And so it has continued to the present day; as the size and draught of the vessels has increased so has the river bed been scooped out and the channel kept of sufficient capacity for all it is ordinarily required to float.

An important Act of Parliament—the fifth—was passed in 1840, under which the constitution of the Trust was varied and greatly extended. The trustees under the provisions of this Act were the Lord Provost, five bailies, excluding the River Bailie, the Dean of Guild, the Deacon-Convener, and fifteen Town Councillors, the chairman of the Chamber of Commerce, three representatives of the Merchants' House, two from the Trades' House, two elected by the bailies of Gorbals, and one each from the then existing Burghs of Calton and Anderston. A new scale of rates and duties was laid down, and different duties were prescribed for three sections into which the harbour and river were divided. (1) From Glasgow to Renfrew Ferry; (2) thence to Dalmuir Burn; and (3) thence to Newark Castle. Power was given to deepen river and harbour throughout to 17 feet, and the limits of the river on both banks were laid down in the Act. Under these latter powers very large modifications were made in the channel, principally in the way of widening it and rendering it more uniform. Thus at Finnieston quay the width of the river in 1840 was 160 feet, and now it is there 400 feet wide; at Renfrew the width was 245 feet, but now it is 410 feet; and at the mouth of the Cart, where in 1800 it broadened out to 800 feet, it had been reduced before 1840 to 275 feet, and now it measures 500 feet.
Since 1840 several Acts of Parliament have been obtained dealing with docks, improvement of navigation, and borrowing powers, etc. In 1858 the constitution of the Trust was again varied by Act of Parliament, and the regime at present in force was instituted. The trustees now are the Lord Provost of Glasgow, \textit{ex officio}, chairman, nine members returned by the Town Council, two from the Merchants' House, two elected by the Chamber of Commerce, and two from the Trades' House, and nine returned by an electoral body of shipowners and harbour ratepayers—in all twenty-five members. The qualification of elector of Clyde Trustees is ownership to the extent of 100 tons, at least, in any vessel or vessels registered in the port of Glasgow, or payment of rates amounting to at least £10 yearly to the Clyde Trust, and candidates for the office of elected trustee must own at least 257 tons in a vessel or vessels, or pay not less than £25 yearly of Clyde dues and rates. Under the 1858 Act the harbour of Glasgow was defined as extending from Hutchesontown Bridge—the site of the ancient bridge of Glasgow—to the mouth of Kelvin; and the river, for the purposes of the Act, ended at a line drawn from Newark Castle to Cardross Burn. The Act authorized a depth of not less than 17 feet at neap tides throughout the whole of the harbour and river so defined.

In 1836 there was only 15 feet of water in the navigable channel at high-water, now there is not less than 28 feet, and, says Mr. James Deas, C.E., engineer to the trustees, to whose valuable papers on the river Clyde we owe most of the data and information here given, "it is an interesting fact that the bed of the river is now as deep at Glasgow as at Port-Glasgow, and that it is virtually level throughout."

In 1871 the lower estuary of the river from Newark Castle to the sea was placed under the jurisdiction of the Clyde Lighthouses Trustees. The improvement of the navigation in this section of the river immediately occupied the attention of the trustees and their engineers, Messrs. D. & T. Stevenson of Edinburgh, were instructed to make a survey of, and to report upon, the navigation and the works necessary for its improvement. That attention was needed to the channel in the lower reaches was shown by the fact that out of fifty-nine groundings which took place in 1871 in the Clyde, five happened in the region between Port-Glasgow and the sea, the greatest draught being then 21 feet 7 inches. Messrs. Stevenson recommended that a line of channel 18 feet deep at low-water should be provided from Port-Glasgow to the Tail of the Bank at Albert Harbour, Greenock, this channel at its lower end to be 492 feet in breadth at the bottom. In the centre of this channel, from its lower end at the Albert Harbour to the James Watt Dock immediately above Greenock, it was recommended there should be a cut 5 feet deeper and 200 feet in width, giving in this section 23 feet of depth at low-water. To improve the bend of the navigation, the foreshore at Garvel Point, outside the James
Watt Dock, was to be cut away. The work was begun in 1873 and carried on with hired plant till 1880, when, in order to secure its more expeditious completion, a fixed dredger and three hopper barges were acquired by the trustees, which thereafter were employed in the improvement and maintenance of the navigable channel of the lower reaches in accordance with Messrs. Stevenson's recommendations.

For upwards of a century the improvement of the Clyde channel has gone on with prudent assiduity and untiring energy and success. At no time have works been undertaken which it was not well within the power of the trustees to execute without undue financial or engineering risk, at no time have the facilities for traffic been notably inadequate to the necessities, while it cannot be said that undue or over-ambitious schemes causing unremunerative expenditure have been indulged in. The deepening effect of "scour," caused by Golborne's projecting jetties and the excavation of fords, of course soon reached its limit. The scour in early years was helped by ploughing and harrowing up the compacted deposits, and thus loosening sediment which was carried away by the ebbing tides. Gravel banks and other heavy materials were also ploughed, raked, and scraped to the contiguous banks; and in the early years of the century dredgers, worked first by hand and then by horse-power, were set in operation for the deepening of the channel. In 1824 steam dredging was introduced, and since that time the work of scooping out and maintaining the navigable channel by steam-power has gone on uninterruptedly. The first steam dredger excavated only to a depth of 10 feet 6 inches; in 1892 there was set in motion the "Cairndhu," a 90 horse-power dredger capable of excavating to a depth of 40 feet. The fleet of dredgers now steadily at work consists of one double bucket machine of 50 horse-power, dredging to a depth of 32 feet; one single machine 25 horse-power, capable of dredging down to 34 feet; two single machines of 75 horse-power, working down to 32 feet 6 inches; and the "Cairndhu," a powerful single machine of 90 horse-power, which, as mentioned, can excavate to a depth of 40 feet. The "Cairndhu" is fitted with 35 buckets of 22 feet capacity each, and is capable of raising 600 tons of dredged material per hour. A floating steam digger barge, with a 10 ton steam crane, capable of working to a depth of 40 feet, is also employed. For service with these dredging machines there are employed twenty-one hopper barges, fifteen of them being iron-hulled vessels, with engines having a nominal horse-power ranging from thirty-five to sixty-five, and a carrying capacity equal to from 240 to 300 cubic yards of material. The more recently constructed hopper barges have steel and iron hulls, twin screws, and 160 nominal horse-power engines, two have a carrying capacity of 1000 tons, and the remaining four carry 1200 tons each. In addition, the plant of the Trust includes 200 punts for transporting dredgings, etc.
Up to 1862 the whole of the dredged material was deposited on the low-lying lands adjacent to the river and on the foreshores, greatly to the benefit of the landlords, who, however, claimed rents and compensations for the operations by which their properties were improved and they themselves enriched. In August, 1862, the trustees began dropping dredged materials from the hopper barges into the depths of Loch Long, and for more than thirty years that loch continued to be the depository of harbour and river dredgings, upwards of 30,000,000 of cubic yards having been in that period dropped there within a defined area measuring 428 acres. In the later years of these operations, complaints of pollution of the foreshores were made by the population resident on the banks of the loch, and, as the result of lengthened and exhaustive investigations into the condition of the water and the shores, the Clyde Trustees were in March, 1893, prohibited by the Board of Trade from further depositing river and harbour dredgings on Loch Long. Since that time all the river silt has been dropped into the sea about 3 miles S.S.W. of Garroch Head, 46 miles distant from Glasgow harbour. The privilege of depositing the innocuous material dredged out in forming docks was continued to the trustees, and the excavated solids from Cessnock Dock has been the only material which Loch Long received since 1893.

An account of the quantities of material raised by dredging and carried away since the year 1844-45 has been kept. In the half-century ended 1894-95 the total amount dredged and disposed of amounted to a little more than 46,000,000 cubic yards, at a total cost of a little more than £1,725,000, in which amount is included the cost of providing and keeping in repair the dredgers, hopper barges, punts, tug boats, etc. These figures bring out the cost of each cubic yard of material removed to have been ninepence. In earlier years, when dredgings were spread out from punts, the cost per cubic yard was considerably greater, having averaged up till 1862 a shilling and sixpence halfpenny per cubic yard.

With the improvement of the channel and the expansion of trade the quay accommodation in the harbour of Glasgow was bound to keep pace. At the beginning of the century the entire quay space extended only to 382 lineal yards at the Broomielaw, on the north side of the river, between Glasgow Bridge and what is now the lower end of York Street. At that time the river there was not more than 145 feet in width, and all along the opposite side, as well as lower down on the same side, were grassy banks and green fields. In 1831 the quay accommodation had increased to nearly a mile—1543 yards—the whole being still along the north bank of the river. In 1837 a beginning was made in the running of a quay wall along the south bank from Glasgow Bridge downwards, and in that connection the width of the channel was increased to 400 feet. By all engineers consulted, from the time of Rennie downwards, the formation of
wet docks had been advocated, and parliamentary powers for their construction were obtained as early as in 1840. In 1845 land was secured at Stobcross with a view to the provision of such accommodation. Notwithstanding such advice and action, the trustees continued to cling to the river banks, and so long as quay extension could be secured along the side of the stream the formation of wet docks was deferred. In 1861 the extent of quayage along the river face on both sides equalled 4,376 yards, about 2 ½ miles. It was not till 1867 that the first modest wet dock—the Kingston Dock—was opened on the south side of the river. It has a water area of 5 ½ acres, and affords 830 yards of quay frontage. At low tide there is a depth of water equal to 14 feet in the centre of the dock, and at the wharf face the depth at low tide is 10 feet.

In 1846 the trustees obtained the sanction of Parliament for a dock at Stobcross, on land which had already been acquired, with the intention of there planting such an extension of the harbour. The powers obtained under that Act were permitted to slumber, and it was not again till 1869 that the project of a dock at Stobcross was revived, on a joint report from Mr. J. F. Bateman, C.E., and Mr. James Deas, the engineer to the trustees. An opportunity then occurred of getting a valuable railway connection to the north side of the river, by means of a branch from the Helensburgh line of the North British Railway Company, for which the company, in 1864, had obtained parliamentary authority, but which in 1869 they proposed to abandon. In consideration of the promise on the part of the Clyde Trustees to contribute a loan of £150,000 towards the construction of the line, the Railway Company agreed to proceed with a scheme modified to suit the proposals of the trustees, and in 1870 Acts were obtained for the formation of the Stobcross Dock, and for the railway connecting it primarily with the North British system, but through that also with the other railways converging on the City. In this way a much needed railway connection with the north side of the harbour was secured, and the line thus obtained has, it may be remarked, formed the basis upon which much of the subsequent development of railway accommodation within the City has been evolved. It was taken advantage of by the North British Company to complete their city circle, and to connect several outlying lines; and to gain direct access to Stobcross was one of the ruling motives which impelled the Caledonian Company to carry out their great Central Railway scheme with its numerous feeders in Lanarkshire and Dumbartonshire.

Active measures for the construction of the Stobcross—now called the Queen's—Dock were proceeded with immediately on obtaining parliamentary powers, and in 1871 the work was begun by diverting a public road from the river side to beyond the limits of the projected dock. The first contract for the dock wall was given out in August, 1872, the dock in an unfinished
THE CLYDE NAVIGATION

condition was opened in September, 1877, in March, 1880, the last copestone of the quay walls was laid, and in 1881 the solid contents within the quay walls were entirely scooped out to the required depth and the dock finished. The Queen's Dock has a water area of 33.4 acres, it is 20 feet deep at low-water, and the length of quay line is 3334 yards within the dock and 494 yards on the outer or river face—in all 3828 yards, equal to 2 miles and 308 yards.

The Queen's Dock is tidal; at its entrance it is crossed by a swing bridge capable of bearing a load of 60 tons at any part of its roadway, and by a central quay, 193 feet broad, it is divided into three basins, the north 1898 feet long by 270 feet in width, the south 1675 feet by 230 feet, and the outer 1000 feet long, and at its widest part 695 feet wide.

The Queen's Dock was no sooner completed than it was discovered that additional harbour accommodation had again become an urgent necessity. This time it was the south side of the river to which the attention of the trustees was directed, and in 1883 an Act of Parliament was obtained for providing a wet dock at Cessnock outside Plantation quay on the river, and directly opposite the Queen's Dock. The work connected with the formation of the dock was begun in 1886, and instead of being let out to contractors, it was undertaken by the trustees themselves, under the superintendence of their engineer, Mr. James Deas. Cessnock Dock has a water area of 34.3 acres, it is 20 feet deep at low-water, with a quayage measuring 36.5 acres, and a length of quay face equal to 3737 yards or 2'12 miles. It is divided by two projecting quays into north, centre, and south basins, with an outer or canting basin giving access to these. With the Cessnock Dock fully completed there is about 8 miles of available quay face within the harbour of Glasgow.

On an equally ample and spacious scale with the wet docks are the graving docks which have been provided, and are in the course of construction by the Clyde Trustees. An Act of Parliament authorizing the trustees to construct a graving dock was obtained in 1868. Previous to that time the only public graving dock on the Clyde was that at Greenock, which was designed by James Watt, and opened in 1762, but there were others in the river the property of shipbuilding firms. The first graving dock of the Clyde Trust, the entrance to which faces the entrance to Cessnoek Dock, was opened in 1875. When formed it ranked as one of the most commodious in the United Kingdom, being 551 feet in length, 72 feet wide, with 22 feet 10 inches of water on the sill at high-water of ordinary spring tides. It was built under contract, and cost, exclusive of land, £134,800. A second similar graving dock, built alongside of and parallel with the first, was sanctioned by Parliament in 1873. Graving Dock No. 2, opened in 1886 at a cost of £108,000, exclusive of land, was formed by labour hired by the trustees, the designs and working drawings were prepared by Mr.
Deas, and the whole undertaking was carried out under his supervision. It measures 575 feet in length, is 92 feet wide at the top, and at the bottom 52 feet 4 inches in width, with a depth of water equal to 22 feet 10 inches at high tide. Alongside of, and parallel with the other two, a third graving dock of still greater dimensions is at present in course of formation. It will provide a length of no less than 885 feet, and by a pair of gates will be divided into an outer length of 460 feet and an inner length of 420 feet. The entrance is 83 feet wide, the dock will be 115 feet wide at the top, narrowing to 81 feet 8 inches at the bottom, and it will have a depth of 26 feet 6 inches at high-water of average spring tides.

To deal with the other appliances and conveniences for the navigation of the Clyde, and for the handling of imports and exports at the harbour of Glasgow, would lead us into details too minute and too numerous for our purposes. We should require to speak of the lighthouses, buoys, and beacons by which the navigable channel is marked off, and rendered available by night as well as by day. The numerous cranes in the harbour operated by steam or by hydraulic agency, with lifting power ranging from 30 cwt.s. to 130 tons, might also be dwelt on. The harbour at Bowling, in which many of the river steamers that ply during the summer season, are laid up in the winter, and the work of the Clyde Trust at Dalmuir would also deserve description in any work dealing fully with the activities of the Clyde Trust. In and immediately below Glasgow harbour the Clyde Trustees conduct a huge business in carrying vehicles and passengers across the river at many points, and carrying passengers up and down the river, from and to various landing stations. For these services they possess two passenger and carriage steam ferry-boats at Govan Ferry, an elevating platform steam ferry-vessel at Finnieston, 10 steam ferry-boats for passengers, and 12 Cluthas—passenger steamers for up and down harbour service. From these services they derived a revenue of more than £33,000 in the year ended 30th June, 1896.

From the year 1770 till 30th June, 1896, there has been expended in all on the navigation of the Clyde from Port-Glasgow to Glasgow Bridge and on the harbour of Glasgow the sum of £15,810,000. By far the largest item in this expenditure has been the payment of interest on borrowed money, the amount of which is £5,035,000. On dredging and dredging machinery nearly two millions—£1,972,000—was expended. Land purchased for the extension of the harbour and for the widening of the river has cost the Clyde Trustees £1,448,000. The formation and digging out of the docks—Kingston, Queen's, and Cessnock, so far as yet completed—cost £1,629,000; and for the three graving docks, the third being only in progress, there has been paid £346,000. On the construction of works in the harbour and the river there has been expended £1,752,000. Under the head of general expenditure on the repair and upkeep of works and
damage to fishings the sum of £967,700 has been paid; general management and salaries cost £525,000; ground annuals and feu duties have been paid to the extent of £477,000; and for taxes the trustees have been called on to pay £383,000. The ferries, ferry-steamers, and river steamers, with their landing-stages, etc., represent an expenditure of £473,000; and for law, parliamentary expenses, and Acts of Parliament the trustees have paid £198,000. These sums together represent the major part of the £1,581,000 which has been spent on the river during a century and a quarter. The sum is large, but the property against which it stands is a magnificent one, and the assets to be placed against the vast expenditure are correspondingly substantial in their nature. The Clyde Navigation looked at as a commercial undertaking alone has been a great success; and while it has paid, from that narrow point of view, how incalculable are the benefits it has showered on the City of Glasgow and all Scotland.

The total indebtedness of the Clyde Trust at 30th June, 1896, amounted to £5,543,000, and the charge for interest was £192,000 per annum. The ordinary expenditure for the year ended at that date was £1,520,000, and for feu duties and ground annuals there was a charge of £12,200. The revenue for the year was £405,500, and, after all ordinary expenditure was summed up, there remained a surplus revenue of almost £50,000. The income of the year was the largest total recorded, exceeding that of the previous year by more than £50,000. While a steady and rapid progression has marked the revenue accounts of the Trust in general, it has, throughout the hundred and twenty-five years with which we have dealt, been marked by many minor fluctuations; but if we sum up the receipts in decennial periods, we shall see with what remarkable and steady growth the income has progressed.

The figures are given in the following table:

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<tr>
<th>REVENUE OF THE CLYDE TRUST IN TEN YEARS.</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1771-1780, - - - £13,785</td>
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<tr>
<td>1781-1790, - - - 19,383</td>
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<tr>
<td>1791-1800, - - - 31,113</td>
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<tr>
<td>1801-1810, - - - 47,241</td>
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<tr>
<td>1811-1820, - - - 63,019</td>
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<tr>
<td>1821-1830, - - - 130,039</td>
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and for the five years from 1891 till 1895 the amount collected was £1,818,095. Thus, as works expanded and indebtedness increased, so grew the traffic, and so swelled the income. No work was undertaken for which there was not justifying necessity, and as the obligations of the trustees increased, in full proportion grew their capacity for meeting them.
CHAPTER XXX.

PUBLIC HALLS AND ENTERTAINMENTS.

Uses of public halls: Limits of municipal responsibility: Original meeting-places in Glasgow: Old Town Hall: City Hall, its origin and accommodation: St. Andrew's Halls, accommodation: Acquisition by Corporation: District halls: Statutory obligation: Town Council and public entertainments: Early patronage of football, etc.: Golf in Alexandra Park: Model yacht ponds: Encouragement of music: City minstrels: Saturday afternoon concerts: Band performances in parks, etc.

The provision of a hall or halls in which general public meetings of citizens can be held is a fundamental necessity of modern municipal organization. Numerous occasions arise on which, according to statute, it becomes necessary to hold a meeting of ratepayers or householders, and it frequently occurs, in connection with events domestic or international, that the Lord Provost is called on, by requisition, to summon a public meeting of citizens. So it comes that a town hall or halls must be provided for strictly statutory and official purposes, but the use of such institutions is by no means restricted to these rather severe and formal functions. They exist for all grades and classes of citizens, and they are available for all the diverse functions which go to make up the social life of a large community. Under proper regulation and for a sufficient payment they can be used for the preaching of the Gospel, for the holding of political meetings, for popular lectures, for concerts, for all kinds of popular entertainments, for the conversazioni of the classes, and for the triple delight—soirees, concerts, and balls—of the masses. For these and for endless other purposes the halls, large and small which in Glasgow are owned by the Corporation, are used; but it is only for certain restricted objects that the Magistrates and Council become directly connected with, and responsible for, the use of their halls in other than statutory and official connection.

It is not to be supposed that any city can provide hall accommodation for even a tithe of its adult population, and any community must be held
to have discharged its duty fairly well when it provides one capacious hall not greater than can be commanded by the voice of a speaker, and the eyes of a spectator. The provision of other halls for the purposes of popular instruction, recreation, and amusement may be regarded as a commercial enterprise, and not necessarily a municipal duty. Till quite recently Glasgow owned only one great public hall, and it is due to the misfortunes of a spirited public company that the City now is proprietor of two such institutions. The absorption of the suburban burghs also brought into the possession of the City several minor halls that had already been provided for these districts; and by the terms of the Annexation Act of 1891 the Corporation became bound to maintain these for the convenience of the localities; and the statute even imposed the duty of providing halls for districts not already served with such social conveniences. Under the same Act also general powers were conferred on the Corporation to provide and maintain halls required for the purposes of the City; and there is a specific instruction to erect, within five years of the commencement of the Act, a public hall for the accommodation of the districts of Mount Florida, Langside, and Shawlands.

In early days Glasgow had no public hall suitable for a meeting of the community. In the sixteenth century stated courts of the community were held; and at that of Whitsunday, after the transaction of certain business, the marches of the City and burgh were perambulated. These public assemblies were held at Symmerhill, and sometimes in another open place: Craigmak and the Mylnedam being localities mentioned. At other times, when a convention of the people was held, the meeting took place in the kirk "sometime pertaining to the Blackfriers." No doubt these meetings of the community at an early period had a real business meaning and interest; but as they gradually became merely nominal assemblies, for a show of public consultation, the interest in and attendance on them died out, and in 1578, according to the Council records, it was complained that "on Whitsontysdaye last thair come nane or at leist ane small number of honest men to accompany the provest and baillies for visiesing of thair merchis," and to encourage attendance they resolved to inflict a fine of 8s. Scots on every honest man who failed to appear at the meeting and the riding of the marches "as use wes." That enactment stands yet unrepealed, but its terrors do not appear to have been sufficient to keep up the ancient meeting and custom, and we hear nothing of meetings of the "haill Communitie" throughout the seventeenth century.

In the Tolbooth, erected 1626-67, there was a large apartment 44 feet by 24 feet—the King's Hall—which for a century was the only public hall in Glasgow. It was not till 1734 that a separate Town Hall was erected by the Council as an annexe to and communicating with the Tolbooth. That hall was the recognized centre of civic entertainment and social
intercourse in Glasgow for more than a century; its career ending with a civic banquet in 1854, on the occasion of the inauguration of the equestrian statue of the Queen, and now it forms part of a drapery warehouse.

The City Hall, which supplanted the old Town Hall, was erected from plans of George Murray, and opened in 1841. The grand hall is carried on iron columns and immense stone lintels over the Bazaar, and it has spacious street entrances from both Candleriggs and South Albion Street. The principal entrance is in Candleriggs, and the façade there was reconstructed by the City Architect, Mr. John Carrick, in 1885, who at the same time so remodelled the entrance hall and staircases that the hall, though packed full of human beings, can with ease be emptied in less than ten minutes. The hall is a plain erection with fine acoustical properties; it is admirably lighted by day, and for artificial light it has an electric installation with powerful incandescent lamps. It contains an organ which has seen better days, and had at one time some reputation among such instruments. The area of the great hall measures 94 feet by 60 feet; the platform is at the east or Albion Street end; a gallery runs around south, north, and west sides—the whole giving accommodation for a maximum of 3500 persons. The hall has been the scene of many memorable meetings and civic functions. It is in great demand in the winter season for concerts, social tea meetings, for balls and dances, for entertainments, lectures, etc., and on Sundays it is generally used for religious services. On the Candleriggs side there are two smaller halls on the street level, one passing to the left from the main entrance hall, the north saloon has floor space of 59 feet 10 inches by 31 feet 9 inches, and accommodates 450 persons; the other going to the right, the south saloon, is 85 feet 10 inches by 29 feet 7 inches, equal to holding 600 persons. At the Albion Street end, two stairs up, is the Lesser City Hall, 42 feet by 37 feet, giving room for 400 persons; and contiguous to it the Mid Hall, over which is the Upper Hall, both 41 feet by 38 feet 3 inches, seating 350 persons. Attached to all these halls there are ample retiring accommodation, committee rooms, cloak-rooms, store-rooms, kitchens, etc., and while they thus give conveniences for social functions of many varieties and sizes, single rooms are also available for small meetings of clubs, debating societies, and like purposes. The capital expenditure on the City Hall buildings is mixed up with that on the Bazaar generally, and the annual receipts range from £1600 to £1800; but when per contra the expenditure is deducted, the balance which goes to swell the Common Good is very small.

The City Hall has undoubtedly a central situation; but it is nevertheless far removed from the residential parts of the City, and the accesses to it are through streets of secondary attractions. The want of suitable halls
for high-class concerts and for social functions generally was long severely felt, especially in the west-end district; and to supply that void a number of citizens interested in musical culture formed a company to erect the block now known as St. Andrew's Halls. The halls, designed by Messrs. Campbell Douglas & Sellars, were inaugurated in 1877, and from the beginning to end the buildings, with their decorations and fittings, cost the company upwards of £101,000. The structure occupies a block in the western division of the City facing Granville Street, Berkeley Street, and Kent Road, from each of which it has entrances; but the principal façade and entrances are in Granville Street. Both externally and internally St. Andrew's Halls are much more pretentious, elaborate, and spacious than the City Hall. In length from Berkeley Street to the Kent Road, parallel with Granville Street, the building is divided into two equal halves, and the inner half is devoted entirely to the Grand Hall with its accesses, galleries, platform, and platform room. The floor area of the Grand Hall is 108 feet by 75 feet, and with its balconies and back gallery it gives accommodation for a maximum of 4500 persons. In the front division, next Granville Street, in addition to the principal entrance with ample cloak rooms, waiting-rooms, platform rooms, etc., there are two minor halls—Berkeley Hall, 72 feet by 39 feet, which, with a gallery, seats about 1000 persons; and Kent Hall, 51 feet by 39 feet, accommodating up to 500. In the entresol there is a mid hall, 50 feet by 29, suitable for a company up to 400, and three large apartments with space for 70 to 150. The upper floor is devoted to a luxurious ball-room suite containing a ball-room 72 feet by 50 feet, and an upper room or supper room 36 feet by 51 feet, a spacious lounge, a refreshment room, ladies' room, and promenade, etc.

Had the promoters of St. Andrew's Halls been impelled to their undertaking by the hope of large dividends their expectations would have been grievously disappointed; but they did not look on the scheme in the light of a pecuniary investment. Unfortunately the halls were inaugurated at a time when Glasgow was entering on a long period of severe commercial depression; and in the hands of the company the revenue of the halls did not even cover current expenses. After struggling on for a number of years, during which the responsibilities of the shareholders only increased, negotiations were opened with the Corporation which resulted in the transference of the property to the City as at Whitsunday, 1890, for the very moderate payment of £37,000. Thereafter about £6000 was expended on alterations, repairs, and redecoration, and in October of that year the halls were reopened under the auspices of the Magistrates and Town Council. Since that time they have realized a gradually increasing revenue rising from £2510 in season 1890-91 to £3150 in 1893-94, and in 1894-95 falling slightly to a total of £2900. After allowing for expenditure there remains a balance sufficient to make the halls a fair investment of Common Good
funds. The acquisition and holding of the halls was sanctioned by the City of Glasgow Act, 1891.

The remaining public halls in the City are the property of the Police Department, and several of them have been acquired and are held in terms of the City of Glasgow Act, 1891, they having been the property of the Commissioners of the several suburban burghs annexed under that statute. The Maryhill Public Hall has, with its gallery, accommodation for 800 persons. The Dixon Hall in Govanhill, a fine structure presented by William Dixon, iron master, to the Burgh of Govanhill, was taken over by the police at a cost of £7000. The hall accommodates 800 persons, and there are besides two minor apartments each sufficient for about 100. Pollokshields Public Hall is a handsome structure erected by the Commissioners of Pollokshields (West), which stands in the books of the Police Department at a cost of £5000. It gives accommodation for seating 360 persons, and has several side rooms and other accessories. Connected with the burgh buildings in Hillhead is a hall giving space for 360 persons, besides other accommodation. The Eastern Police Station in Tobago Street, and the Western Police Office in Cranstonhill, have each attached to them a hall seated for 400 persons. In addition to these existing halls the Police Department has become responsible for the erection of a suitable hall for Langside, Shawlands, and Mount Florida, and the provision of similar accommodation for the Springburn district is under consideration.

These various halls are let for all manner of public meetings and entertainments, and they also serve for many uses official and semi-official. In the district halls Ward Committees hold their meetings, candidates for municipal office woo the constituencies, polling for the several boards—Town Council, Parish Council, and School Board—take place within them, and in many other ways they are useful in the social organization.

The limitations of the responsibilities of the Town Council in connection with public entertainments, amusements, and recreation have never yet been defined. In relation to theatres and places of public entertainment the Magistrates Committee form the licensing authority; but their supervision has to do only with the safety of life and limb and with order and propriety, and they are nowise concerned with the quality of the entertainment. There is some evidence that in the seventeenth century the Council habitually patronized horse-racing, and that they encouraged foot-races and other athletic sports. That on the occasion of public holidays the magistrates took an active part in providing amusement and recreation for the people may be gathered from the earliest records. Easterne'en (Shrove Tuesday), it appears, was celebrated with a football tournament, a public function towards which the Council supplied, at least, the balls. In the Council minutes of 31st January, 1589-90, it is recorded that "in presense of the baillies and counsall, Johnne Neill, cordiner, is maid burges and frieman, . . . quhais
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fiennes ar remittit to him for furneissing yeirlie during his lyftyme vpoune Fastreinisewin of sex guid and sufficient fut ballis, or ellis tuentie schillingis as the price thairof, conforme to ane supplication gevin in be the said Johnne befoir the saidis baillies and counsal for that effect.” At earlier dates there are frequent entries in the treasurer’s accounts of payments for footballs, six of which cost 12s. Scots—that is about twopence each. Golf we know they at least permitted to be played on Glasgow Green, from 1780 till 1830 or thereby, and in Alexandra Park since the resuscitation of the Glasgow Golf Club. Only in the year 1896 did the Parks Trustees obtain statutory powers to regulate and make a charge for the playing of games in the public parks, and now golf is played in the Alexandra Park under the direct supervision of the Parks Committee. In the period from 1st June, when public playing under the Parks Committee began, till 24th August following, 128 season tickets at 7s. 6d. each were issued, and 8219 day tickets at twopence each purchased. The Parks Committee have also, at considerable expense, formed artificial ponds in several of the parks for the sailing of model yachts, and space has been given off to private associations for bowling greens. The question of forming public bowling greens and tennis lawns is under consideration of the Parks Committee.

The connection of the Corporation with musical matters stretches back into the remotest antiquity. In the earliest Council records extant we find that among the annual official appointments was the election of two “menestralis.” These functionaries were in the sixteenth century appointed by vote of the “haill communitie,” and it was enacted that each freeman burgher should pay them yearly 2s. Scots (about 2d.) or more if he chose. Where or how the functions of the minstrels were performed we know not; but it is pleasing to think that our forefathers were, by their aid, able to forget their cares, and betimes to soothe their savage breasts.

That as became their gay calling the minstrels were bravely decked we may judge from the treasurer’s accounts, which, under 16th October, 1574, have this entry: “Gevin to the toune menstralles samekill blew clayth as to by tua coittis, and for crammasys to be the townes armes to be putt thairon, and for makyng thairof,” and again on 2nd June, 1599, in preparation for a great public holiday due provision for bright official garb was made. The minute of the Council reads: “Item, it is statute be the provest, bailleis, and counsale that, according to the proclamatioune and preparatone to the playe and pastyme on Thursidaye nixt, that ilk persone absent sall paye fyve lib. of penalte. The Provest, bailleis, and counsale has condiscendit and grantit to ilkane of the aucht officeris and tua menstrallis to have samekill reid stamyng as wilbe ikane of thame ane mantill, with stringis in the syde, and the townes armes on the schoulder thairoff, in the best fassone thai can be hade, and ordanes thame to reparrell and mak the same reddy agane Thursidaye nixt, onder the pane of deprivatioune; and ordanes Mathow Merschell,
thesaurer, to paye for the said stamyng, quhilk salbe allowit to him in his comptis, and he to gif in compt thairof, and als ordanit him to gif John Tempilltoune fyve ellis hardin, and to Thomas Walker vther fyve ellis hardin." In the seventeenth century, as we shall see, the Council gave direct encourage-
ment and patronage to the maintenance of "Sang Scoles," and to the provision of such musical culture as was at that period available.

Popular music is at the present day provided by municipal enterprise for the people on quite a lavish scale. The Corporation seek not to interfere with the catering of the numerous organizations which, self-supporting and as a commercial speculation, provide music of various grades, for the different degrees of musical culture and appreciation in the City. They do not oppose the music hall at one end nor the orchestral concert at the other; but they find a vast mass of people living grey and sunless lives under our grey skies, and to these they seek to offer some relief from the monotony of their toil, and some of the inspiritment derivable from musical performances. So when the winter days are short and cheerless the Magistrates and Council provide, in comfortable halls, Saturday afternoon concerts for the people; and in the long summer evenings bands enliven in turn every park of the City.

The beginning of these musical entertainments was humble and un-
pretentious; but they have grown to a place of no mean importance in the social fabric. Till quite recently Glasgow had among its officials a City organist; and about 1879 he, Mr. H. A. Lambeth, began giving Saturday afternoon organ recitals in the City Hall free during the winter season, under the auspices of the Bazaar Committee, which were attended by crowded audiences. About 1882 greater variety was introduced into these entertainments, and in the end regular concerts of popular vocal and instrumental music, interspersed with elocutionary readings, etc., were provided for the vast audiences, who paid one penny for admission to the area, and threepence for the balconies. Since 1893 the National Halls, in the Gorbals, have been hired for Saturday afternoon concerts for the working population of the south side, and under the same management as the City Hall these became equally popular and successful. The provision of these entertainments entails no loss on the part of the Corporation; for, after paying all expenses, there generally remains a sufficient balance to form a moderate rent for the halls. It is interesting to note that the increasing experience of the Corporation Concerts has been attended with a remarkable development of true musical taste and appreciation, for while the concerts have increased in variety, even more distinctly they have risen in ambition of programme and quality of execution. The penny audiences have become half-crown critics.

The open-air performances of bands in the public parks, and in open squares, etc., which take place from May till the end of August yearly, began in a similar tentative and experimental manner. They are under
the charge of the Parks Committee, who have, however, no statutory powers to provide and pay for such entertainments. At first, about the year 1873, only a few performances were given, principally by local volunteer bands, in the principal parks, and the expenditure in the form of actual outlay and gratuities to performers was very modest. But the demand for such performances increased; the appreciation of public music grew apace, and the service was organized on a scale adequate to the requirements of the City. Now varied performances are given almost nightly in one or other of the parks; and on Saturdays in them all; and during the season bands of the highest reputation are occasionally brought from London and other centres. The support given to band music has had a marked influence on the quality of the local Volunteer and other bands, and the Parks Committee expend nearly £2000 yearly in providing music, which is highly appreciated by vast crowds amid the pleasant surroundings of the Parks and Botanic Gardens, and the various open spaces and pleasure grounds of Glasgow.
CHAPTER XXXI.

THE PARKS. GLASGOW GREEN.

Ancient common lands of the City: Green no part of these: First acquisition of ground: Gradual increase of area: Final purchase in 1792: Proposals to feu portions: Parliamentary powers to alienate: Original use as a washing green: Prohibition of manufacturers bleaching: Old washing-house: Cattle grazings: Rents therefrom: Improvement of Green: Glasgow Fair shows: Preachings and debates: Mineral wealth: Proposals to work coal.

The bishops and archbishops who ruled Glasgow in its day of small things treated their vassal city in a right royal manner. By them was erected the noble cathedral, which remains to this day a pride to the nation as well as to the City, to them we owe the foundation of the University which gives Glasgow a claim to some higher distinction than is based on mere commercial activity and industrial success; and in many other ways they promoted the welfare of their small city with splendid generosity. Following royal example they endowed their burgesses with extensive and valuable tracts of common land around the City, which in early times afforded not only pasturage and fodder to the cows of the citizens, but also were the source from which much fuel, in the form of peats, was obtained. What the precise limits of the ancient common lands of the City were cannot now be ascertained, but sufficient is known to make it certain that Glasgow in them possessed an extensive and rich property, which must now be yielding a princely revenue to those who obtained possession of it, we know not how. In the sixteenth century common lands spread wide away, in almost every direction, from the modest city; in the eighteenth century where were they?

There exists a popular delusion to the effect that Glasgow Green is a remnant of the ancient common lands of the City; a delusion bred possibly by the fact that the original Glasgow Green really was a portion of that public property. But towards the end of the seventeenth century the Green we now have, then little more than half its present size, was known as the
New Green, and it had been in process of acquisition and formation only since the year 1662. The original Green, at that time existing and in public use, lay on the west side of the Briggate, and extended along the river bank to St. Enoch’s Burn, which then ran from what is now Buchanan Street through St. Enoch’s Square into the Clyde. It was apparently because that ancient Green was being gradually swallowed up by the westward march of population that the Council resolved to provide the new and more spacious Green on the east and farther up the river.

The formation of the Green began with the acquisition in 1662 and 1664 of the lands of Linningshaugh, extending to twelve Scots acres. In purchasing the ground the Council began at the western extremity and worked gradually eastward, and Linningshaugh, which is the western portion, known as the “Laigh Green,” included also the site on which the jail and court-houses and some adjoining property now stand, which portion was detached from the Green early in the century, in connection with the erection of Hutchesontown Bridge. Linningshaugh had been an episcopal property; feued out at an early date, for behoof of St. Nicholas Hospital, founded by Bishop Muirhead in 1460; and the feu duty on that, as well as on other portions of the Green held of St. Nicholas Hospital, is now paid from the Common Good to the Lord Provost and Magistrates as administrators of that most ancient of our charities. There is, indeed, reason to believe that the entire area of the Green was, at one time, part of the vast landed property of the diocese of Glasgow. Lying in the east of Linningshaugh, the lands of Milldamhead, Peitboig, and Dassie Green were soon thereafter acquired, all of which about a century before had belonged to the common lands of the City, and had been alienated by the Council in 1588-89, “for releveeing of thair necessitie.” Here we have an occurrence, not infrequent in later municipal experience, of lands lightly parted with and reacquired at heavy expense by heirs and successors who ought to have entered unburdened on the enjoyment of the property. The lands of Kinclaith, some part of which was acquired at the same time, doubtless formed part of the Conclut or Conclud enumerated in the church possessions in the early twelfth century by Prince David. These lands, like Linningshaugh, had been feued by the bishop, and the feu duties still continue payable to the administrators of St. Nicholas Hospital. But by bit onward till 1690 the Council continued by purchase to add to the Green, the dispositions in favour of the Council generally bearing that the subjects acquired were to remain “perpetualie in all tyme coming as ane pairt of thair commone greine newlie erected be them.” According to a plan prepared in 1730 the area of the Green then embraced a little more than 59 acres Scots, and at that size it remained till, in 1770, upwards of 28 Scots acres of the lands of Broomlands and Kinclaith were acquired from Colin Rae, and in 1792 the Green was rounded off by the purchase of Provosthaugh,
now known as Flesher's Haugh, which, measuring 24 Scots acres, now forms the eastern extremity of the property.

These later purchases more than doubled the area of the Green, and the Magistrates and Council appear to have come to the conclusion that in spaciousness it was more than equal to the requirements of the City. On 1st June, 1792, the Lord Provost informed the Magistrates and Council that "proposals by different people had been made for purchasing the upper part of the Calton Green for building ground, by which a very large sum of money could be raised, and many people were of opinion that a row of houses upon the high ground of the Green, fronting towards Clyde and built according to an elegant plan and elevation, would be a great ornament to the City and to the Green, whilst by the additions which can be made to it by the purchase of Provosthaugh, and throwing it into the field at present possessed by John King, there would be a much greater quantity of pasture ground for the cows belonging to the inhabitants of the City, after the Calton Green was disposed of for building ground, than there is at present. His Lordship therefore proposed that the magistrates should be empowered to employ an architect of eminence in his profession to make a plan for laying off the Calton Green in lots for building ground, and to draw plans and elevations of the buildings to be erected thereon, which the Magistrates and Council might afterwards take into consideration, and determine how far it was proper or expedient to dispose of the said Calton Green, or part of it, in the manner before mentioned; which, being considered, the Magistrates and Council empower the Lord Provost and Magistrates for the time being to employ an architect to make such a plan as is before described, and to lay the same when finished before the Council, with their own opinion as to the propriety of the measure before specified, and the price which ought to be asked for the said Green in case it shall be resolved to sell it for building ground; recommend it also to the magistrates, for the time being, to employ some fit person to make a plan of the whole Green of Glasgow, with such improvements and alterations on the walks and planting in it as he may suggest for making it more commodious for the purposes for which it is intended, and at the same time more beautiful."

Following this resolution an Act of Parliament was obtained in 1793, which, among other objects, empowered the Magistrates and Council to sell for building lots the part of the High or Calton Green lying next the road to Rutherglen; but the strip to be disposed of was not to exceed 70 yards in breadth. The Act further sanctioned the appropriation of a portion of the Laigh Green for the formation of a street from the Saltmarket to a bridge to be built under powers granted in the same Act; and to sell or appropriate for building purposes the ground on both sides of that street; but the ground to be taken on the east side of the street, it was stipulated, should not exceed 100 yards in breadth.
It was under the powers embodied in this Act that the Laigh Green was cut up by a street leading to the Hutchesontown Bridge, that the jail, court-houses, and municipal buildings were erected on the west side of that street in 1810, and that Monteith Row and the neighbouring properties were feued out from the High or Calton Green from 1812 onwards. The powers conferred on the Council to feu 100 yards eastward from the road in front of the court-houses, it may be observed, have not been exercised. After these slices were taken off the Green, and after subsequent very minor alterations, the surface it covers remains at this day equal to 136 imperial acres.

In acquiring the Green our seventeenth century ancestors had no thought merely of providing an open space, a lung, or a pleasure ground for their little city. These purposes were little understood, nor did great necessity for them exist at that time. The place was primarily in the Scottish sense, a green, a grassy sward on which the population could wash and dry their clothes, in accordance with the practice of the country. Accordingly, we find that when the small original section of the Green was let to a grazing tenant it was under reservation to the inhabitants of “libertie to wash and dry their clothes, but not to bleach them thereon, as they were in use to doe on the old grein.” The prohibition of bleaching must have been temporary only, on account of the then very limited area available, for in 1745 we find that the manufacturing bleachers were using the Green for the bleaching of their yarns, and they applied to the Council to have the dues payable for the service fixed, so that they might not be imposed on by the Clerk of the Green. This use of the Green for manufacturers’ purposes thereafter attained the proportions of a public nuisance, and on 30th July, 1759, the Council, “considering that many complaints have lately been made against sundry persons who occupy and take up great part of the new Green in bleaching and washing of yarn and other goods, and thereby not only destroy the grass, but if allowed, in time coming, will deprive the inhabitants of the use of the Green for washing of their clothes, and of walking thereon, are of opinion that after this present season all bleaching and washing of yarn, or other goods, in the New Green be discharged, excepting the clothes of the inhabitants when washing, and desire the magistrates to cause the clerk make out a proper Act for that purpose to be passed at next Council.”

For the convenience of the population a washing-house was, at an early date, erected by the Council on a site near where the Nelson Monument now stands. The establishment was much used, and towards the end of last century it was a source of considerable revenue, having, it is said, been at one time let for as much as £600 per annum. In 1803 water was led into the washing-house from the Clyde by means of wooden pipes. The structure was, in 1822, abandoned for a new building erected at the foot
of William Street, and there it continued till, in 1878, it was taken over by
the Baths and Wash-Houses Sub-Committee, who pay the Common Good
£67 10s. yearly of rent for the site. On it a handsome range of washing-
houses, swimming and other baths have been erected, and the William Street
establishment is the lineal descendant and representative of the ancient
public washing-place of Glasgow.

Of not less importance was the Green in the estimation of the Council
as a field in which to graze milch cows for the citizens. Transport of milk
in bulk, and to any distance beyond which it could be carried by hand, was
impracticable till the nineteenth century provided good roads and railways;
and the local pasturage of cattle was in early times an indispensable con-
dition of social life. In centuries byegone the extensive commons provided
ample space for the summer grazing of the burgesses' stock; but these lands
had been alienated through prodigal and reckless expenditure. As a grazing
subject the value of the New Green quickly expanded as the surface improved
in quality. In 1665, when it comprehended Linningshaugh alone, it realized
not more than £3 6s. 8d. Sterling; in 1671 it brought £23 6s. 8d., and in
1681 the rent it yielded was £111 Sterling. Thereafter, with considerable
fluctuations, the grazing was let yearly till 1732 at rents which ranged
from £100 to £120, although on occasions it reached £170 and once it
came as low as £45. In 1715 the tacksman obtained a rebate of 50 merks
(£2 15s. 6d. Sterling), on a statement which set forth "That because of the
irruptions and disorders of the Kingdom by the late rebellion, which occasioned
the inhabitants of the City many tymes to go out in arms and muster in
the said Green, he sustained considerable loss and damage by the grass being
trampled upon and abused."

On 6th March, 1733, the Council adopted a resolution to the following
effect: "Considering that the grass of the new Green falls now to be
roped for the ensuing season, and that in former years the grass was set
for horses and cows promiscuously, whereby the cows had little or no
benefit of the grass, the horse being preferred by the tacksman to the best of
the grass, and the inhabitants had no encouragement to keep cows for the
service of their family, do enact and ordain that for the ensuing season
the grass of the new Green be alienarily applied for the grazing of milk
cows of such of the inhabitants as have familys, and for the use of the family,
and statute the price of each cow to be twenty merks Scots money, and
that no horses be allowed to grass in the Green, except so many as shall
be needfull for eating the cows' teathing; and remit to the magistrates to
cause make publick intimation hereof throw the City, that the inhabitants
may provide themselves with cows against the time when the Green falls
to be opened; and that betwixt and the next they cause
themselves to be booked for a cow to be grazed in the Green in a book
to be kept in the Clerk's Chamber for that purpose, and become bound
for the payment of 20 merks for each cow; and remitt to the magistrats
to take advice and inform themselves how many cows the Green may grass
the ensuing season, and give the necessary directions of making divisions in
the Green to be eaten by turns, and to agree with a fitt person for taking the
charge of the cows while in grazing, and what he should have."

In 1735 the grazing was restricted to 80 milch cows at the mail or rent
of 20s. sterling per animal, and for many years thereafter the grazing rent
did not reach £100. Towards the end of the century the grass increased
greatly in value, and we judge that the limit both of number of cows and
the charge per head must have been considerably increased. In 1790 the
rent was £141; in 1798 an enclosure was provided in which cowfeeders
milked their cows; in 1800 the rent was £249; in 1808 the grass mail was
increased to £3 3s. per cow, and in 1815 it was again raised to
£4 4s. The rent realized reached its maximum, £399, in 1810; in 1820
it was £187; in 1830, £228; and from that it declined till, in 1870, the
last year of cow grazing, the amount realized was only £52. Since that year
a small rent is obtained for the sheep grazing of certain enclosed portions.

Bit by bit the ancient idea of a green was abandoned, and Glasgow
Green gradually assumed the appearance of a public park. Towards the
end of the eighteenth century the Glasgow Golf Club obtained the privi-
lege of playing over the Green, and there the royal and ancient game con-
tinued to be practised till the club expired about 1832. In the meantime,
from 1813, the indefatigable Dr. Cleland had done much to improve the
surface of the Green and its accesses; and presumably to make the playing
of golf an exercise too tame for our fathers. In 1806 the Council granted
a site on the Green near the herd's house for the erection of a monument
to Viscount Nelson, and the column thereupon erected has since been a
prominent feature and rallying point in the Green. In 1826, partly by
private subscription and partly at the expense of the Corporation which con-
tributed £400, a carriage drive 2 1/2 miles long was formed around the Green
at the total cost of £2050. The work was undertaken to provide employ-
ment to weavers and others during one of the too frequently recurring periods
of distress. In the following year, 1827, the Council were authorized to
complete the carriage way and to levy tolls to provide funds to meet the
cost; but subscribers of £10 and upwards to the original fund were exempt
from the impost. The roadway was opened for vehicles in May, 1828, but
the amount collected for tolls from that time till December, 1830, was
only £95, while the expense of collection was £66, the net produce re-
presenting less than £1 per month. The toll rate was reduced thereafter,
but it never was a profitable impost, and in April, 1857, it was finally
abandoned. From time to time onwards from 1828 considerable sums
were spent out of the Common Good in improving and beautifying the
Green; till in 1878, under the Glasgow Public Parks Act, responsibility
for its condition and the cost of maintenance were transferred to the Council acting in the capacity of Parks and Galleries Trustees. Since that time, in respect of laying out, the maintenance of flower beds, the planting of trees, the formation and upkeep of roads, the Green has been treated as one of the ordinary parks of the City.

By the early part of the nineteenth century the Fair of Glasgow, which at one time had been an extensive annual market, had degenerated into little more than an annual holiday and festival, the chief features of which were the shows and booths of a somewhat vulgar and rude character. These extended down the Saltmarket, and came to occupy ground in front of the court-houses which belonged to the Green, and as they increased in number they spread inwards over the Green reaching to near the Nelson monument. At first they were allowed to occupy stances without payment; but in 1815 a charge was instituted for such as were pitched on the Green, and the receipts from that source gradually increased till in 1870 they amounted to £590. In 1871 the further occupation of the Green by shows was prohibited, and Glasgow Fair had to seek a site in other quarters. During the fifty-three years, 1819-71, in which the receipts from the shows are recorded, they yielded to the City no less a sum than £14,828, an average of £280 yearly.

But there are other shows which have long characterized the space between the court-houses and Nelson's Monument, and which still continue in unabated vigour. From time immemorial it has been classical ground to the east-end controversialists; there Orangemen and Romanists have fought bloodless battles by the thousand, and there that great handbook of small controversialists, the Hammersmith Discussion, has been more referred to and quoted than on any other spot on the face of the earth. There the eager Radical with never-wearied energy confutes the stupid Tory, and the lofty-souled Socialist, conscious of his superiority, annihilates with ease all shades of orthodox political opinion. On the Green the atheist readily confutes the arguments of the earnest but little disciplined recruit of the Salvation Army, while the total abstainer has it all his own way in preaching the mission and forcing home the lesson of temperance. Every enthusiast, every crank, and every quack can have his stance and his audience on the Green, and on Saturday afternoons and Sunday evenings the sights and the sounds are full of interest and suggestiveness. Let it not be thought that the whole matter is mere bubble and froth; the phenomenon represents a vast aggregate of serious purpose if not of deep thought, and it forms a most efficient safety-valve for blowing off social, political, and religious sentiments which otherwise might attain explosive force.

The mineral wealth which is stored in the Green is a subject to which attention has very often been drawn, and many proposals have been put forward to have it worked for the benefit of the City. As early as 1821
Dr. Cleland submitted a report to the Town Council on the subject, showing what profits might reasonably be expected from working the coal. Later, in 1822, Mr. Robert Simpson reported; he was followed by Mr. John Grieve in 1825, and by Mr. William Dixon of Govan Colliery in 1828. Mr. Dixon estimated the quantity of coal obtainable as 1,500,000 tons, an estimate borne out by later reports. It is also known that there exist valuable seams of fire-clay which could be worked along with the coal. At periodical intervals throughout the century reports have been obtained and the question of working the minerals has been discussed, the latest discussion on the subject having taken place in 1888. In 1858 the Council came the length of sanctioning a resolution to let the working of the minerals by public auction; but the proposal roused to activity the jealous watchfulness of the east end, and in public meeting assembled the inhabitants declared that the working of the minerals would injure the surface and the river banks, dry up the public wells in the Green, and destroy the roads, paths, and trees. Therefore they protested against the invasion of their rights, and, by deputations and otherwise, so wrought on the Council that the proposal was withdrawn, and never since has the question attained such maturity. The Council meantime have the satisfaction of knowing that in the depths of the Green they have a property of great value which will keep in good condition for an indefinite time, and which in all probability will become more precious with the lapse of time.

The opposition of the inhabitants of the eastern district to the working of the coal in the Green is not an isolated phenomenon. For many years they have shown themselves peculiarly jealous of any encroachment on or interference with what they proudly regard as the people's park, and councillors recognize the fact that they must be wary indeed in dealing with questions which affect that property. In 1868 a proposal was brought before the Council for improving the roadway between William Street and John Street, in carrying out which about 2200 yards of the Green would be thrown into the street. Immediately the east end was in a ferment over the project, a deputation appeared at a Council meeting to protest against it, and as the Council in face of the protest resolved by a majority to proceed with the work, a petition for suspension and interdict was presented in the Court of Session. Interim interdict was refused by the Outer House, but on appeal to the Inner House interim interdict was granted, and thereafter proceedings were suspended, and a compromise was effected between parties under which the interdict was recalled, and a modified footpath arrangement was agreed to. Before and since that time many similar incidents have occurred which show the watchfulness of the inhabitants of the east over what they mistakenly consider their ancient patrimony.

For, strangely, of all the public parks in Glasgow the Green is pre-
cisely that in which the east-end can be shown to have the most slender hereditary and proprietary rights. We have seen it was acquired from the ordinary funds of the Corporation between the years 1662 and 1792; but at the latest of these dates, and for more than half-a-century afterwards, the east end did not belong to the City, and consequently it contributed neither to the purchase nor the maintenance of the Green. Calton and the adjacent districts abutting on the Green were not absorbed by Glasgow till 1846, and even for thirty years thereafter the inhabitants of all that great district paid nothing towards the maintenance of the Green. Till 1878 all expenditure in its maintenance came from the Common Good, the patrimony of the ancient royalty; and it was only in that year, by the passing of the Parks Act, that the Green was placed under the charge of the Parks and Galleries Trustees, and for the first time became a charge on the ratepayers. In the case of every other public park acquired by purchase, on the other hand, the whole of the east end, in common with the rest of the City, bore their fair share of the burden from the very first; and thus in truth the Green of Glasgow was the purchased property of the ancient royalty, which acquired no revenue from the east end, nor had any responsibility in connection with that district.
CHAPTER XXXII.

MODERN PARKS AND RECREATION GROUNDS.


Kelvingrove Park. For a period of sixty years, from 1792 till 1852, nothing was done by the Town Council in the way of adding to the pleasuregrounds and open spaces of Glasgow, and the Green remained the only public park of the City. In the meantime the population had increased from 66,000 to 330,000, and a more densely packed hive of human industry than Glasgow nowhere existed in the United Kingdom. In the fifties the population was continuing to increase rapidly, the lands within easy reach of the centre of the City were being quickly covered with buildings, and it was evident that if the evils of overcrowding were to be checked, if natural city lungs were to be preserved, and if any space in which the populace could look on green grass, growing trees and shrubs, and which they could call their own was to be secured, the time had arrived for taking action.

Lying to the west of the City, as yet unbuilt on, but being rapidly approached by the tide of population, was the romantic valley through which the river Kelvin reaches the Clyde. Still little desecrated by the hand of speculative builder or the dealer in unrestricted ground, the whole valley from Maryhill to the Clyde, with the many windings of the stream through
its steep wooded banks, offered scenes of singular charm and variety. Nature had laid out the valley for a park or parks, and it had interposed obstacles which impeded its diversion to less lovely ends. Along its course the valley was dotted with the mansions of wealthy citizens who, by the cultivation of fine trees within their grounds, had added to the natural attractions of the scene. Situated most convenient for the City, immediately to the north of the Dumbarton Road, were the lands of Kelvingrove, a romantic spot, and a name rendered classic in Scottish poetry by Lyle's fine song, "Let us haste to Kelvingrove." The mazes of Kelvingrove were already a favourite resort of the citizens of Glasgow, and it was a fortunate conjunction of circumstances which enabled the Town Council to secure that romantic and popular expanse as a perpetual property for the citizens. The lands of Kelvingrove and Woodlands, with some adjoining portions of Clairmont, Woodside, and Blythswood, extending to 66 acres, were purchased in 1852 for the sum of £77,995. Certain portions, embracing the crest of the hill and the slopes towards Woodlands, were reserved for feuing, and are now covered by the dwelling-houses of Park Terrace, Park Quadrant, Park Circus, and Park Gardens, etc. The right was reserved also to feu a strip 120 feet in depth fronting Royal Terrace and Park Grove Terrace, but the remainder was dedicated in perpetuity to park purposes. The park contained a fine mansion house in the Adams style, built by Provost Colquhoun in the last quarter of the eighteenth century, which ultimately served to house the nucleus of the Kelvingrove Museum.

From time to time the area of Kelvingrove Park has been added to, and the acquisition of the contiguous Gilmorehill on the opposite bank of the Kelvin, and later, of Donaldshill still farther west as a site for the Western Infirmary also largely increased the open space of the district. In 1864 the Glasgow and South-Western and the North British Railway Companies obtained parliamentary powers to acquire the old College and its grounds in the High Street. Thereupon the University authorities immediately purchased the lands of Gilmorehill and Donaldshill, grounds much in excess of their requirements, and in connection with that purchase the question of extension of the park to the farther bank of the Kelvin arose. After a good deal of negotiation an understanding was arrived at under which the Corporation relieved the University of Donaldshill, and acquired the unappropriated portion of Gilmorehill, 20½ acres in extent, at a price of £19,000 to be thrown into Kelvingrove Park. By a subsequent contract of excambion nearly the whole of Donaldshill was reconveyed to the University in exchange for the lands of Clayslaps which had been acquired for a hospital, and the Western Infirmary was erected on Donaldshill. On the Clayslaps' side the park was rounded off by a complicated series of purchases, including part of Overnewton from the Improvement Trust, a portion of Kelvinbank indirectly from the Trades' House, Clayslaps'
Mill, etc., from the Bakers' Incorporation, and other minor purchases. In all, these added to the park 19 acres of ground at a cost which works out to about £65,000.

In 1888 the Glasgow International Exhibition was held within the Clayslaps and Gilmorehill portions of Kelvingrove Park. Previous to that time the Clayslaps lands had been principally appropriated by the youth of the western district as a playground, and to compensate them for the loss of their recreation ground an open space on the opposite side of the Dumbarton Road was rented from the Bakers' Incorporation and formed into a public playground. After the exhibition buildings had been removed it was decided by the Town Council to devote the central portion of the Clayslaps lands to the purposes of the new Art Galleries and Museum then in contemplation, so that there was no prospect of a playground again being obtained within the park. In these circumstances the Parks Committee agreed with the Bakers' Incorporation to acquire their Bunhouse ground, 6½ acres in extent, for a public recreation ground, and in 1895, at a cost of £30,000, the bargain was concluded.

Including this recreation ground the whole area of Kelvingrove Park now equals 91½ acres. It has been acquired at a cost of £175,000, but with added capital expenditure the cost has been increased till now it stands in the books of the trustees at £270,000.

Queen's Park. With the Green to serve the eastern district of the City, and Kelvingrove Park provided for the west end, the Town Council next turned their attention to the wants of the south side, where a vast residential population had gradually accumulated, chiefly on land feuded from the Trades' House, the Hutchesons' Hospital, and the City, out of their joint purchase of the Gorbals estate in the seventeenth century. In 1857 the property which now forms the major portion of Queen's Park was acquired from Mr. Neale Thomson of Camphill. It then consisted of a farm, Pathhead, which had been a portion of Pollok estate, and had been acquired by Mr. Thomson from Sir John Maxwell. Pathhead embraced about 143 acres, and Mr. Thomson parted with it to the City at the price (£30,000) he had himself paid for the land. A slice of the ground, amounting to 53 acres, was dedicated for feuing purposes, 33 acres were set apart as a recreation ground, and the area retained for a public park did not exceed 57 acres. A plan for the laying out of the park was obtained from Sir Joseph Paxton.

The acquisition of a park at that time well outside the City boundaries, and far removed from the people even of the south side, was strongly resented and opposed. The park, it was true, was within a short distance of the Coplawhill property of the Corporation, and of the southern limits of the Hutchesons' Hospital property; but the southward extension of these grounds was still unoccupied. But when the Victoria Road, leading in a
straight line from Eglinton Street up to the main gate of the park, was formed, much of the ground around the park was quickly occupied with houses, and a community grew up between the municipal limits and the park purchased at the expense of the City. By-and-by that aggregation of building became a populous place, and, after due formalities, it was constituted a Police Burgh under the name of Crosshill, independent of, and in some ways opposed to the City by which it had been created, fostered, watered, and lighted. Afterwards a second Police Burgh—Govanhill—was instituted, and Glasgow citizens thereupon found themselves in the position of being barred from direct access to their own park, without passing through a suburban burgh. This anomalous condition of affairs continued till, by the passing of the City of Glasgow Act of 1891, not only were these burghs absorbed, but the limits of the City were extended consider-ably beyond the farthest boundary of the park. Then the wisdom of the purchase of 1857 was triumphantly demonstrated: it had created a fine residential suburb, and it had secured for the growing City a magnificent park, which, at a later period, would either have been unattainable, or purchasable only at an enormous cost.

In 1857 Queen's Park was purchased for £210 per acre; in 1894 Camphill grounds were added to the park at a cost of £1086 per acre, more than five times the rate paid for the original ground. Camphill, with its fine garden and mansion-house, had been acquired by the Hutchison's Hospital in 1866 from Neale Thomson's Trustees with the view of holding and disposing of it as a feuing subject. In extent the ground measured 58 acres, and it cost the hospital £24,000. For many years an intermittent negotiation was carried on between the City and the hospital authorities for an excambion by which a certain amount of building ground would be obtained by the hospital for park ground to be added to Queen's Park. On the passing of the City of Glasgow Act in 1891 larger views possessed the City authorities. The inclusion of a vastly increased area within municipal bounds warranted an increase in the number and the size of the parks of Glasgow, and in the course of 1894 an agreement was concluded for the purchase of Camphill at the price of £63,000, being the amount of the original cost to the hospital governors, plus 4 per cent. per annum of compound interest. Queen's Park and recreation ground with this addition now measure 148 acres.

The capital expenditure on Queen's Park is written down in the books of the trustees at £58,500, against which there remains in their hands feuing ground estimated as worth £40,000. Camphill capital account has reached the sum of £73,000, in which expenditure is included a sum of more than £6000 laid out in the formation of nursery gardens, and in the erection of a spacious range of green-houses, which are open as a show-place to public inspection. Whether any of the ground of Camphill shall be feued is a question which yet awaits determination.
Alexandra Park, the fourth of the great public parks of Glasgow, is situated on the north-east bounds of the City, lying between the Cumbernauld Road and the Monkland Canal. Along its western extremity passes the City Union Railway, which has a passenger station at the corner of the park, while a branch of the Caledonian Railway passes through its eastern side. It serves the large population of Dennistoun, Bellgrove, and Whitevale, and the tide of population in this district has just surged up to the margin of the park. The park was acquired in 1866 under powers conferred on the City Improvement Trustees, who, by their Act of Parliament, were authorized to expend the sum of £40,000 on the purchase of a park for this district. Under these powers 80 acres of land were purchased from Mr. Walter Stewart, of Haghill, for the sum of £25,664, and to this was added, by gift from Mr. Alexander Dennistoun, of Golfhill, 5 acres more, which served to connect the park with the Alexandra Parade, which runs through the Golfhill property to the south-western extremity of the park. The balance, up to the authorized £40,000, was expended by the Improvement Trustees in the enclosing and laying out of the park, in forming roads and paths, planting trees, and generally in transforming a bare and bleak rising ground into such a pleasantly blossoming and attractive park as the conditions and surroundings admit. For, in truth, the difficulties in the way of rendering Alexandra Park bright and thriving are considerable. It lies directly in the line in which prevailing winds drive the great smoke canopy of the City, and on its north-west boundary Blochairn Steel Works belch forth huge volumes of dense black smoke unceasingly. These conditions, and the stiff cold clay which forms the soil of certain portions, make it difficult to keep a decent growth of grass on the northern slopes of the park.

In 1891 the area of the park was much increased by the purchase of the lands of Easter Kennyhill, which bounded the original park on the east. These lands, extending to 40 acres, were purchased by the Parks Trustees for £8000; but as considerable marginal strips of the original purchase, as well as of Kennyhill, have been reserved for feuing, the area of Alexandra Park may be put down at 90 acres.

No thoroughfare passes through Alexandra Park, and the population on its further side is but sparse. It is, partly on that account, the least frequented of the larger public parks, and therefore without undue risk it can be used as a golf course, to which purposes part of it has been devoted. For many years the resuscitated Glasgow Golf Club had their modest club-house within the park, and they possessed no other course till the growing strength of the club and the popularity of the game warranted them in acquiring the sea-side links of Gailes near Irvine. At a later period the club took from the Corporation a lease of the lands of Blackhill contiguous to Alexandra Park, but the club-house they continued to occupy till 1896. In 1895, under an omnibus Act of Parliament, the
Parks Trustees obtained powers for regulating and making a charge for games played in the public parks, and acting on these powers the Parks Committee have taken the supervision of the golfing into their own hands, and numerous Glasgow clubs which are not in a position to afford the luxury of a private green, can, as at Musselburgh, enjoy their pastime for the modest expenditure of 7s. 6d. for a yearly ticket, or for the payment of twopence a day.

A disused quarry in the north-west corner of the park is enclosed, filled with water, and under proper supervision is in extensive use during the summer months as a public bathing place. In the lower part of the park, near the Cumbernauld Road, a pretty miniature islanded lake has been formed, which is enlivened with a stock of water fowl; and adjoining it is another considerable sheet of water laid out as a model yacht pond, on which the tiny craft of many budding naval architects show their sailing qualities.

*Cathkin Braes Park* lies to the south-east of Glasgow, about 2 miles from its nearest boundary, and 1½ miles beyond the ancient Burgh of Rutherglen. It forms part of the picturesque ridge of Cathkin Hill, separating the Clyde valley from the subsidiary valley of the Cart. The park, in alternate gentle slopes, rugged escarpments, and level plateaus, rises till it attains a height of about 600 feet above sea-level, from which elevation a glorious expanse of valley and mountain, field, wood, river, village, and city lies under the eye of the spectator. The park presents several peculiarities which might be commented on. It is the first public park which has come to the citizens as a free gift; it is so remote from the City as to be more of the nature of a holiday resort than a park for daily use; and it remains as nearly as possible an expanse of primitive hillside, with its crags and knolls, its natural grass, and its hap-hazard clumps of trees, brushwood, and bushes, untouched by the formal hand of the landscape gardener. It is a spot of old and established reputation among the pedestrians and picnic parties of Glasgow; its traditional connection with Queen Mary and the disastrous day of Langside—as well founded as such traditions usually are—gives it a touch of historical interest and romance, and the panorama from the huge travelled boulder, Queen Mary's Seat, in the upper part of the park might be without equal in broad Scotland. "Might be," we are unfortunately bound to say, for the great Clyde valley, which lies all before us, should show the Clyde flowing with many leisurely bends and windings onwards to the wide firth which carries the wealth of nations to and from Glasgow. The valley itself should spread out like a map with meadow, cornfield, and forest stretching to the far-away Ochils, the Campsie Fells, to Ben Lomond, and the Argyllshire hills, to the braes of Gleniffer, and to the distant peaks of Arran. And most suggestive of all the vast hive of human industry, the dwelling-place of three-quarters of a million of human beings,
occupies the middle distance, shooting up its innumerable factory stalks into the sky, dominated at one extreme by the University, and appropriately near the other by the ancient Cathedral. These and much more might be, and under favourable circumstances are, seen: but the pall of smoke which fills the valley but seldom lifts, and it is only by snatches that the landscape is revealed, and the imagination has to contend with the aggravating gloom in conceiving the glory which would be revealed under a lucent atmosphere.

The local attractions and fame of Cathkin Braes being great, it was with peculiar pleasure that the citizens, in 1886, received the news that a park there, in which was included the celebrated Queen Mary's view, had been secured to them in perpetuity. It was the gift of Mr. James Dick, of Messrs. R. & J. Dick, two of the most successful of modern captains of industry. Mr. Dick purchased the ground, 49 acres in extent, from Mr. John Miller, of Fernhill, and at once transferred it to the Corporation to be held "in perpetuity as a place of resort for the community and inhabitants of the City of Glasgow." In making the transfer Mr. Dick wisely stipulated that the natural features and configuration of the ground should as far as possible be preserved, and that the lands should "not be used for football, cricket, and other similar games and sports."

It is needless to say that the conditions of gift imposed by Mr. Dick—conditions which enhance the benefaction, have been most loyally observed by the Parks Committee, and the humblest citizen of Glasgow has the means of appreciating a hillside—his own property—as it might have existed almost before mankind trod this earth. Saturday afternoons, Sundays, and holidays see the park crowded with excursionists, who thoroughly enjoy the unfettered freedom of roaming where they will, amid surroundings that the roughest can do little to mar.

Maxwell Park became a possession of Glasgow under the provisions of the City of Glasgow Act, which among other things incorporated the Police Burgh of West Pollokshields with the City. To the feuars of that burgh there had been presented, in 1888, by Sir John Stirling-Maxwell, their superior, for a public park, a piece of ground 21 acres in extent; and by the Commissioners the ground was sufficiently drained and top-dressed, laid off with walks, trees, clumps of bushes, and flower beds, and an ornamental pond was formed which gives convenience for the mild recreation of model yacht sailing. On the eastern boundary of the park, moreover, the Burgh Commissioners erected for themselves, at a cost of about £5000, a spacious and elegant burgh hall with various attached offices and apartments. The park so laid out and improved came, in 1891, into the charge of the Parks Committee, whilst the burgh hall became a property of the Police Department.

Maxwell Park, lying to the south-west of the City in the residential district of West Pollokshields, is in a villa region where air space is abundant.
But it is a pleasant recreation ground for the district, it is not out of the reach of the less privileged inhabitants of Kinning Park, and the ground which lies between it and the Queen's Park is being rapidly covered by tenement buildings. Its value therefore is bound to increase as time rolls on, and the fact that a station of the Cathcart District Railway is on its borders makes the place accessible to a vast and ever-growing population.

**Springburn Park** is a creation of our own day, but so also is the inhabited region it serves. The district to the north of the City is that of great railway works and depots, and of engineering establishments. There, the vast workshops of the Caledonian system are concentrated; there, is the principal goods depot of the North British Railway; and the Hydepark Locomotive Works, and the locomotive works of Sharp, Stewart & Co. are also in the district. For the use of this great industrial population, Springburn Park, \(53 \frac{1}{2}\) acres in extent, was acquired by the Parks Committee in 1892 at a cost of £20,710. The ground rises to a height of 310 feet, and, standing clear of the surrounding country, it commands a magnificent view through the Kelvin valley eastward to the Ochil Hills, the Kilsyth and Campsie Hills, with distant peaks towering over them; then farther west it takes in Ben Lomond and the rugged peaks of Argyllshire, and sometimes on the western horizon a glimpse of Goatfell in Arran may be obtained.

In laying out the park, strips of ground around its margin have been reserved for feuing: Springburn, like the other parks, has been provided with a bandstand, and the inevitable model yacht pond—without which no modern Glasgow park is complete—has been duly attended to. The cost of enclosing, draining, trenching, forming roads, plots planting, erecting buildings, and other operations, has increased the capital expenditure on the park to about £33,000.

**Ruchill Park** has several features in common with its northern neighbour of Springburn, from which it is distant in a westerly direction about two miles. It was purchased in the same year, it occupies a similar commanding elevation and overlooks the same general distant features of the landscape, and it serves the same industrial class of the community from Possilpark on the east, Maryhill on the west, and the Cowcaddens on the south. Ruchill was a joint purchase on behalf of the Health Committee for hospital purposes, and the Parks Trustees for a public park for the district. The eastern portion, 34 acres in extent, was appropriated for a fever hospital, and the larger slice lying to the west, extending to 53 acres, became Ruchill Park at a cost of £35,700. The name of the park gives some indication of its nature, for it was a comparatively rough hill; and to give the attractions of a public park to its cold clayey soil necessitates much labour and expenditure. It is therefore no matter of wonder that the expenditure on this park has already raised its capital cost to about £48,500, while much yet remains to do ere it can be looked on as in the normal condition of a public park.
Bellahouston Park. The latest and what will be the largest of the parks of Glasgow was purchased in August, 1895, from the Trustees of the Bellahouston Bequest Fund. The Bellahouston Trust was constituted under a settlement executed in 1871 by Misses Elizabeth and Grace Steven, who, in conformity with the wish of their brother Moses Steven, then recently dead, dedicated for charitable, religious, and educational purposes within the City, property equal to about half a million sterling. In dealing with and distributing the property large discretionary powers were left to the trustees, who had to act only in accordance with general instructions. The property of Bellahouston came into the family by the marriage of the testators' father to Janet, daughter of William Rowan, of Bellahouston. The trust became operative on the death of Elizabeth, the eldest of the family, who at the advanced age of eighty-nine died in 1892. After some negotiations the trustees agreed to sell the lands, extending to 176 acres or thereby, for £50,000, for the purpose of a public park to the City. From the magnificent situation of the ground and the fact that building operations are rapidly extending in that direction, there is no doubt that the trustees could have realized a much higher price for their property; but the dedication of the estate to public use was not inconsistent with the purposes of the trust; and they were warranted in concluding a bargain which at once conferred a great boon on the City and secured a permanent memorial of the benevolent ladies.

The conditions of the sale were that "the property should be held and used exclusively, and in all time coming as a public park for, and on behalf of, and for the use of the citizens of Glasgow, and that no part of the ground should be feu'd, sold, gifted or used for the erection of buildings of any kind, save and except such buildings as may be necessary for a lodge-keeper's, caretaker's, or gardener's house, or other buildings directly and strictly connected with the said park." It was also stipulated that in all time coming the park should be designated the Bellahouston Park.

Bellahouston Park lies to the south-west of the City, its northern boundary being formed by the Glasgow and Paisley Road, on which side also, close by, is the Ibrox Station of the Glasgow and Paisley joint line. At the time of its acquisition Bellahouston Park lay just outside the municipal boundary; but by the Further Powers Act of 1896 the part of Lanarkshire which includes the park and the ground lying between it and the Glasgow and Paisley Railway, in all about 450 acres, has been annexed to the City. The situation of Bellahouston is such as to render it an ideal public park. It slopes upward on every side to form an elongated knoll or ridge with its long axis running east and west; attaining at the highest point an elevation of 165 feet. A magnificent hilly panorama to the west is within unobstructed view from its well wooded summit, and to the
north and east stretches out the great City, prominent features of which are the University and the bold outline of Park Terrace dominating the Kelvingrove Park. In every direction the view is full of charm, variety, and historical interest, while the almost untainted south-western breezes encourage a vigorous life in tree, flower, and shrub, a grace which unfortunately cannot be realized in most of the other parks.

Entry to certain grass parks having an area of about 34 acres was obtained at Martinmas, 1895, and the mansion-house, offices, policies and garden, 10½ acres, were handed over at Whitsunday, 1896, and on 30th May these portions were thrown open to the public. It will not be till the expiry of certain agricultural leases, and the sufficient hardening of grass on presently cultivated land that the whole of this magnificent property will be fully available for its dedicated purpose of "a public park in all time coming for the use of the citizens of Glasgow."

**Recreation Grounds, Open Spaces, and Disused Graveyards.** While the City is thus engirdled with a ring of public parks which, were Elder Park of Govan and the Victoria Park of Partick included, would number twelve and measure almost a thousand acres, there are other provisions made for public recreation and City lung space less imposing but scarcely less important than these spacious grounds. As has been repeatedly pointed out in these pages, Glasgow was a closely built and densely packed City; but operating towards one common end, several public departments have succeeded in securing numerous open spaces, small squares, playgrounds, etc., of incalculable value for the teeming population, and a perpetual delight to children, who otherwise would have made the public streets their playground. Through the agency of the Improvement Trust, several of these valuable open spaces have been secured; under the City of Glasgow Act, 1891, certain of the districts annexed to the City became entitled to receive small parks and open spaces; the Health Committee have with a generous hand exercised their wide powers in providing recreation grounds for children in the more needy districts; and finally the Parks Committee obtained powers under their Act of 1878 to take over and maintain, as open spaces, certain disused graveyards within the City. Most of these small parks, recreation grounds, and playgrounds have been put under the care of the Parks Committee, who also have taken over the supervision of a number of the older public squares; but for the supervision of several small playgrounds and for the provision within them of gymnastic appliances the Health Committee are responsible.

Certain of these minor spaces attain the dimensions of small parks. The Maryhill recreation ground, situated at the north extremity of that suburb, extends to 5½ acres, and was acquired, in terms of the 1891 Act, by the Parks Trustees at a cost of upwards of £2000. Similarly the Govanhill recreation ground, consisting of 4 acres of Gorbals feuing ground purchased from Hutchesons' Hospital, cost the Parks Trustees £12,200, in addition to
the expense involved in enclosing and laying out. Of the recreation and playgrounds provided by the Health Committee, the most important and by far the most costly is the Phoenix recreation ground in the Garscube Road and Port-Dundas industrial district. It is the site of what was formerly the Phoenix Foundry, and for it, with an area of 2 acres 1 rood 24 poles, £25,000, in addition to a ground annual of £84, was paid by the Health Committee. At the expense of that body the ground was enclosed, laid out, planted with shrubs and flowers, and two gymnasias—one for each sex of youngsters—and a bandstand were provided. Messrs. Buchanan Brothers, local employers of labour, added a handsome fountain to the attractions of this fine pleasure ground. To enter into further detail regarding other playgrounds, etc., would occupy too much space, and here only can be given a list of the several areas now in charge of the Parks Committee.

4. Overnewton Square. 11. Nithsdale Road. 4. Clyde Street, Calton.

GRAVEYARDS.

1. The five graveyards first enumerated are open to the public; the other two, although kept by the Parks Committee, are not open.

These spaces, in permanent charge of the Parks Committee, are being constantly added to, and wherever the Health Committee can find in a necessitous district a suitable small area for a children's playground it is freely acquired, asphalted over, and furnished with the swings, see-saws, and vaulting beams which are a perpetual delight to the otherwise neglected rising population.

The Botanic Garden. At the beginning of the nineteenth century there existed in connection with the College in the High Street a small patch of ground which, under the name of the Physic Garden, was devoted to the cultivation of medicinal plants. At that time the study of scientific botany was but poorly encouraged in Glasgow University, as may be judged from the fact that it was conjoined with anatomy under one professor; and it was not till 1818 that a separate chair of botany was instituted, the first professor being William Hooker—afterwards Sir William Hooker, director of Kew Gardens. But even for the requirements of the
science, such as they were, the Physic Garden was quite inadequate, and after years of effort Mr. Thomas Hopkirk, of Dalbeth, succeeded in 1816 in forming a society for the establishment of a botanic garden in Glasgow. Mr. Hopkirk was an enthusiastic botanist, and had himself formed a collection of 3000 plants, which he presented to the institution. He secured the co-operation of numerous wealthy citizens, and from the University there was obtained a grant of £2000, under the conditions that the garden and scientific collection should always be available for the teaching purposes of the College. So supported, about 8 acres of ground were purchased at the west end of Sauchiehall Road, over which Fitzroy Place, Royal Crescent, etc., now are built; and the garden was in 1817 laid out under the charge of Mr. Stewart Murray. In 1819 the society was incorporated under the name of the Royal Botanic Institution of Glasgow, with Sir Islay Campbell, of Succoth, as president, and Mr. Hopkirk in the position of vice-president.

On its original site the garden was a successful and popular institution, and a really valuable collection of plants was brought together, chiefly through the energy and influence of Professor Hooker. But within twenty years the westward tide of population rendered a removal compulsory, and in 1838 the area was disposed of to a company of building speculators. In 1839 the directors secured the larger portion of the space on which the garden now is planted, and the work of laying off the ground, and removing and replanting the collections, was sufficiently advanced to enable the institution to be reopened in 1842. The new garden embraced 22 acres lying between the Great Western Road and the south bank of the Kelvin on a fine rising ground, at that time well removed from all population, and in an untainted atmosphere.

The laying out and maintenance of the more ambitious garden, with its various houses, etc., proved a burden too heavy for the directors, and in spite of much generous help, debt and difficulties accumulated on the institution. In 1863, as the result of a special effort to free the garden from its encumbrances, about £8000 was collected; but this relief only postponed the evil day. Notwithstanding the receipt of other substantial individual subscriptions, especially from Mr. William Campbell, of Tulliechewan, and Mr. William Euing, the financial difficulties of the directors increased, and in the end they were obliged to appeal to the Town Council of Glasgow for help to keep the gates open and the garden in proper condition and repair.

In the year 1871 the directors entered into an agreement with Mr. John Kibble, under which that gentleman undertook to remove from his grounds at Coulport, and re-erect in the garden, a vast glass conservatory then known as the Kibble Palace. The agreement provided that for twenty-one years Mr. Kibble was to have a free lease of the erection for public meetings, concerts, and "entertainments of an elevating character."
The arrangement was not favourable to the garden, nor was it satisfactory to those interested in the lease, and in the end the directors were obliged to buy up the outside interest, which left them deeper in debt to the Corporation, but also in possession of a magnificent glass conservatory, which thereafter was formed into a winter garden. At a later period the entire reconstruction of the glass houses in the garden, under the supervision of Professor Bayley Balfour, served to render the burden of debt hopeless. The question of the maintenance of the garden came to be a principal factor in the schemes of annexation of Hillhead and Kelvinside, which from time to time were under discussion, and rival proposals for its future maintenance were put forward by the City on one side and by Hillhead and Partick on the other. In the meantime the City, as bondholder, had acquired practical control over the fate of the institution; and in 1887, to save the collections from ruin, the Town Council were invited to enter into possession, and under the City of Glasgow Act of 1891, which annexed Hillhead and Kelvinside, the property was formally conveyed to the Parks Trustees as a public park. At that time the indebtedness of the institution amounted to £59,531 which represents the cost of the garden to the public. Since the garden was acquired by the Corporation about 8½ acres on the northern banks of the Kelvin, formerly known as Montgomerie Woods, have been added to it at a cost of £3800. From the Caledonian Railway £12,660 has been received for way-leave and station room within the garden, and after deducting that amount the capital cost of the garden with its magnificent houses and collections of plants, etc., stands at the modest figure of £64,400—a very moderate payment for such a fine park and so rich a botanical collection as it is now the pride of the City to possess.

Near the entrance to the Garden is an ornamental piece of water containing a number of rare aquatic plants, and adjoining that is a rockery clothed with alpine plants. The belt of plantation extending from the gate westward contains numerous species of willows, poplar, birch, oak, beech, hornbeam, plane, and other timber trees. On the rising ground to the west is laid out the collection of herbaceous plants, arranged according to Hooker and Bentham's Genera Plantarum, which, under their Charter, the directors became obliged to maintain for scientific purposes. The Kibble Conservatory at the east end of the garden, constructed entirely of glass and iron, and covering nearly two acres of ground, is one of the finest glass-houses in Europe. The façade is 150 feet in length, and is composed of entrance hall, 50 feet wide, terminating on either side by transepts 50 by 28 feet. The main feature of the Conservatory is a circular structure, 471 feet in circumference, the roof of which is supported by 36 elegant iron pillars, connected by spandrels of fret-work. The green-houses are ribbed entirely with teak wood, and are admirably adapted for the growing of plants and flowers. The range in sequence contains a
collection of Indian azaleas, next orchids and ferns, followed by greenhouse ferns, then epacris and heaths of temperate latitudes. In the Conservatory, properly so called, is a fine collection of succulents, the American aloe, night-flowing cactus, epiphyllums and Haworthias, etc. The palm house contains in addition to the date palm, the dwarf palm, the great fan palm, etc., a collection of cycads, zamias, and encephalartos, and lastly comes a miscellaneous collection of economic plants—tea, coffee, pepper, cinnamon, India-rubber, sugar, etc., etc.

The Botanic Garden has a popular as well as a scientific side, and especially during the summer months it is the favourite resort and promenade place of vast crowds. Musical performances are given on Saturday afternoons and on stated evenings during the season; and occasionally during the winter the vast covered area of the Kibble Palace is also utilized for band performances to the great gratification of the public. And while the healthful recreation of the masses is thus catered for, it is not done by sacrificing the scientific value of the institution, for at no period in its existence has the Botanic Garden of Glasgow been a more efficient instrument of scientific instruction than at the present day.
CHAPTER XXXIII.

SCIENCE AND ART. ART GALLERIES AND MUSEUMS.


It is only in our own day that municipalities have come to recognize as part of their duties the provision and maintenance of museums and art galleries, and that circumstance itself is full of interest and suggestiveness. The facts of history show that the ruling powers have, in all times, been the collectors of rare and costly things, of the treasures of art, the triumphs of human ingenuity and skill, and the wonders of science. But the aim of these ruling collectors in earlier times was entirely different from the purposes for which the modern municipal authorities form their museums. Among ancient potentates the collection and hoarding of treasures were the principal means of storing and preserving accumulated wealth. When in mediaeval times the churches became rich storehouses of venerated relics, of the most cunningly wrought and embroidered textures, of the marvels of the goldsmith and enameller, of unperishing mosaics, and of the supreme conceptions of artists in fresco and oil painting, the object of the churchmen collectors, beyond personal ostentation and aggrandisement, was the increase of the power and domination of the Church. And so it was with the emperors and kings, with the ruling families, the Medicis and other Italian tyrants; their patronage of art and science and their magnificent collections were not for the people, but for their own selfish gratification and for the ostentatious display of their wealth and power. Now that it is the turn of the municipalities to exercise democratic
rule and authority over the people, they, in their turn, have become collectors; but their modest museums, as become strictly democratic times, are for the instruction and the gratification of the people at large. The modern ratepayer has the satisfaction of knowing that, while he pays for the support of museum and art gallery, the institutions are his property and dedicated to his service; his ancestor equally paid for the collections of the potentates of his time; but the gathered treasures were neither his nor for him.

No municipal museum in the United Kingdom can lay claim to an age which carries it out of the range of living memory. Certainly the circumstances connected with the origin of the museum of Glasgow are still fresh in the memory of men little passed middle life. The beginning of the municipal connection with museum undertakings was made when, on the 15th May, 1856, the Town Council resolved to acquire the block of buildings and exhibition galleries, and collection of pictures, sculpture, etc., then known as the M‘Lellan Galleries. The pictures had been collected and the buildings erected by Mr. Archibald M‘Lellan, coachbuilder in Glasgow, and to that gentleman is due the honour and credit of being the real founder of the Art Galleries of Glasgow. Mr. M‘Lellan was a man of enlightened public spirit, a town councillor and magistrate, who interested himself in all movements for the beautification of his native city, and for the promotion of art and culture in the community. He was possessed of wide knowledge, catholic sympathies, and keen critical discrimination in art; and the best part of his life, as well as of his means, he devoted to the accumulation of the remarkable collection of pictures and other works of art he left behind him. The M‘Lellan collection was formed during the second quarter of the present century, at a time when the value and permanent importance of the productions of the great masters were recognized by very few, when it was not yet the fashion to patronize Rembrandt, Rubens, and Raphael, and when it was quite unnecessary for the reputation of culture to talk glibly of Botticelli and the Bellini. Pictures of permanent value could at that time be acquired by persons of moderate means, and it is to the credit of M‘Lellan that he could recognize the true value and the enduring charms of works of art though they were neglected by dealers and scorned by the crowd.

It was the ambition of Mr. M‘Lellan to establish in Glasgow a gallery of art for the benefit of his fellow-citizens, and to bequeath and dedicate it for public use at the time of his death. With this view, in connection with the erection of the block of shops and dwelling-houses facing Sauchiehall Street, he had three exhibition saloons or galleries thrown out into the court behind. While these buildings were in progress in November, 1853, Mr. M‘Lellan, being yet under sixty years of age, executed a deed of settlement, the introductory clauses of which express the purpose of the testator. It proceeds: “I, Archibald M‘Lellan, coachbuilder in Glasgow, considering that I have, for thirty years, spent much of my spare time
in making a collection of pictures, illustrative of the characteristics and progress of the various schools of painting in Italy, Germany, Spain, the Low Countries, and France, since the revival of Art in the fifteenth century; and believing that, imperfect as any such collection formed by a private individual must necessarily be, it still may be of some use to those who are desirous of studying the progress of Art; and also believing that it may be made to form the foundation for a more extensive and complete collection, through contributions from those who have more means and better judgment to select fine examples of the respective schools, and being impressed with the belief that the study of what are called the 'Fine Arts,' is eminently conducive to the elevation and refinement of all classes, as well as intimately connected with the manufacturing and mercantile prosperity of the community, from these various motives, and on account of my long connection with Glasgow and its various public bodies, and as a humble testimony of my attachment to its citizens, and my desire for their welfare and elevation, so far as it is in my power to aid in the promotion of these, I have resolved to devote my said collection to public use and exhibition, and to make the same over, for that purpose to trustees, who shall have the sole control and management thereof." He then proceeds specifically to bequeath his collection "for behoof of the citizens of Glasgow in all time coming" to the Lord Provost, the Dean of Guild, the Deacon Convener, and to other holders of office with three nominated trustees; and he enters into minute details as to the conservation and treatment of works, the maintenance of a pure atmosphere and equable temperature around them, the number of visitors to be admitted at any one time to the saloons, the conditions under which further gifts to the gallery may be accepted, and other points. The bequest, further, included the three saloons specially erected for receiving the pictures, and the trustees were empowered, should the rooms become from any cause unsuitable, to sell the structure and remove the collection to another and more advantageous situation.

The document is obviously the work of a man of delicate and refined taste, imbued with a high appreciation of the mission of Art, modestly proud of his achievements, and not without some suspicion as to the possibility that his treasures might not be so carefully guarded by their future custodiers as by himself. Mr. McLellan's life labour and his testamentary deed afford another illustration of life's little ironies. On his premature death, within a year after executing the deed, it was found that his affairs, through his building scheme, and probably also his passion for pictures, were so involved that it was impossible at once to satisfy his creditors, and carry into effect the purposes of his trust. Under the circumstances the Town Council, after much negotiation, and amid a storm of opposition, agreed to purchase the entire block of buildings, with the three saloons and the collection of pictures, for the sum of £44,500, being
£29,500 for the buildings and £15,000 for the pictures. A single picture might now be selected from the M'Lellan collection which, exposed for sale, would nearly, if not altogether, realize the sum paid for the entire collection.

In this way the Town Council, in May, 1856, became somewhat reluctant patrons of art, and the owners of an art gallery rather against their will. The circumstances associated with the transference were not without their compensations. Had M'Lellan's Will been carried into effect the Town Council would have had little concern with, and no responsibility for, the gallery he bequeathed to the City, which would have been, in the hands of a semi-private but shifting body of trustees, without endowments for its adequate administration; and probably, after a brief spasmodic burst of public gratitude and admiration, it would have declined into a mouldy and melancholy condition of neglect, visited chiefly by spiders and their unwary victims.

As it was, the Council were by the purchase left with an entirely free hand and unfettered control of the property. They had the right to sell the pictures if they so willed, and they were also entitled to use the halls and buildings for any purpose they deemed proper. Of both these rights they subsequently took advantage: more than once sales were made of pictures weeded out of the M'Lellan collection, while for many years the galleries were used for all manner of revenue-yielding objects other than art gallery uses. But the important fact remained that the structure and collections were public property, and a time did come when both Council and public fully realized the high responsibility of the charge they had undertaken, and the incalculable value of the collection they had acquired.

Within a month after the purchase of the collection an enlightened citizen, Mr. William Euing, in redemption of a pledge he had given, conditional on the completion of the acquisition, presented thirty works selected from his own gallery to the collection. Many years later, in 1874, the remainder of Mr. Euing's collection was added by bequest, and now the Euing pictures form a notable feature in the collection. Mr. Euing bequeathed at the same time an extensive and unique collection of editions of the Holy Bible to the University of Glasgow, and a most valuable musical library and collection of musical instruments to the Anderson's College, in which also he founded a chair of music.

About the year 1867 private tenants, excepting the occupiers of shops, were displaced from the M'Lellan property, and a certain amount of reconstruction was undertaken to adapt the upper floors to public purposes. The whole of the eastern section over the shops was appropriated to the School of Art. In the western section the upper floor was transformed into galleries and exhibition halls; and on the first floor was found accommodation for
the libraries and committee rooms of the Philosophical Society and the Institution of Engineers and Shipbuilders, with a lecture room en suite. These alterations were undertaken principally on the recommendation of Mr. C. Heath Wilson, and while the changes still left a large proportion of the property rent-yielding subjects, they added greatly to the accommodation for the exhibition of pictures. The whole cost of the structural alterations was less than £4000, so that the capital expenditure on both pictures and buildings remained under £50,000.

It must be borne in mind that the original galleries, and their extensions also, were equally regarded by the Council as rent producers, and from the first the halls were let to private applicants for a great variety of purposes, such as public lectures, balls, concerts, bazaars, and other similar entertainments. These applications of a gallery of art were manifestly inconsistent with its proper use of a public institution; but the whole matter was looked at, in the early days, merely as a question of investment, and in that sense it was not a success. From 1862 onwards the Glasgow Institute of Fine Arts was a tenant for its annual exhibitions, and for many years these exhibitions were the only real artistic use to which the galleries were devoted.

At the time the extension of the galleries was undertaken a spasmodic effort was made to place the collections and the public relation to them on an improved footing. The new galleries were inaugurated with an exhibition of local historical portraits, and a collection of extreme importance for the illustration of the history of Glasgow and the West of Scotland was brought together, of which a most valuable catalogue was prepared by Mr. Heath Wilson. The exhibition, however, was a pecuniary failure, and on Mr. Wilson resigning the curatorship of the galleries—an office he held for a short period only—a decreasing interest was manifested in the institution, and it gradually fell into the most regrettable and detrimental condition of public neglect. The landlord attitude of the Town Council came indeed to overshadow and crush out all other relations and responsibilities, and the M'Lellan pictures and other art property which had been added by gift and bequest were regarded as mere ornamental adjuncts—sometimes, it is to be feared, as unwelcome incumbrances—to balls, concerts, bazaars, and dinners for which the halls were hired and used. It can scarcely be wondered that under such a course of treatment the pictures fell into disrepute, people began to doubt whether they were even ornamental, and their presence was regarded as a hindrance to the free use of the halls for miscellaneous purposes.

In the face of these very untoward conditions the institution continued to receive from time to time bequests and donations of important pictures and of collections of great value. In April, 1877, there was submitted to the Town Council an excerpt from the will of Mrs. Graham Gilbert of Yorkhill in the following terms: "I direct my trustees to deliver over the following specific legacies, and that within six months after my decease, free
of legacy duty or expense of discharge, viz., to deliver over to the Lord Provost, Bailies and Council of the City of Glasgow for the time, such of the paintings in oil, under the exceptions after mentioned, as may be in Yorkhill House at the time of my death, and as they may select, under an obligation to preserve the same in trust for the Corporation of the said City, and for being exhibited to the inhabitants thereof, also the marble statue of my late husband by Brodie of Edinburgh, and which paintings in oil and statue shall be preserved and placed by themselves in one room in the M'Lellan or any other gallery belonging to the said Corporation, and bear the name of John Graham-Gilbert, and also at the same time to pay to the said Lord Provost, Bailies, and Council of the City of Glasgow for the time, the sum of two hundred pounds sterling for the purpose of framing or otherwise putting in order the paintings which they may select as aforesaid . . . specially excepting from the said paintings in oil from which selection may be made as aforesaid for the City of Glasgow, the portraits of my uncle, my mother, my sister, and myself, all which shall remain at Yorkhill House, and be the property of the heir of entail for the time being of the estate of Yorkhill."

Mr. John Graham-Gilbert, R.S.A., originally John Graham, who assumed the surname Gilbert when his wife succeeded to the estate of Yorkhill, in the City of Glasgow, was a much and deservedly esteemed artist, who devoted himself chiefly to portrait painting. He had throughout his whole career taken a keen interest in the promotion of art in the West of Scotland, and he had an unfailing belief in the value and importance of the Corporation collection. Possessed of ample means, Mr. Graham-Gilbert followed the example of M'Lellan in forming a cabinet of works of the old masters, and he was fortunate in securing several pictures which are now esteemed among the chief treasures of the Glasgow Gallery. Mr. Graham-Gilbert died in 1866, but, with commendable propriety, he left it to his wife, through whom his wealth came, to deal with his art accumulations according to her own will. The Graham-Gilbert bequest, as selected and handed over to the Corporation, included seventy original works, principally by Dutch and Italian masters, forty pictures by himself, and twenty-seven copies and studies he had made from well-known pictures by old masters.

The reception of the Graham-Gilbert bequest was an epoch and turning-point in the history of the galleries. A new and proper view of the functions of the institution was taken by the Council; and the duty they owed at once to the public, and to the generous donors of works of incalculable value was now recognized. Thenceforward the resolute policy of the committee was to render the collections properly available and useful to the community, and to rehabilitate the sadly tarnished reputation of the works of art which, for more than twenty years, had been neglected and contemned. But the reputation of a picture is more easily tarnished than
restored; and in matters of art, as well as in questions of theology, the public take their opinions from their masters, heaping, in unsparing measure, buffets and insults on what they find neglected and depreciated by their leaders. The greatest triumphs of Raphael or Rembrandt would come very badly out of twenty years' obloquy, and a few well-directed and persistent sneers would work havoc with the reputation of the most famous collection. The Town Council of Glasgow had to repair the injuries of many years. Not only had they the arduous task of re-establishing a lost reputation, but they had also to reckon with the material injuries which result from a long course of ignorant and careless treatment, from alternate exposure on walls, and storing in closets, from all the variations of heat and cold, damp and dry air, light and darkness; from the very evils against which poor M'Lellan had warned his trustees, and sought to guard his beloved works.

How the task was faced and accomplished it would take too much space to narrate, but in the end a large measure of success attended the various efforts to popularize and to win public respect for the collections. First there was a careful weeding out and separation of pictures which from any cause had become unworthy of the collections; then a catalogue was prepared and published, in which only the works selected as worthy of permanent retention were entered. To make Glasgow people believe in the value of their own property, the opinion of experts of standing from a distance was obtained and published to them. The galleries were strictly reserved for their legitimate uses, the public bodies who had acquired a settlement within the walls were gently but firmly dislodged, and all miscellaneous banquets and balls were prohibited. The pictures were treated with due respect, they were freed from accumulated dirt and discoloured varnish, their frames were repaired, and the more important were glazed over to preserve them from the evil influences of our acid-laden atmosphere. Some of the rarer and more precious works were from time to time lent to the winter exhibition of the Royal Academy, and to other special exhibitions in London and elsewhere, and thereby they obtained a reputation as wide as it is enduring. The Corporation, out of the rates, as occasion offered, purchased modern and other works of an attractive nature, which served to enrich the galleries and to add new interest to the whole. Courses of popular lectures were organized, mainly with the view of increasing the general knowledge and appreciation of the art collections; these proved a most gratifying success, and they are now one of the most valuable features of the work of the supervising committee.

It may be claimed that the efforts of the Corporation to rehabilitate the collections and re-establish their fair fame have been completely successful. Much remains yet to do, but the Glasgow gallery now takes its place in the front rank of such institutions, and the Glasgow collection has to be taken into account in estimating the art heritage and wealth of mankind.
No better testimony to the esteem and confidence in which the galleries are now held can be cited than the fact that, early in 1896, there was given to the collection a gift of ten modern pictures, which within the last few years cost their original purchaser almost £23,000. Bequests to that extent are of exceptional occurrence; but a free gift—and that from young men—of property so valuable is rare enough to be a phenomenon, and the fact that the Messrs. Reid of Hydepark Locomotive Works took this way of honouring the memory of their father, Mr. James Reid, of Auchterarder, is a noble testimony to their filial piety, their splendid generosity, and their local patriotism.

The next phase of the municipal enterprise of Glasgow in relation to exhibitional institutions has to do with the foundation of Kelvingrove Museum, and the developments which have arisen out of that modest undertaking. The small museum was begun in 1870 under the name of the City Industrial Museum, within the mansion-house of Kelvingrove, after that building had undergone such structural alterations as exhibitional purposes demanded. It was a humble enough affair to begin with; it received little attention at first from the Council, but it became wonderfully well liked by the people, and its collections grew apace. In 1874, with the sanction of the Council, a public subscription was organized, by means of which nearly £8000 was received for building an addition to the tiny museum; to which sum the Council added a contribution of £700. That this total was spent largely on attaching a wing to Kelvingrove House may be a matter for regret, for the site was not well chosen, the necessities of the building were not considered, and the amount was altogether inadequate for providing the museum space required for a City like Glasgow. But the building was proceeded with, and in 1876 the extension was ready for occupation.

The City Industrial Museum was, from the very first, not an Industrial Museum, if by that name is meant an institution purely technological in character. It was more a Natural History Museum or an ornithological collection, for its first curator was an enthusiastic lover of birds. But indeed it was all embracing and indiscriminating in its receptivity, and accepted with equal gratitude all classes of objects—industrial, artistic, natural history, archaeological and ethnological.

With this omnivorous appetite for museum specimens there was nothing wrong, but an ambitious programme demands a spacious field in which to display its details. It was painfully obvious, from the very day the extension was opened, how inadequate were its limits for illustrating the circle of the sciences and the activities of the human race. The temporary and makeshift nature of the provision made for the museum was immediately perceived and acknowledged; for no sooner was the added space available than it was fully occupied.
Till this time the Town Council had little real responsibility in connection with the museum undertaking. The Parks Act passed in 1859, constituting the Parks and Galleries Trustees, recognized the existence of the art collection purchased from M'Lellan's executors, and sanctioned its maintenance; but that statute made no provision for extensions nor for the acquisition and maintenance of any further museum institution; and it was not until 1878 that the construction and maintenance of museums by the Council out of the parks rates were rendered legal and statutory. In the Glasgow Public Parks Acts of that year full powers were given to the Lord Provost, Magistrates, and Council, in their capacity of Parks and Galleries Trustees, to maintain already existing museums, and "from time to time to erect, fit up, furnish and maintain such new and additional buildings for Museums, and Collections of Natural History, Science, and Art, as they may deem expedient." By this enactment the Town Council, for the first time, definitely acknowledged their responsibility for the museum interests of the City, and by implication they undertook their adequate development.

The Council, with power "from time to time to erect and fit up" museum buildings, had from time to time various schemes under their consideration without arriving at any final decision; but all these, more or less matured and advanced, were only serving to educate public opinion and to keep the question well before the community. Meanwhile the Kelvingrove Museum, steadily in the receipt of varied and valuable additions by gift and otherwise, became more and more a storehouse in which classification was necessarily disregarded, and it became impossible to do much more than keep the collections under inspection. A certain amount of relief was obtained by transferring to the Corporation Galleries such portions of the accumulations as had a distinctly artistic side—the art pottery, the glass, metal work, and such; but that did not diminish the confusion, while to some extent it interfered with the proper display of pictures around the gallery walls.

The occurrence, more than once, of outbreaks of fire in connection with the shops and other premises in the galleries' buildings had a powerful influence in stimulating the energies of the Corporation in the direction of acquiring a safer and more fitting home for their art treasures. Early in 1886 the suggestion was made that at least the nucleus of a building might be obtained by the organization of a great temporary exhibition in Kelvingrove Park; and, with the sanction of the Town Council, the Museum and Galleries Sub-Committee set themselves earnestly to outline the conditions of such an undertaking. How the work of organizing that exhibition was carried forward, and what success attended it, are questions which do not concern us. The object the Museum Committee had in view is thus concisely stated in their annual report for 1886: "Among the motives which impelled the committee to take action in the matter was the expectation that the exhibition might prove a financial success, and leave at the close a large balance of profit
which could be most fittingly disposed of by being devoted towards providing
permanent buildings for the municipal collections of science and art. In
that view the Executive Council of the exhibition have coincided, and in
the Articles of Association it is provided that any surplus which may arise
in connection with the exhibition shall be applied in or towards erecting,
equipping, and maintaining a Gallery of Art or a Museum of Science and
Art, or otherwise in promoting science and art in Glasgow in such way
and manner as shall be determined by the members of the Exhibition Associa-
tion, at or before the time of dissolution thereof, or, in default thereof, by the
Magistrates and Council of Glasgow."

The exhibition was held during the summer of 1888, and its financial
success far exceeded the expectations of its original promoters. When all
accounts had been adjusted, it was found that there remained on the hands
of the Exhibition Association a clear surplus of £46,000, a fat carcase around
which many hungry vultures immediately began to scream. The sum, how-
ever, was both well secured and well defended, and the association, instead
of resting content with the gratifying outcome of their labours, in a most
patriotic manner offered to undertake the task of at least doubling the
amount by public subscription. In agreement with the Town Council it
was stipulated that should the Exhibition Association be successful in raising
the available fund to not less than £92,000, the Corporation should grant
a sufficient site free of cost in Kelvingrove Park, on which to erect a Museum
and Art Gallery Building; and that the administration of the fund, the
adjusting of the scheme of building, the selection of an architect, and the
execution of the work should devolve on an executive committee elected
in the proportion of two-thirds from the Corporation, and one-third from
the Exhibition Association. On the completion of their task the Executive
Committee were pledged to transfer the buildings \textit{simpliciter} to the Cor-
poration.

These and other conditions of minor importance being agreed to, the
Exhibition Association under a new name—"The Association for the Promotion
of Art and Music in the City of Glasgow"—proceeded with vigour to carry
out the first part of their undertaking—the raising of subscriptions for the
building fund. Within the prescribed time—twelve months—they had gathered
considerably more than the minimum £46,000 to which they were pledged.
In consequence they were now in a position to claim a site in Kelvingrove
Park, and to proceed with the structure. As the result of a public competition
the plans submitted by Messrs. Simpson and Milner Allen, of London, were,
in June, 1892, on the advice of Mr. Alfred Waterhouse, R.A., selected. The
architect's estimate for the completed building was £154,398, or, leaving two
quadrangles uncovered, £119,775; the less sanguine local surveyors put these
figures at £170,320 and £130,450, and we shall find that even these larger
amounts were far within the sums asked by the lowest offers for the work.
But with £113,000 in hand and subscriptions still coming in, the Executive Committee considered themselves well entitled to go on with an erection which they were assured would cost only £120,000; and accordingly contracts for the basement were issued. No doubt the Executive were a little staggered when they found that the estimate for this preliminary section, accepted in June, 1893, amounted to £22,225, and in the end it cost somewhat more. Tenders for the superstructure were invited in June, 1895, when it was found that the whole cost of the structure, including basement, would be £198,420, if finished with oak and internal stone-work, or omitting the two courts and finishing in pine and plaster the expenditure would amount to £154,000. The whole sum, from beginning to end, at the disposal of the Executive Committee did not exceed £129,600, made up of exhibition surplus with interest £54,600, and subscriptions with interest £75,000. The committee found themselves in the awkward position of having spent almost £28,000 in connection with a building which, to carry forward and leave only partly finished in a second-rate manner, would cost nearly £25,000 more than they were possessed of, while to complete the structure in a worthy manner would demand the expenditure of nearly £70,000 beyond their resources. The flow of subscriptions, as is the habit of such flows, dwindled from the very first, and had long ceased—public charity had been directed into new channels, which are always being dug in a great city for the capturing of that coveted stream, and new enthusiasms had taken possession of the giving community. In their dilemma the only course open to the Executive Committee was to lay their case simply before the Town Council, asking that body either to guarantee the funds necessary for the completion of the buildings, or to take over the work done, the funds on hand, and the obligations, and deal with the building themselves. The latter alternative the Town Council accepted, and, having resolved to complete the building in the best manner, the work is again in progress.

Among the multifarious activities of the Museums Committee during the past fifteen years the holding of special, and of local or district exhibitions has occupied a prominent place. From time to time special exhibitions were held in the Corporation Galleries, in which Oriental art, Italian art, and French art, besides other sectional phases of artistic activity, were specially illustrated. District exhibitions were also organized by the Museums Committee, and these offer certain phases of interest, and had an outcome which merits attention. In all towns there is a show quarter in which the public offices, the great buildings, and monuments, and the attractions generally are more or less concentrated. And away from these, in the case of great cities, sometimes very far away, there are interminable rows of monotonous dwelling-houses, relieved only by dull-looking churches, which struggle, not quite successfully, with the rival whisky shops at the street corners. Moreover in a town like Glasgow there is a tendency for
the population to segment itself; for the east end to distinguish itself from and in some measure to be opposed to the west end, and for the south side to look on the north side as unduly favoured by both Providence and the Town Council. The people dwell in their own quarters, and notwithstanding the facilities of communication, many in one extremity or suburb are as little acquainted with the opposite extreme as they are with the capital of Thibet. They demand institutions for themselves; there are reasonable grounds for their claims, and these have been sympathetically treated by the Museums Committee. In 1883 they organized a local exhibition of pictures and miscellaneous art objects in a small hall attached to the Police Buildings in the eastern district of the City. The novelty and the unexpectedness of the undertaking rendered it a great success with the local population; and during the time it was open, three months from February till May, it was visited by 63,500 persons. Following on this at the end of the succeeding year a similar exhibition, on a much more extensive scale, was organized in two large halls, also the property of the Police Commissioners, in Main Street, Gorbals, on the south side. This exhibition, which was in three months visited by 153,000 persons, was the first of a long series continued at intervals till 1891, after which the hall was let by the Commissioners for manufacturing purposes. In that year (1891) it was the desire of the committee again to provide an exhibition for the eastern district; and a sub-committee was appointed to look out for a suitable hall or building. A survey of the whole district failed to discover any sufficient place, and, on making report to this effect, a special committee was constituted to consider the question of providing an exhibitional building in the eastern district with such adjuncts as might properly come within the scope of the Parks and Galleries Trust. For the cost of the erection of such a building it was found that several small funds were in existence, on which the east end had a special claim, which altogether might amount to something over £20,000; but it was not at first contemplated to expend such an amount. A considerable time was spent in arriving at an understanding as to the precise scope of the institution suited for, and satisfying to, the district; but in the end it was agreed that the People's Palace should be planted on Glasgow Green, and that it should take the form of a Museum and Art Gallery building, with a capacious Winter Garden of glass attached, the whole to cost a little more than £20,000, and that project is now in the way of realization.

And now we come to the latest of the undertakings of this active and enterprising committee. The letting of the halls in the Gorbals had deprived them of the use of that structure for district exhibition purposes, and appeared to bar them from continued activity on the south side. But in 1894 the Corporation acquired the grounds of Camphill as an addition to the Queen's Park, and included in that purchase was a fine mansion-house, which was
vacated in the early part of July, 1895. From the very first the Museum Committee had their eyes on the house for the purposes of a district gallery; and when it was found that the public rooms could be adapted for such use at a trifling cost, they had no difficulty in obtaining the consent of the Corporation for its appropriation. And so Camphill was taken in hand, the few structural alterations required were carried out, a special photographic exhibition was organized for the inauguration of the institution, and Camphill Gallery was opened to the public early in the summer of 1896.

In undertaking the supervision of museums and art galleries the Town Council of Glasgow have made, from the merely commercial point of view, a remarkably good investment. Up to the present time their total expenditure on buildings, fittings, purchase of pictures, art objects, and museum specimens and maintenance cannot have much exceeded £100,000. As against that expenditure they possess pictures and sculpture, which on a modest estimate are worth at least £250,000, other art objects and museum specimens represent a value of £60,000 more; from the exhibition surplus and public subscriptions for the new galleries they have received almost £130,000, the buildings in connection with the galleries in Sauchiehall Street may be valued at £50,000, and the Kelvingrove Museum building, with its cases and fittings, and the fittings, etc., in Camphill, may represent £10,000 more. The total property thus reaches half a million sterling, and this takes no account of the fact that in the meantime from seven to eight millions of persons have enjoyed such instruction, such recreation, and such pure enjoyment as these institutions are fitted to communicate.
CHAPTER XXXIV.

EDUCATION. LIBRARIES.


Among the large cities of the United Kingdom, Glasgow occupies a unique position in relation to the Public Libraries Act. It is the only community of all having a population of more than 100,000 in which these Acts have not been adopted. In its relationship to public libraries the attitude of Glasgow is at once deplorable and anomalous. The enactments under which free public libraries may be instituted, in addition to providing for libraries, give powers to equip and maintain museums and art galleries. In Glasgow these latter institutions are supported under special local enactments—the Parks and Galleries Acts—which provide also ample means for the maintenance of the most spacious range of public parks dedicated to the service of any community in the kingdom. But these local Acts do not sanction the establishment and maintenance of libraries, and thus it happens that though one-half of the organization provided for under the Public Libraries Acts has been secured, the other and primary section has not been attained, and Glasgow is still without any rate-supported library. Communities, large and small, around it have, one after another, taken advantage of the legislation; their libraries have become popular and leading centres of the social life of the people; without exception their resources are fully appreciated; once instituted they are ungrudgingly supported, and regarded with proud satisfaction by all classes. But Glasgow has remained unmoved, and on three separate occasions she has deliberately declined to take advantage of the provisions of the Public Libraries Acts.
The citizens of Glasgow cannot be held to have the excuse that they are already well supplied with public libraries. In earlier days, indeed, the City was lamentably deficient in literary institutions and in books, and the fact that there was scant opportunity for cultivating the reading habit among a large proportion of the population must account for the active and violent opposition of a small section to library planting, and for the deplorable inertness of the majority of the ratepayers. Reading, like every habit good and bad, grows by cultivation. To a large proportion of the population the opportunity for reading was denied; and they do not know the solace and delight from which they have been cut off. From being a modest University town the City suddenly burst into a great commercial and industrial community; institutions did not keep pace with the growth of population, and among the most neglected were such as minister to the educational and mental necessities of the masses. The School Board of Glasgow have with splendid effect filled up the educational void; the elementary schools of Glasgow are now models of efficiency and spacious organization; the art of reading is communicated to every child, but still we are in want of the Board which shall supply to these children the healthful and elevating material on which to exercise their reading faculty.

For the first three quarters of the nineteenth century the only general libraries in Glasgow of any importance to which the public had access were the Glasgow Public Library, supported by subscribers, and the Stirling’s Library, founded and endowed in 1791 under the settlement of Mr. Walter Stirling, merchant in Glasgow. Mr. Stirling bequeathed to the Lord Provost of Glasgow his library, the sum of one thousand pounds, a tenement in Miller Street, and his interest in the Glasgow Tontine Society, for the purpose of establishing and maintaining a public library in the City, to be vested in and managed by the Lord Provost and twelve other directors elected from the Town Council, the Merchants’ House, the Presbytery of Glasgow, and the Faculty of Physicians and Surgeons—three from each. A direction of Mr. Stirling’s will was that the librarian should “allow all proper persons to consult and read the books three hours each lawful day,” but no book was to be lent out without the written sanction of the directors. He further recommended that in building up the library “rare and curious books” should be selected rather than common and ordinary kinds.

In its early career Stirling’s Library suffered much from poverty and insufficient premises, and it is not clear that its policy was directed with such prudence as conduced to the success of the institution. The distinct instruction of Walter Stirling to allow all “proper persons to consult and read the books” three hours daily was ignored, and to secure funds the constitution of the library was further altered so as to admit life subscribers to the privilege of borrowing books. At a later period, but not till 1848, subscribers for a year, and for even shorter periods, were admitted to the same privilege. It was not till 1849 that the directors bethought themselves
of the three hours a day free reading provided for by Walter Stirling, and from the beginning of that year the institution has been available as a free consulting library. These changes infused a much needed element of activity into the Stirling's Library, and since 1871, when the languishing Glasgow Public Library was amalgamated with it and the institution took the name of the Stirling's and Glasgow Public Library, it has entered on a new lease of life, and at no time has it been more energetic and potent for good than at the present moment.

For a population of half a million of souls, the resources of a single library, with fewer than 40,000 volumes—many not readers' books—are singularly meagre fare. But that was practically the state of matters in Glasgow into the fourth quarter of the nineteenth century, and by thoughtful citizens the poverty of the land was sincerely deplored. In 1874 the Philosophical Society of Glasgow—itself possessed of an admirable library of scientific and technical works—appointed a committee, presided over by Mr. J. Cleland Burns, to initiate a movement for the adoption of the Public Libraries Acts. Under the guidance of this committee a statutory meeting of qualified householders was held in the City Hall on 17th April, 1876, when amid a not strictly dignified display the issue was rejected by 1779 votes against, to 993 votes for, the adoption of the Acts. Again in 1884 an influential committee was appointed at a public meeting, with the view of securing the adoption of the Acts. In the meantime, as we shall see, the Mitchell Library had been opened, and as a free reference library it had attained a quite marvellous success and popularity. Library legislation also had been amended, so that instead of the unsatisfactory appeal to a public meeting, the promoters had the alternative of obtaining the opinion of the ratepayers by means of a plebiscite. Ward committees favourable to the scheme were organized throughout the City, most painstaking efforts were put forth to disseminate information as to the working and benefits of public libraries, and a crowded and enthusiastic meeting favoured the reference of the question to the votes of the ratepayers. When the battle ended it was officially announced on 9th May, 1885, that 52,701 ratepayers—less than one-half of the constituency—had returned their voting cards, 29,946 voting against and 22,755 voting for the adoption of the Acts. In 1888 public opinion in Glasgow for the third time was tested through the agency of the Public Libraries Association, a body formed immediately after the adverse decision of 1885. To that body was also principally due the initiation of an important modification of the public libraries legislation, under which the statutory meeting of householders was abolished, and it was enacted that by voting papers alone the will of the constituency could be declared. The third appeal had not the proverbial success which in Scotland is held to attend a thrice-repeated effort. On 27th April, 1888, the result was declared, and showed that 36,537 voting papers were returned—of which 22,987 were against and
EDUCATION. LIBRARIES

13,550 in favour of the Acts—while about two-thirds of the voters did not take the trouble of returning their papers.

No further attempt has been made to reverse the thrice-repeated rejection of the Acts; but, in the meantime, another fundamental modification in public libraries legislation has been enacted. By an Act passed in 1894 the necessity for a direct appeal to the ratepayers in burghs has been abolished, and now the Act may be adopted by a resolution of the Magistrates and Council of the burgh, and such resolution shall be substituted for a determination of the householders of the burgh in any case where such determination is required under the Consolidation Act of 1887. Special notice of the proposal to submit such a resolution must be given at least one month before the meeting of the Council at which it is to be dealt with.

The Town Council of Glasgow have now the power to adopt the Libraries Acts; and although that right has not yet been exercised, there is no doubt that the majority are, and have always been, favourable to the establishment of public libraries in the City. But across their path lies the thrice-interposed rejection of the Acts by their constituents; and a wave of new enthusiasm is required to sweep away such a barrier. It is true that on no occasion did quite one-half of the qualified voters intimate their will, and though the statute did not sanction the assumption that "silence gives consent," it may be fairly inferred that those who made no sign were lukewarm supporters rather than active opponents of public libraries. Interested opposition ever expresses itself with decision, eagerness, and emphasis; its forces are easily organized, and it delivers its stroke direct and undivided. The opponents of the Acts, it is not unfair to say, occupied the stronger strategical position, and polled a large proportion of their forces; while the promoters had to deal with a vast amount of indifference and distressing inertness. But the facts which lie behind us put a strong weapon into the hands of the opponents of the Acts within the Council, and they offer a serious stumbling-block to the timid and irresolute. Prudence dictates a not too hasty forcing on of the question, time and the trend of public opinion are strongly in favour of libraries, and there cannot be a doubt that, once the decision is arrived at, the public libraries of Glasgow will take their position among the most useful and popular of our municipal institutions.

In the meantime, however, the duties of the Town Council in relation to libraries and reading are confined to the Mitchell Library, an institution which, under many disadvantageous conditions, has attained a quite phenomenal success, popularity, and usefulness. Instituted with a capital fund of only £70,000, opened in temporary premises of a homely and insufficient character and in an unattractive neighbourhood, the library from the very first flourished with remarkable vigour; its resources were utilized with avidity, and these resources developed and expanded with marvellous rapidity. Within two or three years after its opening the library was spoken of in
Scotland as bidding "fair to be the most important public library outside Edinburgh," and by the same authorities, Tedder and Thomas in the Encyclopaedia Britannica, it was stated that "the number of readers during the first three years in which the library has been opened is believed to be without precedent."

An admirable concise guide to the Mitchell Library has been compiled and issued by Mr. F. T. Barrett, the librarian, from which the following facts are mainly extracted:

The Mitchell Library was founded by a bequest of the late Mr. Stephen Mitchell, tobacco manufacturer, of Glasgow, who died 21st April, 1874, in the eighty-fifth year of his age. The bequest was intimated to the Town Council on the 6th May, and was accepted by them 16th July, 1874. The net sum paid over to the Town Council by the founder's representatives was £66,998 10s. 6d., which, it was directed, was to be allowed to increase to £70,000.

A constitution and rules having been drawn up, the work of organizing the library was proceeded with, the following being the leading principles observed. It must be one large public library, be accessible to the public for purposes of reference and consultation, be general and comprehensive in character, so as to be of value to readers of every class and occupation; and it should aim at representing every phase of human thought and every variety of human opinion. It should acquire such books as from their rarity and value cannot generally be procured by private persons, and no book was to be refused merely because it controverted present views on religion or politics.

The library was opened in temporary premises in Ingram Street, in November, 1877, with 14,432 volumes, and remained there till May, 1890. The intervening period witnessed a remarkable development both in the library itself, and in the use made of it by the public. The 14,000 volumes at the opening had increased to 89,000; and the number of volumes consulted by readers amounted to 4,680,000, a number, it is believed, much greater than had ever been issued during the first twelve and a half years in any other reference library.

The rooms had long become hopelessly inadequate to the work of the library. Books were necessarily stored in inconvenient positions. The overcrowding of readers, which reached a maximum in 1885, had produced so much discomfort that in successive years following there had been some diminution in numbers, although to the end the attendance was such as to overtax the accommodation it was possible to provide.

The long-looked-for opportunity of securing a more suitable home for the library was found when the various municipal trusts were removed to the new Municipal Buildings in George Square. After consideration, the Library Committee resolved that of the available buildings the one best suited
for their requirements was that formerly occupied by the Water Commissioners, in Miller Street; and the sanction of the Town Council was obtained for its purchase. The building as reconstructed for the use of the library consists of a front portion, 120 by 33 feet, and a back portion, 80 by 47 feet. The front building has basement and three stories. The basement contains the newspaper files; the ground floor, that portion of the library in most constant use; the first floor, the magazine room, the students’ room, and the ladies’ room. The second floor contains a large part of the reserve space for the growth of the library, together with rooms for the staff, etc. The back portion consists of a basement floor and a large general reading hall, a handsome apartment of 80 by 47 feet, lighted from the roof, and having its walls covered with bookcases, the upper ones being carried on a gallery, with tables and seats for 200 readers.

While, generally, the aim has been to make the library in the widest sense representative of every department of literature, Scottish books have naturally received special attention, and early in the history of the library three special collections were commenced. These were the Poet’s Corner, the Glasgow collection, and the collection of early Glasgow Printed Books.

The object aimed at in the Poet’s Corner is the acquisition of (1) copies of the works of Burns and all Scottish Poets and Verse Writers in their different editions; (2) selections and collections of Scottish Poetry; (3) historical and critical dissertations on the Poetry of Scotland; (4) biographies of the Scottish Poets; together constituting a treasury of the national poetical literature. This has, to a large extent, been accomplished. The number of volumes now in the Poet’s Corner is about 6000, of which those specially relating to Burns number over 1200.

In forming the Glasgow collection, the Committee, following the example of other important provincial libraries, resolved that the library “ought to contain copies of all books, pamphlets, periodical publications, maps, plans, pictorial illustrations, and generally all papers which in any way illustrate the City’s growth and life; that, with respect to past publications, care should be taken to secure any which may from time to time be obtainable; that all local newspapers and periodical publications should be filed for preservation, and that Glasgow books and pamphlets should be purchased as issued when not presented.” This policy has been steadily maintained, and the library is now in possession of one of the most complete of the collections of local literature. It numbers about 5000 volumes, great and small, and includes some 200 different periodical publications, which have at various times been issued within the City.

The third collection commenced in the early days of the library is “Early Glasgow Printing.” In this it is hoped to bring together copies of every book and pamphlet printed in Glasgow before 1801. As in the cases already mentioned, great progress has been made. The library has a copy
of the first piece of printing executed in the City, 1638. From this down to 1800 the productions of the Glasgow press are represented in the library by more than 1300 books and tracts.

The rapid development of the library is due in no small degree to the many and generous donations and bequests which have been received, and which have been acknowledged with appreciation in successive annual reports. Of the total number of books and pamphlets, considerably more than a third have been presented, or bought with money bequeathed for the purpose. Among these benefactions much the most important is the bequest of the late Bailie James Moir, who was for some years a member of the Library Committee. Bailie Moir left to the library his own large and well selected collection of books, and the residue of his estate, amounting to £11,500, which, after providing an annuity to his sister, is to be applied in the purchase of books. The number of books in the Moir Collection is now about 20,000. Another member of the committee, the late Councillor Logan, bequeathed £500, also to be devoted to additions to the library, and that sum has been expended in the purchase of a number of works of great importance and value.

Testimony equally gratifying and substantial to the appreciation of the library on the part of readers was rendered in 1895, by the receipt of two bequests of the whole estates of two gentlemen, who had been regular readers within its walls. Under the will of Mr. Louis Edward Campbell, a sum of £3100, in addition to house property valued at £1000, was received, and the estate of Mr. Donald McPherson, bequeathed to the library, yielded a little more than £500. The Trustees under the Bellahouston Bequest Fund in 1896 divided the library of Mr. Moses Steven of Bellahouston equally between the Mitchell and the Stirling Library, and thereby each institution was enriched with about a thousand volumes, principally of good editions of standard authors; but also with some rare works. The scientific side of the library has also been largely augmented by an arrangement under which the transactions of foreign scientific societies received by the Glasgow Natural History Society and the Geological Society have been handed over; and theological literature received in 1894 a notable addition through the acquisition, on very favourable terms, of the library of the eminent theologian and scholar, Dr. James Morison. Under the head of benefactions it is also proper to mention that Mr. John Morgan of Bishopbriggs, whose entire estate was bequeathed for charitable purposes to the Merchants' House, had shortly before his death expressed his intention of bequeathing his books to the Mitchell Library. Under the circumstances the Merchants' House resolved to hand over Mr. Morgan's collection to the library for the nominal sum of £200, and thereby the library has been enriched with an extensive collection, in which science, and specially mathematical works is the leading feature.
Among other valuable donations may be named: 2000 volumes from the Senate of the University of Glasgow; the bequest of Mr. Richard Chalmers of his library of 1000 volumes; and a large collection of Scottish literature, mainly poetical, amounting to 2250 volumes, from the late Mr. Alexander Gardyne.

From the shelves of the Mitchell Library there are now yearly given out about half a million of volumes, a number exceeded among provincial reference libraries only by that of Liverpool. In this computation no account is taken of the magazine room, an important element or feature in the institution. The number of periodicals on view in that department has gradually increased to four hundred, of which the majority are selected as representing some department of knowledge or literature, or some school or opinion, or some trade or other interest. There are exceedingly few of the trivial or ephemeral magazines of the day admitted to the tables. The reading in this room is nearly equal in amount to that in the reading hall, so that taking books and periodicals together, the use is not less than a million annually.

In November, 1877, the library opened its doors with a collection of 14,000 volumes; when in 1890 the books were removed from their first home in Ingram Street they numbered 89,000, and in August, 1896, the number of volumes in the library was about 120,000. The payments made for books, magazines, etc., out of the Mitchell fund have been upwards of £21,000, and while the entire expenditure has exceeded £88,000, the Mitchell fund, including the Logan, Campbell, and M'Pherson bequests, still exceeds £43,000. In 1891 the Town Council voted £2000 out of the surplus revenue of the Gas Trust for behoof of the library, and since that year an annual grant of a like amount has been made from the moneys received from Government under the Local Taxation (Customs and Excise) Act, Scotland, 1890. The revenue from the Mitchell Library fund is now about £1200, and these two sums just about balance the expenditure. There is, besides, the Moir fund (about £10,500) available for the purchase of special books, from which, after payment of an annuity, about £100 a year is received.

The chief want of the library is an adequate and assured revenue. At present many works of importance are left unpurchased for want of funds, while the continuance of the annual grant of £2000 out of the local taxation payment is uncertain.

The library premises cannot be regarded as other than temporary and insufficient for the requirements of a vast city. The position, though fairly central, is incapable of expansion; it is closely built up to with extensive warehouse properties, which offer a constant menace of destruction by fire. Already there is a feeling of cramped accommodation; there is much overcrowding through winter months, while space for books is approaching
exhaustion, and it is obvious that provision of larger and more secure buildings will soon become an urgent need.

The whole subject of public libraries for the City is one which calls for the most careful consideration of all who, whether in public or private station, desire the best welfare of the community. It is in this department of municipal administration that Glasgow compares most unfavourably with other leading centres of population. Indeed, it may be affirmed that the most serious reproach to which the intelligence and culture of the population are subject would be removed were the City put in possession of a well-considered and fully equipped system of public libraries and reading rooms, such as is possible under the operation of the Acts to that end provided. To the many advantages the citizens now enjoy from a bold yet sagacious development of municipal activities would be added the advantages and comforts of a reading room and the inestimable benefits of a well-stocked library within easy access of every household within the wide bounds of Glasgow.
CHAPTER XXXV.

EDUCATION. SCHOOLS AND EDUCATIONAL ENDOWMENTS.


The Grammar School of Glasgow, in these days known as the High School, is said to have been founded at a period so remote as the early part of the twelfth century, and could that antiquity be established it might claim to be the oldest institution, having a continuous history, we have in our midst. It is unnecessary to speculate on the conditions under which the school may have been founded and governed at that nebulous period in the history of Glasgow. That the school is of high antiquity is certain, for previous to the foundation of the University in 1450, the doctor—using the term in its classical sense—of the Grammar School is in contemporary records honourably mentioned.

That the school was more or less directly under the control of the ecclesiastical authorities up till the period of the Reformation is more than probable. Indeed, till that memorable period, everything in Glasgow was under priestly domination; and something of the civil power of the priests continued for more than a century after their ecclesiastical sway had come to an end. But that the Grammar School of Glasgow came under the control of the General Kirk Session and Presbytery of Glasgow is not the case. From the Reformation period onward the Town Council of Glasgow had sole control not only over the Grammar School, but over all education.
in Glasgow, the University only excepted. They appointed and dismissed the masters, they framed regulations and tables of fees, they paid such supplementary stipends as, in their eyes, seemed good, they maintained the Grammar School buildings, and they gave free premises to certain other teachers. In the case of what we may call adventure schools, they reserved the power to license teachers, and to dictate to them the streets and quarters in which they should exercise their calling.

The earliest preserved record of the connection of the Town Council with the Grammar School occurs in the Treasurer's accounts, where, under date of October, 1577, is an entry for “xij threif of quheit straye to theik the grammer scole” 48s. (Scots). Here we have the vision of a low thatched erection, situated in the Greyfriars or Grammar School Wynd, nearly opposite the site subsequently occupied by the College in the High Street, the roof of which could be covered with twelve thraveis of wheaten straw. That it was in a ruinous condition, and therefore probably an ancient erection, we learn from the Council Minutes a month later, when, on 16th November, 1577, the Master of Works was ordained “to mak the grammer scole watterfast, and at the Spring of the year to mend the west parts thairof.” The repairs if carried out staved off more radical action till 1600, when, on 28th May, the Council resolved to “visie the Schole and to sie quhat will repair the same sufficiently.” Repairs only were thought of at that time, and in July also, when certain penalties against heritors and occupiers in Garngadhill were impounded for the repairs; but on 23rd August the policy of patching was abandoned, and the Council resolved “that in respect thai think na thing mair profitabill, first to the glory of God, nixt the weill of the towne, to have ane Grammer Schole, and that the same is altogidder rwinus and man be of new biggit, and that thai have promesit sindry supportis thairto of befor, quhilk as yet is nocht perfyitit, thairfor thai have ordanit every counsale daye that the same salbe first proponit be maister John Blakburne, cholme- maister, quhill the work be perfyitit. And als be woit thai have ordanit the hail stanes of the rwinus dekayit fallin downe bak almoushous pertenyng to the towne to be dedicat to the bigging and reparatoune of the Grammer Schole.” Later in the year the Council gave instructions to have the building proceeded with under the directions of the master, Mr. John Blackburne, and another, who were to get the work done “as gud chaipe as they can.” The erection was completed in 1601, and in it was built a memorial stone with the legend: 1601. SCHOLA GRAMMATICOR. A SENATU CIVIBUSQUE GLASCUANIS BONAR. LITERAR. PATRONIS CONDITA.

Mr. John Blackburne, at this time master of the Grammar School, was a man of great influence and eminence; and from many circumstances it is evident that his worth was appreciated by the Town Council. He had been Lord Rector of the University in 1592 and 1594; and when, in 1601, it was reported that he was to be called “furth of the towne to sum
ministrie," a deputation was appointed to appear before the presbytery "requesting thame in the townes name to help and furder him with ony benefit about the towne for his support quhen it sall happin to wark, quhairby he may be retenit within the towne to be master of the grammer schole." The joint efforts of Council and Presbytery were successful, and the appreciated services of Blackburne were retained. In the previous year he had conferred on him by the Council a chaplainry which had fallen vacant, and they had agreed to increase the fees charged by him for the augmentation of his income to 5s. Scots per quarter for himself and 20 pence for his Doctor. By other entries in the Council records, we find that Blackburne had also been granted the right to nominate, or to receive the fees paid on the entry of, two burgesses yearly, which right was ultimately commuted by a money payment of 40 merks. Further, he received from the Council one half of the feu duties created over ground attached to the School, and altogether he appears to have been an exceptionally honoured citizen.

Nevertheless, his dignities and his learning did not exempt him from the careful supervision and criticism of the Council. The Council's sanction to the augmentation of fees was accompanied by the conditions (1st) that he should "furness ane sufficient doctor as salbe presentit to the provest, bailleis and counsale to be agreit on be thame," and (2nd) "the maister sall compeir the first Setterdaye every monethe in the yeir in the counsalchous, and thair, in presens of the provest, baillies and counsale, offer him ready to abyde tryall of his instructing and of his doctoris, vtherwyis the augmentatioune to be dischargeit."

Mr. Blackburne, we have seen, came under obligation to nominate a sufficient doctor as his assistant in the Grammar School, and it would appear that these two constituted the entire school staff. At the same time there was a teacher, John Buchan, not under Blackburne, who prepared pupils to be passed on to the Grammar School, for the Council on the day they fixed Blackburne's augmentation of fees, etc., also ordained John Buchquhane to have "of every scholler quarterle 5s. and 20 pence to the doctor, and ordainit Mr. John Blackburne notcht to resave ony of his scolleris but his testimoniall quhair thai have payit thair scollege, and the provest promseit to gif him £20 of the maltmen's compositioun to be sum support presentle." Blackburne's connection with the Grammar School ceased in 1615 on his presentation to the Church and Parish of Barony.

In 1649 the school staff consisted of a master and two doctors, and in respect that no settled stipend had hitherto been set apart for the doctors, the Council agreed that "the first doctor sall have ane yeirlie stipend of ane hundrethe pundis; and the second ane hundrethe merkis yeirlie"; but in the same year an upper doctor was appointed with an annual salary of 200 merks. The doctors of the Grammar School appear all to have been
licentiates of the Church, and they added to their incomes by pulpit services, for which they received fees sometimes from the Council. Their educational duties were strictly limited to the teaching of Latin in the school; and the Shorter Catechism, when it came into use, was taught and recited on Sundays, on which day masters had also the charge of their scholars at church morning and afternoon.

But the paternal care and supervision of the Town Council were extended to, and exercised also over the more elementary educational interests of the City. Schools were numerous in Glasgow towards the middle of the sixteenth century, and while it was obvious that grades were recognized, it is not easy to define their distinctions. The most numerous class of schools were known as Scots schools, in which reading in the vernacular was probably the principal exercise. In the English schools a higher grade of education was given, and more subjects were probably taught. Great attention was devoted to music, and teachers were encouraged to settle in the town for giving instruction in special subjects. In July, 1626, the Town Council agreed with James Sanderis to give him exclusive right of teaching music within the burgh, he to receive 10s. quarterly for himself and 40d. for his man. The arrangement does not appear to have been successful, and twelve years later the following Minute was agreed to by the Town Council:

"Foirsameikle as of befoir thair was ane act sett doun in favouris of James Sanderis, reidder, that na maner of persone sould be permittit to teitch musik within this burgh, or keip ane schooll to that effect, except himself allenerlie, as the act in the selff beiris; and now seing that the musik schooll is altogidder dekayit within this burgh, to the grait discredit of this citie and discontentment of sindrie honest men within the same, who hes bairnes whom they would have instructit in that art, and that Duncane Birnet, who sumtyme of befoir teacht musik within this brughe, is desyrrous to tak vp the said schooll againe and teitch musik thairin, quhairpon the saidis provest, bailyeis, and counsall convenit the said James Sanderis befoir thame, and after deliberatioun thairanent they, with consent of the said James Sanderis (in respect of the former act sett doun in his favouris), hes grantit licence to the said Duncane Binnett to tak vp ane musik school within this brugh during thair will and pleasouris, he taking fra the toun bairnes suche skollegis as is contenit in the act sett doun of befoir in favouris of the said James Sanderis."

In 1639 the subject of English schools came under the consideration of the Council, and the following minute was agreed to:

"For certaine guid consideratiounes moveing the saidis provest, bailyies, and counsall, it is statut and ordanit be them that nae mae Inglisch scoollies be keipit or haldin within this brughe heirefter bot forie only, with ane wrytting schooll, and the maisteris thairof to be admitit be this place and receave injunctions thairfra anent the place of thair duelling, and vtheris neidfull, and ordanis this to be intimat be sound of drum." The keepers
of Scots schools were under obligation to teach the children of the poor free of charge, and such amount of popular education as was at that time within the reach of the masses was obtained in these institutions. Their supervision gave the Town Council no small amount of concern, as unauthorized, and probably poorly qualified, instructors had frequently to be dealt with. A minute dated 25th March, 1654, throws some light on the organization, number, and management of these popular institutions:

"Forasmuch as be ane former ordour of the counsell the magistrats and sundrie members thairof did visit the haill Scottis scoolles, and they finding eftir tryell that sundrie persoune had takine vpe scoolles no wayes being authoreizit be the magistrats and counsell, quhilk is against all reasone or forme ever heirtofoir observit in the lyk, and the saidis Scottis scoolemasters haweinge this day compeirit according to ane warning maid to them, and sundrie of them haweinge givine in their supplicatioune most humblie requestinge warrant to continow in the keiping of thair scoole and vthers to tak vpe Scottis who never had of befoir; after consideratioune thairanent takin be the saidis magistrats and counsell, they did as they doe heircby warrant thir persoune, viz., Mr. Thomas Smiettoun, Mr. Thomas Muir, Mr. William Forrest, Johne M'Clae, James Clerk, younger, William Bogle, Johne Patersoune, and Mr. Gilbert Wilsoune to continow in holding and keiping of thair scooles as formerlie; and grants warrant to thir persones wha never had warrant to keipe scooles of befoir, to wit, Robert Forrest and James Selkrieg, to tak vpe and hold scooles for instructioun of yowthe. But the haill foirnamed persoune ar admittit to the foirsaid charge upn thir speciall conditions fallingow, and no otherways, to wit, that they carie themselfis religiouslie and honestlie as becometh, without any kynd of open scandell, and that they keipe morning and evening prayers in thair respective scooles and vther disciplie thairin as becometh, and that they tak no mor scolledge nor quarter payment frae towne bairnes but ten schilling quarterlie and double fra straingers, except it will be the will of the parentis and freinds to whom they belong to bestow the samyne wpon thim, and that they teache and instruct all poore children whomsomevir wha, or thair parentis or freinds shall requyre the samyne of them frilie, without any kynd of payment or scolledge quhatsomevir; and that they subscryve thir presentis for the better keiping ordour thairanent. And becaus James Porter hes formerlie vsurpit the priviledge of holding and keiping of ane scoole, for the quhilk he could produce no warrant of the magistrats and counsell as aucht and sould be, and he being warnit to have givin in his petitioun in maner foresaid, according as the rest of the foirnamed persoune wer, and seeing he hes slichted and neglectit the ingiving thairof in the maner as the rest hes done, the foirsaid magistrats and counsell hes discharget and does heircby discharge the said James Porter from keiping or holding of any scoole within this brugh quhill he first be warrantid
and authoreizit be the magistratis and counsell thairof as he aucht to be.

That science subjects were but poorly esteemed in the educational system of the seventeenth century is evident from the warrant given in August, 1660, to James Corss, mathematician, to set up a school within the City. Corss in his supplication stated "that he was borne within this burgh and educat therintill, and having studied the knouledge of the mathematicks and obteined ane competent knouledge therin and wher sciences therto belonging, being naturallie adictit thereto from his infancie, and that he resolves to tak wp ane schoole heir for teaching of theis artes and sciences in the vulgar native tongue, quhilk hes not bein done formerlie in this kingdome for want of incuragmentis thereto, and the tyes of birth and educatioune pressis him to mak the first proposelles therof to this his native toune." The Council, taking these circumstances into consideration, granted a license to Corss to take up a school in the City, and promised him their best encouragement in his efforts to spread the knowledge of mathematical science.

In 1652 occurred the great fire in Glasgow, which in more senses than one burned the heart out of the City. Whether the conflagration affected the Grammar School in the Greyfriars Wynd does not appear; but it is remarkable that in 1656, just as the town was recovering from the catastrophe, a necessity arose for reconstructing the building, then only 50 years old. It surely cannot be that the modern art of Jerry building was practised at that remote date so adroitly that a public building would become useless within a period so brief, nor was the increase of population such as to render increased accommodation essential. From whatever cause arising the fact remains that, in February, 1656, the Master of Work was instructed to have the building taken down with all diligence and to have the slates taken off "as saiflie as may be." "The manner and form" of the new building was soon thereafter settled by the Council, and the Master of Work was instructed to agree with "ane measoune" for the work. In August it was agreed that "sume littill thing be raisit on the wastmost gavill of the grammar schoole, now in building, for the hingin of ane bell thairin quhen the toune sall think it convenient." The "littill thing" is subsequently spoken of as a steeple, and the town provided a bell for it in 1663, a fragment of which, with the City Arms and Latin legend, is preserved to this day in Kelvin-grove Museum.

In 1685, after the annual visitation of the school by the Council, the principal and masters of the College, and the ministers of the City, a report was obtained from the University authorities and the ministers on the organization and teaching in the institution. The report recommended a five years' course of training in Latin to prepare pupils for entry in the Humanity class in the College, and it prescribed the books and course of study for each year. During that period special care was to be taken to see that the scholars,
not only to their masters, but also among themselves, spoke nothing but Latin; and for Sunday exercise, it was recommended that the boys assemble in school, go to church with the masters forenoon and afternoon; that about four o'clock they again meet, give an account of the sermons and be instructed and examined in the Shorter Catechism and Confession of Faith in English.

Disputes between the master and doctors of the school were of frequent occurrence, and they occasionally became so exacerbated that the Council had to adjudicate on them, a task which generally led to the dismissal of the subordinate. In 1738, after a series of such disorders, the Council issued a minute distinctly setting forth the supreme authority of the rector or headmaster, and enjoining the doctors, as under masters, to submit to him as their superior, and in no way to contradict him in the exercise of his power. In addition to his own fees and salary, the rector was then entitled to one-fourth part of the fees of the doctors or under masters. In 1740 the rector's salary was £25 11s. 1½d., that of the doctors was £10, and the quarter's fee per scholar was 3s. 6d.; but to add to these meagre incomes a Candlemas offering was yearly given to the masters, under conditions which would disgrace a modern tavern waiter. Anything under 5s. offered by a pupil on that occasion was received with chilling silence, for that sum he was rewarded with a vivat and cheers, ten shillings evoked a hearty floreat, and a guinea and upwards was rewarded with a gloreat and great applause.

In 1782 a committee of the Town Council reported in favour of numerous changes in the working of the Grammar School, the most important being the abolition of the office of rector and the conducting of the school by four masters of equal rank, authority, and salary, each of whom should in turn begin a rudiment class and carry it on for four years. Further, the report pointed out that the school-house in Greyfriars Wynd had neither free air nor good light, and that it was without any convenience for the innocent diversion of the boys, and therefore it recommended the erection of a new school-house "in a convenient situation, with all the necessary requisites." The abolition of the rectorship was agreed to by the Town Council, and a committee was appointed to look out for ground fit for building a new Grammar School, with rooms for teaching French, arithmetic, and book-keeping.

In 1789 the school left its ancient premises in Greyfriars Wynd or Grammar School Wynd for ever, and began its career in buildings in George Street erected from the plans of Mr. George Craig. The front elevation of these buildings is still preserved as the central portion of and main entrance to the Technical College, formerly the Andersonian University. Towards the cost of the building the Council contributed the site and the proceeds of the sale of the vacated property and ground; the balance of the cost was subscribed by citizens under the express conditions that the new property should belong to the community and be directed and managed,
as of yore, by the Magistrates and Council alone. Behind the school there was a playground, which extended to 3773 square yards, provided for the boys.

In 1815 the teacher of a fifth class or form was appointed, who, under the name of rector, took charge of boys who had already passed four years under one of the ordinary masters. To the rector was also assigned the duty of teaching the elements of Greek and geography; but he had neither authority nor control over the other teachers. In 1816 a teacher of writing and arithmetic was appointed; and so modernized, the school flourished and increased till it outgrew the accommodation in George Street, and another removal was decided upon. The site selected was the slope immediately to the north of the position then occupied, with entry from John Street, and there in 1820 the new school was erected from the designs of Mr. James Cleland, Master of Works. For a time thereafter the school languished, and in 1834 a thorough remodelling of the institution was resolved on. The name was changed from Grammar School to that of High School of Glasgow; the number of classical masters was reduced to two; special masters were appointed for modern foreign languages, for mathematics, arithmetic and geography, and for drawing; and the master who formerly taught arithmetic and writing was limited to the latter subject only. In 1836 a teacher of chemistry was appointed, and in the following year his duties were extended to science generally. Under these conditions the school became again a flourishing and popular institution.

Further reforms and modifications of rule were introduced in 1866, when the school was again brought under the general control of a rector; a third classical master was appointed, a teacher of German was provided, and gymnastics and fencing were introduced as school subjects. In this state matters continued till, in 1872, the institution, under the provisions of the Education (Scotland) Act was handed over to the control of the Glasgow School Board, a body elected in March of the following year, and there-after the Town Council ceased to have direct connection with the school they had fostered and cared for over a period of several centuries. The contribution which fell to be made from the Common Good of the City, according to clause 46 of that celebrated statute, was fixed by mutual agree-ment of Town Council and School Board at £570 per annum, that being the average expended on teaching and erections during the ten previous years. The duty of the Council is now limited to the payment of that amount yearly towards the support of the school they so long maintained. Under the School Board the institution thrives, expands, and keeps abreast of the times. By that body the buildings in John Street were abandoned and the modern premises in Elmbank Street, erected for Glasgow Academy, were, at a cost of £32,000, secured for the High School. To these premises extensive additions have since been made, but a record of the recent ex-periences of the High School would lead us beyond the direct sphere of
the municipality and into a field too wide and attractive to be trenched on in this record.

In process of time, through bequests, mortifications, and gifts, the Town Council of Glasgow became the administrator, or concerned in the administration, of a large revenue destined for varied educational objects. While the management of certain of these funds was vested solely in the Council, in others they were associated with official representatives of public bodies, such as the Presbytery, Kirk Sessions, Merchants' House, Trades' House, etc., and in certain cases nominated trustees were associated in the trusts. In some of the trusts the position of the Council representatives was subordinate, and while the funds might be in the keeping of the Corporation, the administrative power rested chiefly in the hands of outsiders. The purposes and conditions of the trusts were varied, and the specific instructions of the testators rendered it impossible to concentrate the benefits of the funds on one common educational object, and thus in isolated effort much labour and supervision were entailed without commensurate benefit to the vast population of the City. Several of the educational endowments of Glasgow were dealt with under the provisions of the Endowed Institutions (Scotland) Act of 1869; and for the regulation of the wealthiest of all—the Hutchesons' Hospital—a special Act of Parliament was obtained in 1872. That important endowment will, however, be dealt with in a separate chapter.

In 1879 the Town Council, in conjunction with other representatives of educational endowments of Glasgow, appointed a committee to consider what action could be taken to secure a more beneficial and systematic application of the funds in their charge. It was remitted to the Town Clerk of Glasgow to prepare a report showing the nature of the various endowments, the parties entrusted with their administration, and the funds available; and a valuable and exhaustive statement was thereupon drawn up by Sir James Marwick. While that report was in preparation, the Educational Endowments (Scotland) Act of 1882 was passing through Parliament, and under its provisions Commissioners were appointed with full powers to frame the very schemes for altering the provisions and conditions of endowments which were desired by the administrators of the diverse Glasgow trusts.

After due inquiry, two schemes were elaborated by the Commissioners under which several scattered educational endowments in charge partly of the Town Council and partly of other official and private trustees were unified and directed for a common educational purpose, as nearly consistent with the intent of the pious donors as was practicable under altered educational conditions. Under one of these schemes the City Educational Endowments Board was constituted, and in its charge were placed Anderson's School, Dr. Andrew Bell's Bequest, Coulter's Mortification, Scotstarvit Mortification, Murdoch's School, Hood's School, Maxwell's School, Alexander's Endowment, M'Grigor's Bequest, Macfarlane's School, and M'Millan's Bequest.
The governing body was constituted of twenty-one members, eleven elected by the Town Council, the others being from the School Board, the City Ministers, the Senate of the University, the Merchants' House, and the Trades' House. Power was given to the Board to discontinue schools, to apply one-sixth of the annual free income for free scholarships in elementary schools, and to expend £100 yearly on clothing for necessitous free scholars; they were instructed to give £1500 yearly in the form of school bursaries of a value of not less than £5, not more than £10; to apply £700 yearly in providing technical and secondary education; and to devote £500 towards establishing university bursaries. It was also a condition of the scheme that the Board should contribute an annual sum of not less than £1400 to the governing body of the Technical College. In the allocation of bursaries and free scholarships power was given to co-operate with other governing bodies controlling endowments similarly destined, and they were empowered to allocate bursaries and scholarships among groups of schools of a similar class. The Board were also authorized to establish and maintain a higher class school for boys within the buildings occupied by Alexander's Charity, and to expend on the support of such school up to £750 per annum.

The City Educational Endowments Board at 31st December, 1894, had at the credit of their capital account £158,440, invested principally in feu duties, in stocks, and lent on heritable bonds. The annual income of the Board amounted to about £6540, and the expenditure under the scheme on educational purposes was £4541. After defraying the expense of administration and expenses on property, etc., there remained a balance of surplus revenue equal to £850, which went to swell the capital account.

The Educational Endowments dealt with under the second scheme, which constituted the Glasgow General Educational Endowments Board, comprised Muir's School Fund, Millar and Peodie's School, Wilson's School, Gardner's School, M'Lachlan's School, and Graham's School. The governing body under this scheme consists of seventeen persons, of whom three only are nominated by the Town Council, and the general powers conferred on the Board are similar to those under which the City Endowments Board act. The Governors were instructed to discontinue the several schools existing at the date of framing the scheme, and to sell or let the premises and compensate dismissed teachers. They were instructed to apply not more than one-third of the free annual income in providing free scholarships in elementary schools; they were authorized to expend £100 yearly on clothing for necessitous free scholars; one-fourth of the income was to be devoted to establishing school bursaries of from £5 to £10 yearly; not less than £500 yearly falls to be spent on technical and secondary school bursaries, and not more than £500 was to be applied in providing bursaries in evening classes for higher or technical education. The Governors were further empowered to give, should they see fit, an annual subsidy, not
exceeding £400, to any school or schools of domestic economy established in Glasgow; and they were bound to institute two bursaries of £250 annual value to be called the Muir Divinity Bursaries, tenable at the Divinity Hall of Glasgow University.

At the close of 1894 the capital account of the General Endowments Board stood at £77,450; and the annual income was about £3000, derived from rents and feu duties, interest on heritable bonds, dividends on stocks, etc. The educational expenditure amounted to £1766, and after defraying expense of administration and expenditure on properties, a surplus revenue of £700 fell to be added to the capital stock of the Board.

It is of advantage that these schemes, in common with the scheme under which the Hutchesons' Educational Trust is constituted, have hitherto been carried on under one secretary and administrative staff. In this way all conflict is avoided, unity of purpose is secured, the educational benefits of the three schemes are spread over the population in a manner which would be impossible under isolated and separate administration. The economy also of the arrangement is not the least advantageous condition; the bursary examinations are simultaneously held, the papers are set and examined by official experts, and the competition itself, extending over the whole field of local elementary education, must have a highly stimulating effect.

Since these schemes were formulated in 1885 a great change has come over the elementary education of the country; and now that payment of fees in elementary schools has practically ceased, free scholarships in elementary schools are no longer required, and the assistance meantime afforded under that head is confined to supplying books and stationery to the children selected for such aid. Hence, there is already an urgent necessity for an amendment of the schemes under which the endowments are administered. Elementary education being free and compulsory, the fields in which endowments can be profitably employed are in encouraging the continuance of instruction beyond the meagre compulsory limit, in widening the avenues to higher education, and in developing and promoting technical and scientific instruction, in which Scotland yet lags behind.

The Commissioners, under the Educational Endowment Act of 1882, were precluded from interfering with endowments (1st) gifted after the passing of the 1872 Education Act, (2nd) belonging to or administered by the Universities, and (3rd) those applicable to theological instruction. In consequence there remain, under the direct administration of the Town Council, University bursary funds having a capital value of about £4000; they are trustees for several small funds for providing medals at the High School; and they have in their hands £500 mortified by Dr. Thomas Chalmers and the Kirk Session of St. John's Church in 1822, with the object of making a good education accessible to the poorer families in St. John's Parish. Under the trust of Lieutenant Colonel Maclean, the Council administer a capital sum of £26,000
in providing education of poor and deserving boys named Maclean throughout Scotland, and this they do by giving about thirty school bursaries of £3 yearly, and three university bursaries of £25 each.

In the exercise of their discretionary power in dealing with the variable residue grant received under the Local Taxation (Customs and Excise) Act of 1890, the Town Council, while allocating a proportion to the relief of the police rates and making a contribution to the support of the Mitchell Library, have given liberal grants for strictly educational purposes. In the year 1894-95 the City received as its share of the residue grant £9150, out of which there was paid to the Technical College £2500, to the Weaving School £150, and to the School of Art, £350.

When it is added that the Town Council have a voice in the distribution of Glasgow's share of the £60,000 allocated for secondary education in Scotland under the Education and Local Taxation Account (Scotland) Act of 1892, we have come to the latest of the educational functions of the Corporation, and the last which falls to be here recorded.
CHAPTER XXXVI.

EDUCATION AND CHARITY. HUTCHESONS' HOSPITAL.


The great charitable and educational foundation, the Royal Incorporation of Hutchesons' Hospital, was instituted in 1641. It may be looked on as an indirect outcome of the Reformation, as a proof of the growing power and influence of municipal authority in the seventeenth century, and as an evidence that care for the helpless and needy at the two extremes of human life had come to be regarded as a pious and praiseworthy duty. George Heriot in Scotland set the example of confiding to the municipal authorities the trusteeship of his wealth devoted to the upbringing and secular education of poor children; and his example, worthily followed by the brothers Hutcheson, was fruitful of vast educational and charitable benefits throughout the country. In pre-Reformation times these endowments would undoubtedly have been entrusted to the clergy, largely they would have been devoted to the glorification of the Church and to the extension of its power and influence. It is obvious that vast sums were during the centuries of Roman domination mortified to the Church in Scotland, for otherwise whence the great estates it possessed at the time of the Reformation, whence the vast and magnificent buildings which were scattered over the length and breadth of the poor and thinly peopled land? Most of the wealth which pious souls had for the glory of God and the good of their souls dedicated
to the Church passed into the hands of rapacious and unscrupulous nobles, a fact which could not fail to shock and stagger prudent men on benevolent deeds intent. Then, from the Reformation onwards throughout the seventeenth century, ecclesiastical authority was feeble and wavering, and order had given place to perpetual conflict and change. So it happened that municipal authority took the place in the confidence and regard of the “pious donor” which in earlier days had been exclusively the sphere of the dignitaries of the Church.

The founders of Hutchesons’ Hospital were the brothers George and Thomas Hutcheson. George Hutcheson, the elder brother and the founder of the Hospital as distinguished from the school, was a man of substance in Glasgow, a landowner, a lawyer in important practice, and a money lender. He was a man of much force of character and independence of spirit; he lived to a ripe old age—probably he was between eighty and ninety years old at the time of his death; and, predeceased by his wife and daughter, he left no family. He died in December, 1639, and lies buried in the family tomb at the east side of the Cathedral of Glasgow. Thomas, the younger brother, was a notary, and received the appointment of Registrar of Sasines for the Barony and Regality of Glasgow and the County of Renfrew. He also was a married man, and he died in 1641, aged fifty-two years, survived by his childless wife. Thus he lived not quite two years after the death of his elder brother, to whose estates he succeeded as heir-at-law.

In the year of his death, 1639, George Hutcheson executed a deed of mortification conveying to the Provost, Bailies, Dean of Guild, Deacon-Convener, and the three Ministers of the City, a sum of 20,000 merks—£1111 2s. 2d.—with a tenement of land in the Hie Street—Trongate—“to be edified and made ane perfyte Hospital for entertainment of the poor, aged, decrepit men to be placed therein,” these men being “merchants, craftsmen, or any other trade, without distinction.” The donor contemplated that after building the Hospital there would remain funds sufficient for the support of eleven old men who were to receive specific allowances for food and clothes. Within ten days after the execution of this deed George Hutcheson died, and his younger brother Thomas succeeded to his estates as heir-at-law. The interval between the execution of the deed and his death was too short to give legal validity to the mortification by George Hutcheson, and therefore it was competent for Thomas to disregard his brother’s purpose. But Thomas had a higher conception of his duty than mere regard to legal obligations. Without loss of time he ratified and confirmed his dead brother’s deed of mortification, and in so doing he assigned to the patrons an amount of byegone interest due on the sum mortified by George, and “having good mind and will that the said Hospital should be built large and in a comely form,” he further conveyed to the patrons, for hospital purposes, a barn and barnyard adjoining the tenement gifted by his brother.
contract was executed in June, 1640, and in March next year, "following the pious and memorable example" of his worthy brother, he mortified to the Patrons of the Hospital a third tenement of land adjoining the site on which the Hospital was then building, and 20,200 merks Scots money—£1122 4s.—for the purpose of building "in a whole continuous work with the Hospital, and nevertheless to be made a commodious and distinct house of itself, for educating and harbouring twelve male children, indigent orphans, and others of like condition and quality." The deed contains numerous specific directions as to the boys, who, it declares, "shall be all burgesses' sons of the Burgh of Glasgow who either want parents or whose parents are not able to maintain them, and a preference to be given to the names of Hutcheson and Herbertson." The patronage of the mortification was conferred on the Town Council of Glasgow, and the Provost, Bailies, and Council were directed yearly to elect from among themselves a "Master of the Hospital," who, with four others and four ministers of the town were to be entrusted with the administration of the institution.

That Thomas Hutcheson contemplated the establishment of a single institution having unity of government, but two distinct sides and objects, is obvious from the terms of his mortification, which specifies that the building for boys "shall be in a whole continuous work with the Hospital." His subsequent gifts still further emphasize the purpose of having one institution with two sides—charitable for the aged and charitable and educational for the young. On the 3rd July, 1641, Thomas further mortified, by way of codicil or "eik," an additional 10,000 merks—£555 11s. stg.—for the further help of the twelve founded orphans and supply to the twelve old men—eleven it was his brother mentioned. And finally, a few days later, on the 16th July, 1641, he executed another deed assigning to the Provost, Bailies, and Council, as Patrons of the Hospital "now building within the City of Glasgow," the further sum of 10,500 merks—£583 6s. 8d.—"for the better help and supply of the said eleven founded persons." Thus, in addition to three tenements of land and certain overdue interest, the sums mortified by the brothers, principally by Thomas, and in law entirely by him, were:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Amount</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>For aged men</td>
<td>£1,111 2 2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>For boys</td>
<td>1,122 4 0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Common to both</td>
<td>1,138 17 10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>£3,372 4 0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>60,700 merks</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

But to this amount there probably also ought to be added a sum of 8000 merks, which, according to the minute book of the patrons, was received from a wadset upon the lands of Cardonald, mortified for the use of the Hospital, and an advance of 3620 for the erection of the building, 3000 of which was to be repaid, but apparently that sum was never claimed. These sums, amounting to £645 11s. 1d. stg., bring up the total money endow-
ments of the Hutcheson brothers to upwards of £4000, a very large amount
of money for the middle of the seventeenth century.

Thomas Hutcheson died on 1st September, 1641, like his brother, too
soon after the execution of certain of his deeds to render them legally unassail-
able, and therefore it became necessary that they should be ratified and
confirmed by his three surviving sisters, which was accordingly done.

Some progress had been made with the erection of the original Hospital
buildings during the lifetime of Thomas Hutcheson. They were begun on
1st March, 1641. Hutcheson himself laid the foundation stone on the 19th
of that month, but the work was not completed till 1650, and the whole
cost was £26,194 8s. 8d. Scots—£2182 10s. 8d. stg. In the meantime
Colin Campbell, a bailie of the City, had during the lifetime of Hutcheson
been appointed first master and collector of the Hospital, the first pensioner
was elected on 13th November, 1643; on the same date an orphan boy
was elected to the educational side of the institution, and from that day to
this the benefit of Hutchesons' Hospital has been dispensed to the weak and
helpless among the citizens, and the charity has grown from a small rill to
a broad flowing river.

While the capital accumulations have been largely due to fortunate invest-
ments and natural growth—unearned increment of our later days—numerous
additions have been made to the funds by gifts, bequests, and mortifications.
Of these one of the most considerable is Blair's Mortification of 1710, by
which 10,000 merks were assigned to the Patrons of the Hospital, out of
the revenues of which pensions were to be paid to three old indigent men,
and the balance was to be applied for the education of four boys between
six and twelve years of age. Under a deed of mortification and codicil,
dated 1776 and 1779 respectively, Daniel Baxter mortified half his estate
if survived by his widow, or the whole if she predeceased him, to the Patrons
of the Hospital with complex directions, first for lending it out in small
sums without interest to struggling craftsmen andburgesses, and next for
the support of three poor burgesses, three poor women, widows or daughters
of respectable burgesses, and to six children of such burgesses for their
education for four years. The pensions were to be £100 Scots—£8 6s. 8d.
stg.—each for the elders, and £50 Scots for each child. The loan scheme
was soon found to be unworkable, and the proceeds of the mortification, the
capital amount of which is £3000 stg., are expended on pensions as directed,
and for education as will be hereafter noticed. Under his will, dated 14th
October, 1818, William Scott bequeathed to the patrons £12,500, the revenue
of which he directed should be applied for the support of old men and old
women, and for the clothing and education of boys in accordance with the
regulations of the Hospital. The income was to be allocated, one-fourth for
men, one-fourth for women, and a half for boys, and Mr. Scott desired
the pensions for men should be not less than £20, and for women £15
yearly. The names of Scott and Anderson were to be preferred to these benefits.

The Trustees, under the settlement of Miss Mary Hood in 1827, conveyed to the Patrons of the Hospital £6000, the interest of which was to be applied in providing pensions for unmarried women of irreproachable character and in needy circumstances dwelling in the Barony or the City Parishes of Glasgow. The name of Hood gets preference under this charity, and it was directed that relatives of Miss Hood should be preferred, even should they not comply with the conditions of residence, character, social condition, etc., applicable to others. The Hood fund is administered as directed in providing pensions ranging from £5 to £10 yearly to women who are qualified according to the above conditions.

But the marvellous increase in the wealth and prosperity of the institution is not to be traced to these and other additional endowments, substantial as they are. It was a direction of the Hutchesons' that their funds should be invested in heritable property, and they were empowered "to lend furtth and bestow the samyn upon the cheapest and best holdin, arrabill lands they can gett to buy therewith, near to the said burgh." In pursuance of this policy the patrons acquired the lands of Ramshorn and Meadowflat, which belonged at the time of their death to the brothers Hutcheson, and in which the widow of Thomas had been liferented. In 1694 they were the property of Ninian Hill, a grand-nephew of the founders, and from him they were acquired by the patrons for 20,300 merks. These lands, with some outlying pieces subsequently acquired, extended to upwards of 46 acres, and cover what is now the most central, busiest, and most valuable area of the City, and had they till recent times remained the property of the Hospital they would now have yielded an enormous annual revenue. They form an oblong compact block, practically including all the ground from the Ramshorn Churchyard along the north of Ingram Street to West Nile Street, the northern boundary being the Rottenrow, Cathedral Street, and the central portion of Queen Street Station, to the corner of West Regent Street and West Nile Street. It will be seen that in this area is included the best part of Buchanan Street, all George Square, the General Post Office, the Municipal Buildings, the north side of Ingram Street, a slice of Queen Street Station, the Inland Revenue Offices, Anderson's College, and numerous other important public buildings. With it also the original Hospital garden bounded, which, running down Hutcheson Street, ended in the first Hospital buildings which faced the Trongate. But in 1772 these lands were conveyed to the Town Council, and being soon thereafter built over, the first profit accrued to the City rather than to the Hospital.

The most important and earliest purchase, however, made on behalf of the Hospital was the half interest in the Gorbals lands acquired, as already stated, in 1650 by the town on behalf of the Hospital to the extent of one
half, the remainder being equally divided between the Trades' House and the City itself. The remarkable outcome of this purchase has already been noticed in dealing with the affairs of the Trades' House, and here it may only be repeated that the purchase money paid on behalf of the Hospital for the half share amounted to £3,388, and at the present day that half share yields to the Hospital an annual income of £17,500, and that there yet remain 34 acres of unfeued Gorbals lands, the property of the Hospital, valued, according to an estimate made so long ago as 1843, at £16,930, a sum far below their present market value, seeing that portions have been feued at a rate equal to £726 yearly per acre of yearly feu duty.

In 1861 the patrons, having sold a large slice of Gorbals lands to the Glasgow and South-Western Railway, invested surplus funds to the amount of £24,000 in the purchase of Camphill, contiguous to the Queen's Park and not far removed from the southern boundaries of the Gorbals lands. This property covers an area of about 58 acres, and after holding it for 24 years, it also was acquired by the City in 1894 at a price of £63,000. In 1871 the patrons purchased a small property, Westends, ten acres in extent, bounding with the Gorbals estate and lying between it and Camphill. It forms a compact addition to the Gorbals feuing property, and served almost to connect these with the Camphill grounds.

The early experiences of the Hospital as a working institution were not encouraging. Scarcely was the house finished and open in 1650 ere it was found that the revenues, crippled by the investment in Gorbals lands, were insufficient to meet obligations already contracted, and the patrons were constrained to dismiss their schoolmaster, shut up the boys' school, to board out such as they had in their hands in the best manner they could, and to reduce the number of and curtail the pension allowances to old men. It was not till 1667 that the returning tide of prosperity enabled the patrons once more to harbour the full complement of twelve men and twelve boys contemplated under the original foundation.

At a very early date indeed—poverty and retrenchment notwithstanding—the letter of the Hutcheson mortifications was departed from in important respects. It will be observed that the foundations were expressly for men and boys—"eleven aged men," says George Hutcheson, "twelve male children" are specified by Thomas. These directions notwithstanding, almost from the very beginning there is evidence direct and indirect that women were admitted to share in the benefits of the bequest. In 1648 a female pensioner—Christina Herbertson—was enrolled nominally to wash clothes and to have ten pounds quarterly in respect "she is a near kinswoman of the founders." Probably she was a cousin of the Hutchesons, whose mother was named Helen Herbertson. Other females were indirectly benefited by being allowed to dwell in family with their husbands, pensioners on and lodged in the Hospital. More female relations of the founders were subsequently admitted,
and the way being thus opened up the patrons did not hesitate, having, as they deemed, fulfilled the conditions of the mortifications, to share the surplus funds among poor women whose husbands or male relatives would have been entitled to the privileges. In 1737 a formal minute was passed by the patrons, which ordained that after paying the pensions of twelve old men and twelve boys, whose support was looked on as a first charge on the fund, the surplus revenues might be applied for the benefit of the widows and daughters of persons who would themselves have been eligible. From that time onwards women as well as men were regularly admitted pensioners on the revenues, and in 1760 there were 22 women to 16 men and 17 boys. Ever since the number of female pensioners has exceeded, and now very greatly exceeds, the number of male beneficiaries. The term "old woman" is one of very elastic signification, and it must have been so regarded by the patrons, for in 1740 an "old woman," Betty Stark, was admitted a pensioner, and 66 years afterwards her funeral expenses fell to be paid by the Hospital.

It was an obvious and distinct purpose of the founders that the men and boy pensioners on the mortifications should reside within the building specially erected for their "entertainment and harbouring," and the old men also were to have yearly "a gown of a convenient colour." The building was indeed the first care of both brothers, and in the early years it was devoted to the purposes for which it was erected. But as early as 1672 there is evidence that certain portions of the Hospital building were let to rent-paying tenants, and towards the end of the century considerable inroads had been made on the accommodation of the pensioners by such outsiders. Many years before 1780 the patrons abandoned altogether the idea of continuing to use it as a hospital, and converted the greater part into shops and warehouses, and in the year above mentioned there were only four or five "pauper" women left in the building, paying no rent and occupying rooms in all valued at £10 per annum. "In short, for many years, there has no such thing existed as a hospital for lodging, clothing, and maintaining the pensioners and schoolboys." It is right to say that by this time, 1780, the aged pensioners on the fund numbered 47 men and 63 women, a number far exceeding what could possibly lodge within the building, which was originally devised for at most twelve men and a like number of boys. It does not appear that boys ever again were harboured within the building after 1652, when by pressure of poverty and the Gorbals purchase they were sent home to their relatives a brief two years after the Hospital building was finished.

In 1821 a Royal Charter was obtained, erecting the Hospital into an incorporation under the title of the Royal Incorporation of Hutchesons' Hospital in the City of Glasgow, the patrons therein nominated being the Preceptor, the Lord Provost, Magistrates and Councillors, and the ministers of the Established Churches in Glasgow, their number being then, as now, ten.
The charter in no way varied the duties of patrons, and it cannot be said that due legislative sanction was given to their departure from the letter of the mortifications till the passing of the Hutchesons' Hospital Act of 1872. Under that enactment the body of patrons is increased, and now includes the Preceptor, elected annually from their own number, the Lord Provost, Magistrates, Dean of Guild, Deacon-Convener, and Councillors, the ten ministers of the City parishes, three representatives from the Merchants' House, three from the Trades' House, and six members elected by the patrons from among the dissenting ministers in Glasgow. The several mortifications, bequests, and gifts added to the Hospital after the time of the Hutchesons' are dealt with under the Act, and it is provided that the proportion of general revenue to be expended on pensions shall not exceed two-thirds, nor be less than one-half. The whole of Hood's Mortification is to be expended in pensions to unmarried females, and Scott's to be equally divided between pensions and education. Large powers are conferred on the patrons for dealing with public education, but these powers were again enlarged and modified by the Educational Endowments (1882) Act Commissioners, by whom two-fifths of the annual revenues of the Hospital were allotted to education and placed under the management of a special board, the Hutchesons' Educational Trust; and the remaining three-fifths alone continue under the Hospital authorities to be administered as a charity.

The governing body of Hutchesons' Educational Trust, constituted under the scheme of the Commissioners, consist of twenty-one members, eleven elected by the Town Council, three by the School Board, two by the City Ministers, two by the Patrons of Hutchesons' Hospital, and one by each, the University, the Merchants' House, and the Trades' House. They are required to maintain the school for boys and the school for girls which had been instituted by the patrons, and these schools are to continue to bear the name of Hutcheson. The subjects of instruction are prescribed, as are also the fees to be charged from fee-paying children; and the minimum salary of the headmasters, who must be graduates, is fixed at £500 yearly. Foundationers up to the number of 200 may be selected and entered in the schools, these being the children of persons who have been engaged in business or trade in the City, who are needful and deserving in circumstances; and to these for four years free education in the primary department of the schools or in other public schools, with books and stationery, may be given, and on clothing for such children the governing body are empowered to spend £50 yearly. They are instructed to institute not fewer than 100 free scholarships in the secondary department of the schools, not less than one-third of which they are bound to award to foundationers or to children qualified for the foundation. Not less than £400 yearly is to be spent in school bursaries of from £5 to £10, which are to be distributed on the same principle as the scholarships. Similarly £400 is devoted to the establish-
ment of university and technical college bursaries, in amounts of from £20 to £30, to be competed for among boys who have attended the Hutchesons' Grammar School at least two sessions. To the Girls' School £200 yearly is allotted for establishing bursaries, not less than £15 nor more than £30 for higher or professional education, and the governors are empowered to give an annual grant of £100 to any institution in Glasgow for the higher education of women.

Such are the principal provisions connected with the schools under the Trust. From the remainder of their income the Governors are instructed to pay to the Technical College not less than £800 yearly, to be increased as their funds may permit; and they are to contribute £100 per annum to the maintenance of the Glasgow School of Art. Surplus revenues the Governors are instructed to invest so soon as they reach £500, and these are to be applied towards improving the schools or to building new schools; and if they choose they may be contributed to the erection or extension of technical schools or the Technical College. With the sanction of the School Board, or failing that, of the Scotch Education Department, they may by themselves or jointly with other Trusts erect and maintain additional higher class schools in the City, and power is given to them to carry out all the purposes of the Trust jointly with the governing bodies of other Educational Trusts in the City.

For the year ending 31st December, 1894, the income of the Trust was £9912, made up of £5967 from the Hospital funds, £2986 from school fees, £900 from the parliamentary grant for Secondary Education in Scotland, and the balance represented interest on investments, etc. On the Boys' School, with 510 scholars, there was spent £4002, which included expense of foundationers and free scholarships, etc. Similarly for the Girls' School there was spent £3480. In addition on school bursaries for boys £225, and for girls £125 were expended; university bursaries to the extent of £300, and higher education bursaries for girls (£200) were bestowed; to the Technical College £800 was paid; and the Haldane Trust received a grant of £100 for the School of Art. These sums, with £548 for expenses of administration, nearly equalled the income of the year, and a payment of £843 towards the extension of the Girls' School put the balance for the year on the wrong side.

Throughout its whole career the charitable side of the Hospital work has been regarded as of the first importance, the number of aged pensioners has always far exceeded the number of enrolled boys, and the proportion of the revenues expended on education, before 1872 especially, was comparatively small. Of pensioners and beneficiaries there is now a small army numbering in 1895 1165 persons, 170 men and 995 women, among whom upwards of £9000 is divided annually. The selection of beneficiaries from the long list of applications, the personal investigation of the circum-
stances and antecedents of candidates, and the supervision of those on the roll are tasks which demand the expenditure of much care and labour. The primal qualification of a beneficiary demanded by the Mortification of Thomas Hutcheson was that the recipient should be a decrepit man, over fifty years of age, of "honest life and conversation, known to be destitute and a merchant, craftsman, or any other trade without distinction." The Act of 1872 gives a wide latitude of choice to the patrons, the definition of proper objects of the charity being "persons who, in the estimation of the patrons, may be considered needful and deserving of aid, and who shall have carried on business or trade in Glasgow for some time, and to some extent, on their own account, with credit and reputation, or who shall have been in any way the means of promoting the prosperity of the City, who by misfortune have been reduced in circumstances; and also in favour of the widows and daughters of persons of the above description, whose circumstances the patrons may consider call for such assistance; and, so far as respects Hood's Mortification, in favour of unmarried females of irreproachable character, who, if natives of Glasgow, have resided there for at least five years, or who, if not natives, have resided there at least ten years, and who shall be not less than fifty years of age, and shall have been reduced from easy or respectable circumstances to indigence; as also in the payment or contribution to the representatives of deceased pensioners, or to such other persons as the patrons may think proper, of an amount equal to one quarter of the annual pension of such pensioners respectively, for or on account of his or her funeral charges or expenses; Provided always, that none of the foresaid persons, at the time of applying for, or while in the enjoyment of a pension, shall be in the receipt of parochial aid; and reserving always all and whatever may be the existing rights and, ceteris paribus, preferences of persons enrolled as burgesses of Glasgow previously to the thirteenth day of January, one thousand eight hundred and seventy-one, and all other preferences conferred by the hereinbefore recited deeds respectively."

On the Hutcheson Foundation the name Hutcheson has still a preference; for the Baxter Mortification relatives of the founder, and next the names of Baxter, Barr, Wingate, Cunninghame, and Cameron are preferred; and on the Hood Foundation female relatives and those bearing the name of Hood get preference. Applicants for Hospital pensions are required to fill up a form giving required particulars, and the application must be attested by at least two persons of known respectability as to the previous blameless life and conversation of the applicants. These applications are submitted to a visiting committee for consideration and investigation. The work of visiting the applicants is allotted to five sub-committees, four for the four quarters of the City and one for non-resident candidates; and after investigation and comparison a report by the parent committee is submitted to the patrons recommending what are deemed the most worthy
cases. The enrolment of new pensioners is made yearly in the month of May.

In all, 1,165 persons in the year 1895 received pensions or allowances out of the Hospital revenues, the total amount expended being £9092. On the Hutcheson Foundation there were 139 male pensioners receiving allowances—seven at £20, the others at the rates of £16, £15, £12, £10, £8, and one man at £5, while to 15 men "precepts" or temporary aid was granted. Of women there were 882 pensioners with allowances ranging from ten at £20 down to one woman at £5, the greater proportion, 424 receiving £8, and 299 being paid at the rate of £10, and to 47 "precepts" were granted. On the Blair and Baxter Mortifications there were six men and six women, each of whom received £8 6s. 8d., or £100 Scots. On Scott's Mortification there were 10 men with allowances ranging from £25 (one) to £10 (six); and 10 women whose pensions ranged from £24 (one) to £8 (three), 3 getting £10, 2 £15, and 1 £20. Hood's Mortification revenue was divided among 50 women in sums from £5 to £16, 1 enjoying £16, 1 £14, 6 women being in receipt of £10, 20 having £8, 7 receiving £6, and 15 others were paid the minimum £5 each.

Since the feuing of the Gorbals lands began to make progress in the early part of the nineteenth century, the revenues of Hutchesons' Hospital have increased with steady and gratifying rapidity. In 1750 the income of the Hospital amounted to £388, and the capital stock was valued at £7129. In the year 1800 the revenue was equal to £1768, and the stock account showed assets £21,682. In 1820 the revenue amounted to £3663, and the stock was £26,694. In 1840 the income reached £6074, and the stock account had increased to £141,131. The year 1860 brought in a revenue of £9086, the stock then standing at £204,543. In 1880 the revenue rose to £18,802, and the capital assets were stated at £395,500. For the year 1895 the total revenue of the Hospital amounted to £18,258, and the total assets of the Incorporation were in that year £431,460, from which deducting the value of the minor mortifications, £21,500, the Whyte Bursary Fund, £732, and various debts, the balance of assets belonging to the Hospital proper amounted to £399,245. In the assets it must not be forgotten that the yet unfeued lands of the Hospital, amounting to a little more than 34 acres, are entered according to a valuation made in 1843 as being of the value of £16,931. How far this is under the present market value of the land may be judged by the fact that, in 1894, the patrons were paid for a piece of ground at Govanhill £11,944, which ground stood in the books of the Hospital at £1552, less than one-seventh of the price obtained. Probably the unfeued ground would, in the open market, at the present moment yield several times the amount at which it is entered in the assets of the Hospital.

The original conveyance of George Hutcheson was in favour of the Provost, Bailies, Dean of Guild, Deacon-Convener, and the ordinary ministers
of Glasgow; that is, six members of the Town Council and three ministers of the Gospel. The subsequent deeds of Thomas Hutcheson were in favour of the Provost, Bailies, and Council, and of the Town of Glasgow, without in either case any mention of ministers; in fact, from the draft of the Mortification, Thomas expressly deleted “the ordinar mynesteris of Glasgow.” When the Trust came into operation the patrons numbered 24, of whom 21 were of the Town Council and three ministers. The City ministers gradually increased till they numbered ten, all of whom became \textit{ex officio} patrons. So also has increased the Town Council, which now numbers 77, and thus the relative proportions of these bodies remain almost the same as in 1640. The Act of 1872 added 12 other patrons to the Incorporation, 3 each from the Merchants’ House and the Trades’ House, and 6 dissenting clergymen elected by the patrons themselves. The patrons therefore now number 99, a large body; but the increase is not out of proportion to the growth in the value and importance of the Trust they have to administer.

The revenues of Hutchesons’ Hospital have grown with the growth of the Town, and substantially it may be said that the ratio of the income available for charity to the population has been uniform throughout the two centuries and a half of Hospital experience. During that long period there has been not less than £750,000 divided from Hospital funds for education and for support of the aged poor, by far the larger share having gone to the latter object. There is no doubt that the charity has been productive of an incalculable aggregate of relief and comfort, and has given serenity to the declining days of thousands of helpless citizens throughout this long period. Pity it is we cannot add that it has reduced the poverty and misery in our midst.
CHAPTER XXXVII.

PUBLIC CHARITY.


The care of the poor we have always with us has never been an exclusive function of the Town Council. In pre-Reformation days their support generally was a recognized charge of the Church; the Merchant Guilds and Trades' Incorporations took care of their own poor brethren, and a large floating population existed by beggary, licensed or unlicensed. When the domination of the Roman Church ceased, its place, so far as regards the oversight of the poor, was taken by Kirk Sessions, and therefore it is that the parish throughout Scotland became the unit for the supervision and the support of the poor. A Kirk Session was first appointed in Glasgow in 1572; but in the unsettled state of affairs ecclesiastical, its constitution can only have been feeble, its hold was uncertain, and its power inadequate to deal with the poor of the City. In 1579 an Act of Scots Parliament was passed giving magistrates of burghs and others power to impose, for the relief of the poor, an assessment on the means and property of the population, or alternatively a rate on their rental, a measure rendered necessary by the failure of the ancient source of paupers' support.

From Council records we are warranted in concluding that begging was an officially recognized means of dealing with the problem of poverty; and that there were privileged beggars in Glasgow, wearing badges supplied by the magistrates, is clear from the fact that in 1575 the sum of 2s. 3d. Scots money was paid for "row lattoun" (sheet brass) "to be merks for the pure folk." After the great General Assembly of 1638 the Council enacted:
“The provest, bailyies, and counsall, understanding the guid and comendable ordour that was keipit within this brughe the tyme of last Generall Assemblie be reitining of the poor off the calsay and susteining of them in their awin houssis, to the great credit of the citie and contentment of all strangeris resorting heir for the tyme, and seing the samein is both godlie and honest, thairfor they have statut and ordanit that the poor be keipit and sustenit in thair houssis as they are now at this present, and the inhabitands of this brughe to be stentit to that effect; and this day aught dayes ilk counsallour to propone his best overtour what way it can best be accomplisched.”

Thereupon the Council, under powers of the Act of 1579, enacted on 12th January, 1639, “Efter guid advyse and consideration had be the saidis provest and bailyies anent the sustentatioun of the poor, wha is now detenit in thair awin houssis, they have statut and ordanit that thair be advancit to this effect the sowme of sex hundrethe pundis money, and for the bettif inbringing thairof they have ordanit that thair be ane fyft pairt eikit to ilk persounes stent, and the bailyies to collect the samein in with the stent moneyis.”

In 1653, after the occurrence of the great fire in Glasgow, the inhabitands were stented to the extent of £300 Scots monthly for the support of the poor; and for several years thereafter the heavy burden of this impost was felt. With such help the care of the poor, and the administration of the funds collected by both civil and ecclesiastical authorities, devolved on the General Session, a body which consisted of the ministers and elders of the several churches. By the middle of the seventeenth century that body had attained a position of great authority in the City, and it exercised its sway in no meek spirit.

Throughout the early part of the eighteenth century the funds for the support of the poor were chiefly derived from church-door collections, supplemented by the fees obtained for the proclamation of banns of marriage, and by gifts, donations, and legacies. The collections, fees, and receipts of the several parishes in Glasgow were paid into a common fund under charge of the General Session, to which a return of the poor in the several parishes was made, and each particular kirk session received out of the common fund a sum in proportion to the number of poor on their roll.

In 1733 the Town's Hospital of Glasgow for the support of the aged and helpless poor was opened, and maintained partly as a charge on the Common Good, partly from contributions from the Merchants' and Trades' Houses, and partly from the assistance of benevolent citizens. In the early years of its working the expenditure was found to so far exceed the revenue that the magistrates were obliged to impose an assessment of £250 yearly on the citizens for its maintenance. Notwithstanding the help and relief thus obtained to kirk session funds, the ministers and elders of the City were forced in 1774 to acknowledge that the burden of supporting the poor was more
PUBLIC CHARITY

than they could bear. Having certified their inability to the Town Council, the magistrates were obliged to fall back on the powers granted to burghs by the 1579 Act; they resolved to assess the inhabitants according to wealth and circumstances, and fifteen assessors were appointed to carry out the delicate duty of apportioning the shares to be paid by each substantial citizen. The proceeds of this grant in aid were paid to the representatives of the General Session, and so, partly by kirk collections, etc., and partly by assessments levied on personal means, the support of the chronic poor was provided for till the passing of the Poor Law Act in 1845.

But throughout its whole history there have been experienced by Glasgow periods of exceptional distress; economic storms which necessitated prompt and vigorous action to save a stratum of the population from starvation and death. Failure of employment, dearth, famine prices, severity of weather, and epidemics were among the causes which gave too frequent rise to these appalling calamities; and fortunately modern conditions of life have removed some of these causes of disaster, they have robbed others of their more terrible features, and generally the symptoms have become more amenable to treatment. Yet still, periods of severe distress occur with painful frequency in a community such as Glasgow, where there are hosts of reckless and improvident people ever on the brink of starvation. From whatever cause exceptional poverty may have arisen, the Town Council have always been looked to as the organization for concerted measures necessary for dealing with the emergency, and they have never in vain called on the citizens for the assistance necessary to combat these dread foes of a great population—famine and starvation.

To the Select Committee of the House of Commons on Distress in 1895 the Lord Provost submitted a statement of the experiences of Glasgow in dealing with periods of exceptional distress since 1848, the substance of which is as follows:

The distress in 1848 occurred through a depression in the weaving trade; and at that time 5237 individuals, with families numbering 5264, were relieved. In 1857, by the failure of the Western Bank of Scotland, a terrible monetary and commercial crisis existed in Glasgow. Relief works were opened, funds collected, and 10,051 heads of families were assisted. Probably not less than forty or fifty thousand persons altogether participated in the benefits of the fund then collected. In 1862, owing to the suspension of the supply of cotton from the United States through the Civil War then raging in that country the spinning mills and weaving factories in the City were nearly all closed, and great distress in consequence existed. A large sum of money, over £36,000, in addition to clothing, blankets, coals, etc., was in two years collected and distributed for the alleviation of this distress. A financial statement shows that there was received £36,320 os. 8d.; expended on relief in the City, £26,232 17s. 11d.; on outlying districts,
£1295; and in assisting emigration to Canada and to Queensland, £2117 os. 10d. Assistance was given in all to 18,797 persons, and work was found for 1000 girls in a hall in the east end, and for 300 in a hall in one of the central districts of the City. The balance, after paying working expenses, was carried forward for general relief, and £776 was ultimately handed over to the Corporation Relief Fund in 1884.

"The relief operations above referred to were all carried out by a committee of citizens and members of the Town Council combined; but in 1878 the Corporation took charge of the disbursing of moneys collected, and in opening of relief works, and have continued to do so since that date.

"Great distress and commercial depression prevailed after the failure of the City of Glasgow Bank in 1878; and relief works were carried on by the Corporation from 25th November, 1878, till 29th March, 1879, and again from 17th September, 1879, till 31st January, 1880. Relief works were opened during the winters 1884-85, and 1885-86, and 1886-87. These were all occasioned by general commercial depression. The commercial activity which succeeded these periods obviated the necessity of providing special employment until 1892-93, when again relief works were opened on 8th December, closing on 4th March. The following statements [inserted on page 400], refer to operations prior to the year 1895, which is hereafter more fully dealt with, but for comparison the statistics of that year are added."

The total number of men to whom relief employment was given from 6th December, 1892, till 4th March, 1893, was 2801, representing 110 different trades and occupations. Up till the 25th of February, 1893, 35,301 breakfasts and 34,131 dinners were supplied. Work began on 8th December with 87 men, next day the number leapt up to 358, two days later it reached 838, and on the 17th December the maximum number of 870 was reached. Thence it declined till on 26th December the number was 460, and then the New Year holidays obviously influenced the turn out of the men. From 6th January till 11th February the men working ranged from about 520 to 620; and thereafter they rapidly melted away till, during the eight days before closing the works on 4th March, the employed numbered fewer than 100 daily.

"Undue distress" continues the narrative, "had to be dealt with after New Year of 1895, occasioned in Glasgow solely by the extraordinary severity of the weather, and no relief works would have been opened or required had the season been normal. We did not open the relief works until 4th February, and we were enabled to close them on 16th March. The following statement shows the amount of money expended during this period:
Wages, .......................... £2184 14 4
Whin Metal, .......................... 1468 13 3
Erection of Shelters, etc., .................. 276 5 4
Barrows, Hammers, Hammer Shafts, Planking, etc., .......... 339 8 6
Rations (consisting of Breakfast and Dinner), .............. 523 9 11
Cartages, etc., .......................... 51 3 1
Utensils, .......................... 11 1 2

Value of Whin Metal when broken, .................. £4854 15 7

Leaving a deficiency of .......................... £2960 0 8

"At the close of 1894 I was waited on by a few men, representing that they were out of employment, and that they represented a condition largely existing in the City. I asked them to address me formally by letter, and I promised that I would have inquiry made. They did not do so, and I afterwards ascertained that several of the deputation had got work, while others had only been a week or so out of employment. On 10th January we were approached by a few men, representing that they were unable to find employment, and the magistrates caused inquiry to be made through the Chief Constable and his Lieutenants, the Charity Organization Society, the Parochial Boards, the Association for Improving the Condition of the People, the Superintendents of the Model Lodging-houses, the Secretaries of various organized trades, and the large employers of labour in the City. The information received prior to 28th January did not disclose any unusual distress, or exceptional difficulty in obtaining employment. At this date the frost had lasted for a month almost without a break, and outdoor labour was being greatly curtailed. The magistrates thereon resolved to open stone-breaking works, and a committee was appointed to carry out the details. It was decided that applications from men with families whose combined earnings amounted to 15s. per week ought not to be entertained, and at this stage work was given only to those who had resided in Glasgow for the three immediately preceding months. The rate of pay was similar to that adopted on former occasions, viz., 1s. per day, and 1s. extra on Saturday to those who had worked the whole week; and, in addition, the workers got a breakfast of tea and bread and butter, and a dinner of soup and bread. Each applicant had to furnish information, which was duly scheduled, giving his age, domestic circumstances, length of residence in the City, former employment, wages, and other matters. The schedules were handed to the Charity Organization Society for investigation, who reported on them to the committee appointed by the magistrates. On 4th February two stone-breaking yards were opened, on 16th February a third, and on 22nd February a fourth."
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<th>TABLE SHOWING GLASGOW RELIEF FUNDS, 1878-1895.</th>
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<td>Cause of Distress, - - -</td>
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<td>Public Subscriptions received, - - -</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Amount spent on Relief and Wages, - - -</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>*Value of Work done, - - -</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Applications for Work, - - -</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Orders for Work given to - - -</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Orders for Work refused to - - -</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Highest number working on one day, - - -</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average number working during whole period, - - -</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Different occupations of men employed, - - -</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* The value of Digger Work and Scavenging is assumed at actual cost; the value of Stonebreaking is estimated by measurement at current rates.
† Including Donations of £500 to Govan and Partick Relief Funds.
‡ Including Donations of £6,145. 11d. to Govan and Kinning Park Relief Funds.
The following table shows the number of men employed on each of the 36 working days during which these yards were open:

**NUMBER OF MEN WORKING IN STONE-BREAKING YARDS, FROM 4TH FEBRUARY TILL 16TH MARCH, 1895.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>February—Monday, 4,</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>86</td>
<td>February—Monday, 25,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tuesday, 5,</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>210</td>
<td>Tuesday, 26,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wednesday, 6,</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>267</td>
<td>Wednesday, 27,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thursday, 7,</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>314</td>
<td>Thursday, 28,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Friday, 8,</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>380</td>
<td>March—Friday, 1,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Saturday, 9,</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>560</td>
<td>*Saturday, 2,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sunday, 10,</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>673</td>
<td>†Monday, 4,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tuesday, 12,</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>895</td>
<td>Tuesday, 5,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wednesday, 13,</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>950</td>
<td>Wednesday, 6,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thursday, 14,</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>1180</td>
<td>Thursday, 7,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Friday, 15,</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>1270</td>
<td>Friday, 8,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Saturday, 16,</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>1790</td>
<td>Saturday, 9,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sunday, 17,</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>1910</td>
<td>Monday, 10,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tuesday, 19,</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>2040</td>
<td>Tuesday, 12,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wednesday, 20,</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>2100</td>
<td>Wednesday, 13,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thursday, 21,</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>2235</td>
<td>Thursday, 14,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Friday, 22,</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>2385</td>
<td>Friday, 15,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Saturday, 23,</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>2543</td>
<td>Saturday, 16,</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Total number of Breakfasts up till 16th March, 1895, - - - 38,264

"Dinners" " " " - - - 36,308

**Total Rations, - - - 74,572**

*Last day of daily wage. †First day of piece work.

Owing to the unprecedented severity of the weather, the rush of applicants was such that it was found impossible to get the investigation properly undertaken; and ultimately all who applied were allowed to begin work, the circumstances of each worker only being noted. The total number who from first to last sought employment and who had their cases investigated was 3643, following 231 different occupations.

The average age of the applicants was about forty; and they consisted of 1213 single men, without dependents; 477 married men, with no children under sixteen years of age; 106 widowers, with families; 149 single men, supporting relatives; and 1698 married men, with families under sixteen years of age.

The working hours were from 8 a.m. till 5 p.m. on five days of the week, and from 8 till 1 on Saturdays. When the weather became a little milder, the men who were not eligible under three months' residence,
and from other causes, were discharged; and in many cases they were supplied with boots, stockings, shirts, and trousers on leaving. In all cases men with dependents received orders on the soup kitchens for daily rations of soup and bread according to the number of their families, and in the most needy cases supplies of provisions, fuel, and clothing were also given. By 4th March, when the weather became more genial, numbers of the men were finding employment at their usual occupations, and the committee introduced to the various yards payment by piece-work—the rates paid being the ordinary rates paid for stone-breaking and stone-wheeling—and no man was allowed to earn more than 7s. per week. The rates paid were 1s. 10d. per cubic yard for stone-breaking, and 2d. per cubic yard for stone-wheeling; 9d. per day was paid in advance, and the balance on the Saturday, or on the day of leaving. From the experience of former relief works, we were satisfied that 7s. could easily be earned by most of the men in three or four days. Intimation of piece-work greatly reduced the number of men in the yards. On the last day that the daily wage was paid without piece-work 1465 were at work, but on the morning when piece-work was introduced only 621 put in an appearance. A number of those employed were dissatisfied with the new arrangement, and they induced all the willing workers at the two yards then remaining open to strike work. An indignation meeting was held in George Square opposite the Municipal Buildings, and a deputation of eight of their number was sent to interview the committee in charge of the relief stations. After the interview all the men returned to their work, but the numbers diminished so rapidly that on 16th March there were only thirty-two men left. The works were then closed, the men remaining being provided with suitable clothing to enable them more easily to get employment.

"Were I again on a relief committee I should strongly urge that after the first week all the men engaged should be put on piece-work, even if the ordinary trade rate paid to stone-breakers was exceeded, and the men's earnings limited to whatever sum might be fixed as the maximum by the committee. This would compel a certain amount of diligence, and would give the willing workers an opportunity as soon as they had earned the maximum to find employment at their normal occupations.

"The preceding information applies entirely to work carried out by the Corporation, and at the expense of the Corporation; but, in addition to the relief thus given, a Citizens' Fund was subscribed, and I now give particulars of the way in which it was administered.

"On 11th February, after several days of intense cold—the temperature ranging from 4 to 7 degrees below zero—the magistrates met, and associated with themselves representatives of the Charity Organization Society, the Inspectors of the City, Barony, and Govan Parochial Boards, and a gentleman who has laboured long in religious and benevolent work amongst the
poor, and whose experience was felt to be of great value. At my suggestion the police were asked to give their assistance, as it was perfectly evident that no other organization existed which could overtake the distress caused by the sudden severity of the weather. Captain Boyd and his officers and men took up their new duties with the greatest enthusiasm, and discharged their mission of mercy in a way which evoked the blessings of those who were in distress, and won for them the approval and gratitude of the whole community.

“Soup kitchens were at once opened at the Eastern, Southern, Western, Polmadie, and Maryhill Police Stations, the Charity Organization Society’s Shelter at 60 Kyle Street, the Barnhill Poorhouse, the Night Asylum, the Gospel Hall, Saltmarket, and Possil Park—in all, ten soup kitchens. The well-heated muster halls and cells of the police offices were thrown open as shelters for the houseless, and arrangements were made for affording medical relief gratuitously to all necessitous cases. On 12th February I addressed a letter to the newspapers asking the citizens for pecuniary aid to enable us to overtake the clamant distress then existing. By the following day fully £2000 had been sent in, and within a week I had to close the fund, having then received £9586 1 s. 1d.; and it was evident that a much larger sum could have been got. The following table gives particulars of receipt and expenditure of moneys received; and it shows the sum of over £5000 still unexpended:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Charge.</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Subscriptions,</td>
<td>£9586 1 ½</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Discharge.</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Soup Kitchen—</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Materials for Soup and Bread,</td>
<td>£968 3 11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wages,</td>
<td>77 15 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cooking Apparatus, Boilers,</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Utensils, etc.,</td>
<td>34 17 11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sundries,</td>
<td>2 11 2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>£1083 8 5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Food and Clothing Distributed—</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Provisions, Coal, and Rents,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Boots and Clothing, etc., for</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adults,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Medical Attendance and Medicines,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clothing, etc., of Children,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Extra Clerks and Investigators,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stamps for Cheques,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Relief granted by the hands of the Lord Provost and Members of Committee, - £33 0 0

Miscellaneous Expenses—

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Amount</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Wages of Staff in Relief Office</td>
<td>£64 14 2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fitting up and Furnishing Office</td>
<td>18 8 9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Printing and Stationery</td>
<td>25 1 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cartages of supplies of Coal gifted</td>
<td>98 8 0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Medical Attendance</td>
<td>0 10 0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sundries</td>
<td>28 5 11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>£235 7 11</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Expenses incurred by City Chamberlain—

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Amount</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Advertising Subscription Lists (of which £95 10s. refunded as Subscriptions)</td>
<td>- £162 4 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Postages, Printing, Stationery, Clerical Assistance, etc.</td>
<td>66 17 0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>£229 1 5</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Leaving a Surplus of - - - - £5054 3 5

"In addition to money, we received contributions of coals, clothing, and groceries of all kinds, to the value of £1361 17s., which were distributed by the committee. The work of relieving all necessitous cases, except those dependent on the men employed at stone-breaking, was assigned to the police. Every one in need of coals or food was invited to apply either to the police or to the superintendents at the various offices; particulars were taken down, inquiries were at once made by the policeman on the beat at the address given, and every necessitous case relieved without delay. To prevent imposture, the officers of the Parochial Boards and of the Charity Organization Society regularly visited the police offices and soup kitchens. As long as the kitchens remained open, soup and bread were given to all who applied. Applicants had simply to state that they were in need of food; and we estimate that over 330,000 meals were so given. 4160 men and 679 women and children availed themselves of the shelter of the police offices during the 29 nights the muster halls were kept open. Over 1000 tons of coal, about one-half of which consisted of donations, were delivered to 13,151 householders. Groceries to the value of £1834 4s., in addition to the quantities sent in to the committee in the form of contributions, were supplied to 22,669 applicants. This form of relief was distributed by ticket, which
enabled the holder to get provisions equal to its face value from any grocer in the City. Of these tickets there were issued:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number of Tickets</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>12,428</td>
<td></td>
<td>1s. od.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>351</td>
<td></td>
<td>1s. 6d.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7,038</td>
<td></td>
<td>2s. od.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td></td>
<td>2s. 6d.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1,732</td>
<td></td>
<td>3s. od.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1,105</td>
<td></td>
<td>4s. od.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>22,669</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Almost no relief was given by the committee in the form of cash; but where careful investigation showed that persons who earned their living by hawking fish, crockery or smallwares, had parted with their means before asking assistance, arrangements were made to enable them to begin business again, in a small way, with a new stock-in-trade. In a good number of cases rents were paid to save the necessitous and deserving tenants from ejection; and, in others, arrangements were made with the police authorities to afford some delay in the payment of rates. Through the great kindness of the Charity Organization Society and the Glasgow Needlework Guild, provision was made for the distribution of large quantities of both new and cast-off garments to those insufficiently clad, more especially amongst children.

"While giving these particulars of the assistance afforded through the means of the Citizens' Fund, it must be kept in mind that very many other channels of relief were open to those in want. At this time of distress, congregations and philanthropic societies greatly enlarged their ordinary helpful work. New organizations were called into existence, and rations of bread and soup, equivalent to very many thousands of meals, must have been provided through these other agencies.

"No undue distress existed in Glasgow up till the beginning of the year, and its acuteness was occasioned solely by the extreme severity of the weather. At present we have no rating powers enabling us to open any relief works; and what we have done has been paid, as far as the value of the work was concerned, by a rating body, say Parks or Roads Trustees, and the balance, viz., the difference between what we paid and what we could have got the work done for by contract, fell to be defrayed either by private contributions or from the Common Good. It has never happened in Glasgow that when exceptional distress occurred means have not been found to relieve it. Any national system of relief which could be devised, while not altering the character of the well-doing, would certainly deteriorate weak natures, make the indolent more idle, the careless more indifferent, and the bad-tempered almost unmanageable. The question ought to be left to municipalities and local authorities, to be dealt with by them in times of exceptional distress, and exceptional distress only. Each locality
has its special trade or trades, and each would require special forms of relief, which could be adequately judged of only by persons living in the locality, and cognizant of all details. Imperial assistance or control would, in my opinion, weaken municipal responsibility, which is a responsibility more of a social than an official character, to be called into operation only to avert a calamity.

"The problem is totally different in large cities from what it is in small towns or villages where everyone is or can be known. Into a large city many men and women flock to hide their sins or their sorrows; some even come to hide their poverty in a way they cannot do in a country town; and for these cases it is impossible to provide any general scheme of relief. In a city like Glasgow there will always be a normal percentage of unemployed in all trades. This in the aggregate may be considerable; but spread over 200 or 300 different occupations it does not fall heavily on any individual trade. It is one of the ordinary conditions of a large city which we cannot touch.

"In my opinion the solution of this unemployed question is to make it perfectly clear that no government and no local authority have incumbent on them, in the slightest degree, a responsibility either to procure or to provide employment, or to maintain persons while out of employment. The solution of the question rests with the people themselves, and not with any authority. It must be found in prudence, thrift, industry, and sobriety, and the avoidance of early and improvident marriages. This last I see constantly is a very fruitful source of misery. Until these duties are recognized by those who are often out of work in winter time, and provision made by themselves against the days of idleness, we shall have this question annually before us in a more or less acute form.

"Those who have had the most intimate acquaintance with this question are aware that respectable men, by the varying conditions of trade, are frequently thrown out of employment; yet these are not the men who, at the beginning of almost every winter, call for relief and assistance. There is a certain proportion of workers who, from infirmity of person or of temper, are always first to be dismissed. Their infirmities do not amount to disability to work, yet they cause these men to be more often out of employment than the normal condition of their trade warrants, and, having no savings to fall back on, they at once come into evidence when trade becomes dull. We have also the working man who has got beyond his best working days; others who have never learned to work steadily, and who are nomadic and constantly shifting; and we have still another class, who are constantly being thrown out of employment through being a day off drunk, and finding their positions filled up when they return.

"It has been advanced by some, that local authorities in times of undue distress ought to carry out public works. These suggestions can be advanced
only by those who are not cognizant of the working of municipal institutions. We are constantly carrying out all the work which we think is necessary for the Corporation, and that as speedily as possible, without increasing our rates; but no work, beyond stone-breaking or digging, which the Corporation can originate or carry out, would be of the slightest use to relieve undue distress such as we had last winter. Take the building of a bridge for example. We, first of all, require to get an Act of Parliament; and the same preliminary applies to any large work or expenditure of money which the Corporation can undertake; and this would require nearly a year. In the case of a bridge, the granite would likely come from Aberdeen or Cornwall, where there might be no undue distress; the iron or steel work from a district probably well employed; and, when we had the materials here, we would find the building work possibly interrupted by frost at the very time when we wished to utilize them, for the purposes of giving employment. It is the same with other work; and similar objections can be advanced against any work in which a local authority can engage.

"Our experience here shows, that stone-breaking or digging best solves the problem, and stone-breaking for preference, as we get a better return for the money expended; yet you will see, that while we spend £4,854 15s. 7d., the value of the stones broken amounted only to £1,894 14s. 11d. During the winter of 1892-93 digger work gave a worse return. In my opinion, relief ought to be given only after a labour test, and payment ought to be partly in money and partly in food. I would strongly deprecate any alteration from the present position so far as Glasgow is concerned. We shall always be able, with the assistance of private benevolence and the means at our corporate disposal, to deal with periods of undue distress; but as smaller cities and local authorities may not be in this position, it seems to me the remedy is to enable local authorities to impose a small rate for the establishment of temporary relief works to overtake any season of exceptional distress; but clearly for no other purpose, the rate being well defined, and, while collected along with the usual burgh rates, shown separately, so that the ratepayers may see what the rate is, and be able emphatically to express their opinion and wishes in regard to its imposition and expenditure.

"With the assistance of the official staff, police, and others, there would be no difficulty in getting at the character of each applicant for work were it so desired; but this difficulty at once arises: Is work to be given to the honest, sober, and well-conducted workman who is out of employment through no fault of his own, on the same terms as to the improvident, drunken, or careless, who may be out of work very distinctly through his own fault, and who, perhaps, works simply to earn a shilling or two to spend in drink? My feeling is, that no relief works ought to be opened until it is clearly demonstrated that they have become so necessary, that we must
take all who apply and who have not family earnings of, say, 15s. a week, subject, of course, to the provision of three months' residence immediately prior to the application, and at least a month's lack of employment. Where such works are opened the distress will likely be acute, and, alongside of them, some system of relief from private sources of benevolence will have to be carried out."
CHAPTER XXXVIII.

RELIGION.

The gradation of municipal duties: Unsatisfactory relations of Council to City Churches:
   Origin of the connection: Limits of City Parish: Division into parishes *quaer sacra*:
   Early stipends: Their gradual increase and present amount: Cost of City Churches:
   Revenues derived from them: Negotiations between Presbytery and Council: Act of
   1879: Committees of 1889: Failure of negotiations: Present position: Council representa-
   tive to General Assembly.

In this narrative of the activities of the municipal rulers of Glasgow an attempt has been made to marshall the details so that we rise from the elementary but fundamental duties of the Council, up to dealings which concern the enjoyment, the culture, and the higher life of the people. The primal duty of the Town Council is watching and warding: care for the security of the life and property of the citizens, a duty discharged through the magistrate, the policeman, and the gaoler. At this first and lowest end of municipal activities we have to take account of the malicious and meaner instincts of our fellows, and through a long range of functions we gradually rise, dealing with health, recreation, education, science, and art, till, in the end we come to the highest of all the relations of humanity, and have to do with man as a spiritual being and in his relations to the things of eternity.

And yet we must confess we would fain leave this chapter unwritten; for were the care and the zeal of the Town Council for that which relates to the religious life of the people to be measured by their official attitude towards, and dealings with, the churches under their charge, it would be necessary to admit that they are but lukewarm and unprofitable servants. In every aspect the present-day relations of the Town Council to the Church of Scotland are unsatisfactory and illogical. The position is full of contradic-

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countless pitfalls and snares beset the path of any one who would follow
the current of the historical connection of the Town Council with the kirks
of Glasgow. It is difficult even to define the relationship of the two bodies
without stating them in a manner which may be disputed, and probably
the safest statement of the case is simply to say that the community are
responsible for the maintenance of a certain number of churches and ministers
within the City Parish of Glasgow. How that responsibility arose, and how
the Council in recent years have sought to end it are the only points that
can be here dealt with.

When the ecclesiastical strife of the Scottish Reformation came to an
end the City of Glasgow was constituted a single parish served by one
minister, and the patronage of that church—the Cathedral—was in the hands
of the Magistrates and Council. It does not appear that any specific addition
to municipal revenues came with the patronage; and so far as can be
discovered all payments of stipend, etc., from the first were made out of
the Common Good of the City. In 1587 a second minister was appointed,
and again in 1592, owing to the continued increase of population, a third
appointment was made, on which occasion the old Collegiate Church of
St. Mary and St. Anne, Trongate, was repaired and fitted up as a place
of worship. Three years later a fourth minister was nominated; but about
this time the landward portion of the parish was, with the approval of the
Presbytery, separated from the City, and under the name of the Barony
it was formed into a distinct parish. To that parish the fourth minister
was appointed, and the Crypt of the Cathedral, then and later known as
the Laigh Kirk, was and continued to be the Barony Church till the beginning
of the nineteenth century. The Barony Church thus became a charge
on the landward heritors, and the City Parish thenceforward was conterminous
with the bounds of the royalty. Such are the bounds of the civil parish
to this day, and it is within these bounds that the responsibilities of the
Town Council in church matters begin and end. In 1599 the three ministers
applied to the Council to have the City divided into two parishes, and
thereupon on the 21st July it was resolved: “Anent the suite gevin in be
the ministeris desyring divisoun of the towne in tua peirochines, as vtheris
townes hes done of befoir, that the ministeris maye aknowlege thair awin
flok, efter lang reasouning be the provest, bailleis, and counsale and deikines
befor writtin, the provest, bailleis, and maist part of the counsale, by the
deikines, be thair woottes thocht guid that the towneship be devyditt in
tua parochines, provyding that the towne be nocht burdenit for beitting
and bigging of kirkis nor furnishing of ma ministeris nor thai have alreddy;
and as to the deikines all in ane voce takis thame to aduertement with
the brethren of thair craftis, and that thai behuiffit to consult with thair
brethren, and thairfor to reponde thair ansuer this daye vij dayes.” The
crafts having assented to the division under these conditions, the City was
divided into two parishes quoad sacra—the High Church and the New or Tron Church. Further church accommodation being required, in 1622 the ruinous old Blackfriars Church in the High Street was repaired and fitted up, and a minister appointed to the charge ultimately known as the College or Blackfriars Church. The next extension occurred in 1648, when the Outer High Kirk was formed, and Patrick Gillespie called to be its first minister. A middle wall was built up within the Cathedral, separating the Choir, which now was called the Inner High Kirk, from the outer half which was given over to the new congregation. In that year the City was divided into four parishes, quoad sacra, with five ministers.

In 1687 the Wynd Church was erected, the modern successor of which is St. George's Church, Buchanan Street, to which building the congregation was translated in 1807. The North-West Church, formed in 1720, is now officially known as St. David's, and popularly as the Ramshorn Church. St. Andrew's Church, which was seventeen years in building, was finished in 1756, but it was not till 1763 that a minister was appointed to it. St. Enoch's Church was founded in 1780, and in 1782 a minister was appointed to that charge. The eighteenth century thus ended with eight City ministers and parishes; but in 1815 a decision of the Court of Teinds ordained that the stipend of the minister of the Inner High Church should henceforth be paid out of the teinds, and so the Common Good was relieved of that stipend. The church and parish of St. John were formed in 1819; to the first charge Dr. Thomas Chalmers was appointed, and within its limits he began his famous experiment in supporting the poor within the parochial bounds entirely by the voluntary efforts of the people. And lastly St. James' Church was built, and the parish carved out in 1820; and therewith the church-planting energies of the Town Council of Glasgow were exhausted. The City churches, with the Barony and Inner High Kirk, now numbered eleven; but these two are under the patronage of the Crown, leaving nine under the patronage of the Town Council, and a charge on the Common Good of the City.

The stipends of the early incumbents of the churches were, even for the times, very limited. When, in 1588, a second minister was appointed in the City, the stipend of the first charge was 500 merks (£27 15s. 6d. Stg.), and that of the second charge was £200 Scots (£16 13s. 4d.). In 1638 the uniform stipend was 1000 merks; in 1723 the stipends were double that sum (£1 111 2s. 2d. Stg.), and they were increased to 2500 merks (£138 17s. 9d.) in 1762. In 1788 the stipends were increased to £165, in 1796 to £200, in 1801 they were raised to £250, in 1808 to £300, in 1814 to £400, and in 1830 they were fixed at £425, at which amount they now stand. In the case of Blackfriars (College) Church the augmentation of £25 was granted only for the lifetime of the incumbent, Dr. Lockhart, and since his death till the year 1896 the stipend paid to the minister was £400. In 1830 the Corporation had a restricted interest only in Blackfriars Church,
the greater proportion of the sittings being then owned by the College and by private owners; but in 1841 the whole of the seats were acquired on behalf of the Corporation at a cost of £2143. The stipend of Blackfriars Church has now been put on a level with that paid to the ministers of the other City charges.

The annual charge on the Common Good for the stipends of nine City ministers now amounts to £3825, and there is further paid in name of communion elements, salaries of precentors, bell-ringers, and beadles, etc., upwards of £400; and for insurance, cleaning, repairs, and miscellaneous expenses, from £300 to £400; so that, excluding extraordinary expenditure, the annual cost of the ecclesiastical establishment may be stated at about £4500. The published accounts of the Corporation do not show any specific grants of land, teinds, or other endowments to set against this expenditure. The only source of revenue is from the rent of sittings in the churches, which, adding a proportion of the pew rents from the Inner High Church (Cathedral) paid to the City, amount to about £1700 yearly. Including the Cathedral, which has 914 sittings, there are provided in the City Churches seats for 10,144 persons, of which about one-half are let; but it is fair to say the St. Enoch's Church, the most capacious in the City, with 1142 sittings, has for some years been unoccupied owing to the operations of the District Subway, which have to some extent affected the structure.

To tell how the fervour and church planting zeal of the magistrates of the seventeenth century faded away till in the nineteenth century the connection became irksome and mutually irritating, would necessitate a précis of the ecclesiastical history of Scotland for two centuries. That the relationship has become unsatisfactory equally to Church and Council will be freely conceded; and repeated efforts have been made to mend or to end it; but these have failed through the usual fault giving too little and asking too much. In session 1878-79 a Bill was promoted in Parliament which provided for the removal of the Tron Church to the New City Road, and for the rearrangement of parish boundaries consequent on that change. It further provided that, with the consent of the Presbytery and Kirk Sessions, the Corporation should have power to take down and remove any of the existing Parish Churches within the City Parish, and out of the proceeds of the sale of materials and site erect "other Parish Churches, in lieu of those so removed, on such sites as may be thought most expedient for the public interests." With clauses so framed the Bill passed the House of Commons; but while it was depending before the Lords, an influential committee of citizens raised serious objections to the Bill as it stood. By them the measure was regarded as objectionable because the effect would be to transfer a church and an endowment from one parish to another, a course of procedure believed to be without precedent and without warrant. "If," say the Committee, "the existing quoad sacra parishes, through
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change of circumstances, no longer need the services of the existing ministers, the proper cause is to adopt competent legal means for the suppression of the charge, and not to transfer the endowment from one parish to another. The original obligations of the City having been undertaken with reference to the spiritual necessities of the present parishes, after these necessities have ceased to require the provision then made for them, it is practically extension of the City's liability to transfer that provision to other parishes or new districts."

The objection to extending parochial obligations beyond parochial limits was even more strongly urged in a subsequent memorial from the same committee; and these representations imposed on the Corporation the duty of making it clear that there would be no exceeding the bounds of parochial administration. Accordingly, in committee of the House of Lords, words were inserted limiting any transference of the Tron or other Church to a site within the City Parish. So amended the Bill became law on 3rd July, 1879.

No action was taken under the provisions of that Act; but again, in April, 1889, the Council approved of the appointment of a special committee "to confer with the Presbytery of Glasgow with the view of considering whether means can be devised for the purpose of rendering the City Churches more largely useful and beneficial to the community." Although the resolution of the Council was in these terms, it was evident from the first that the object of the committee was to end the connection of the Church and the municipality rather than to seek the increase of ordinances, of evangelical fervour, and of ministerial efficiency. A scheme was formulated by the Committee under which it was proposed to hand over the City Churches to a body of ecclesiastical commissioners who were to be authorized to suppress two of the existing parishes, and to sell the buildings and sites of the churches. The Corporation, it was suggested, should pay to the ecclesiastical commissioners £35,000 in full discharge of all their obligations, and by a tabular statement it was shown that the yield of seat rents, the sum realized from the sale of the two churches, and the interest on the capital sum of £35,000 would be sufficient to pay the stipends of seven ministers, provide annuities of £400 for the two ministers of the suppressed parishes, and meet the other expenses connected with the seven churches on the scale of current expenditure. In reply to the Committee's proposal and financial scheme the Presbytery Committee produced a statement which showed that the offer of the Corporation would end in an annual loss of £810 to the Churches, and they submitted alternative proposals under which the Corporation should contribute £81,700 to the Endowment Committee of the Church of Scotland, and that the Tron and St. Enoch Churches should be handed over to the Town Council. It is needless to pursue the financial question further, for it is not on that rock
that the conferring committees split. In a further and fuller statement the Town Council Committee laid down as fundamental principles of their negotiations:

"(1) That whatsoever provision may be made by the Corporation for the clergy and the maintenance of religious ordinances in Glasgow shall be limited exclusively to the area of the existing City parishes.

"(2) That the property of the churches of these City parishes, and whatever money payment may be made by the Corporation as an endowment fund for the maintenance of religious ordinances in these parishes, shall be vested in a body of ecclesiastical commissioners, members of the Church of Scotland, and connected with Glasgow."

To the first of these principles the Presbytery Committee emphatically declined assent. They failed to see why the maintenance of religious ordinances by the Corporation should be limited to citizens who happen to reside in the City Parish; and they were of opinion that all citizens have equal claim to any advantages, religious or otherwise, conferred by the Corporation. As to the second principle, the appointment of ecclesiastical commissioners, it was shown that the Corporation objected to ecclesiastical property in Glasgow being absorbed in the general funds of the Church of Scotland "because contingencies might arise under which the citizens of Glasgow, as represented by a local body of ecclesiastical commissioners, should surely have the same say as Parliament may, in its wisdom, think proper to give to Edinburgh and other towns with reference to the ecclesiastical property in them." In this delicate and periphrastic way the question of disestablishment was brought by the Town Council under the notice of the Presbytery Committee. Naturally the latter body did not relish this veiled allusion. They pointed out that the Corporation proposals practically amounted to a local measure of disestablishment; and they objected to the prospect of being twice subjected to that process. A dead-lock having arisen over both fundamental conditions laid down by the Council, it was mutually recognized that no useful end could be gained by prolonging the negotiations.

The relative positions of the Corporation and the Presbytery are so far apart that there is not the slightest prospect of any radical modification of the connection being effected by mutual consent. The Magistrates and Council resolutely maintain that their responsibility begins and ends with the City Parish; the Presbytery say: "It can hardly be seriously maintained that it is the duty of the magistrates to provide kirks and ministers for the citizens who live on one side of a street, but that it is not their duty to provide kirks for the citizens who live on the other side of the street."
It is perhaps a fortunate circumstance that the Presbytery refrain from pressing this large view of magisterial duty to a practical issue. In the words of the presbyterial report, it would indeed be found that “the arrangement which the Town Council and the Presbytery entered into in the year 1599 in the interests of the citizens has but a slender bearing on the question” at issue in the later years of the nineteenth century.

The only remaining bond between the Town Council and the Church of Scotland which may be mentioned consists in the annual appointment of a representative elder as a member of the General Assembly. The nomination generally gives rise to some cavil and objection; but in Glasgow the appointment has hitherto been made with the consent of the majority of the Council. The form in which the procedure on the occasion is recorded in the minutes reads instructively: “The Corporation being convened in Council betwixt the hours of ten o’clock a.m. and nine o’clock p.m., notice having been duly given on the . . . day of March last, hereby nominate and appoint Councillor . . . , ruling elder, their Commissioner to the next General Assembly of the Church of Scotland, indited to meet at Edinburgh the . . . day of May next to come, or when and where it shall happen to sit, willing him to repair thereto, and to attend all the diets of the same, and there to consult, vote, and determine in all matters that come before them, to the glory of God and the good of His Church, according to the Word of God, the Confession of Faith, and agreeably to the constitution of the said Church, as he will be answerable, and that he report his diligence therein at his return therefrom; and it is hereby testified and declared that the said . . . is an elder of the said Church, lawfully ordained, and likewise that he is an heritor within the said burgh, according to the Acts of Assembly, all which the Corporation have attested on proper information.” And so the ancient alliance of the ecclesiastical authority with the civil magistrate remains continuous and unbroken, but with the progress of time what a reversal of power has been witnessed in the ancient City of Glasgow.
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