A.L EVERYCHILD SERIES No. 26

GEOGRAPHY AT THE DRAPER'S

FLORENCE E. WEST

HIGH SCHOOL

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GEOGRAPHY AT THE DRAPER'S

By FLORENCE E. WEST, L.L.A

E. J. ARNOLD & SON LTD
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CONTENTS

PAGE

1. Our Woollens 3
   Australia and Yorkshire.

2. Cotton from Plantation to Mill 8

3. The Story of Silk 13
   Japan, China and Cheshire.

4. Pins and Needles 18
   Birmingham and Redditch.

5. Linen 23
   Northern Ireland.

6. Canvas and Other Jute Goods 28
   India and East of Scotland.

7. Our Hats 32
   Many Lands.

GEOGRAPHY AT THE DRAPER'S

No. 1 —OUR WOOLLENS

Australia and Yorkshire

WE will begin with woollen goods. The draper has woollen cloths, blankets, woollen garments, and wool in skeins to be knitted or crocheted.

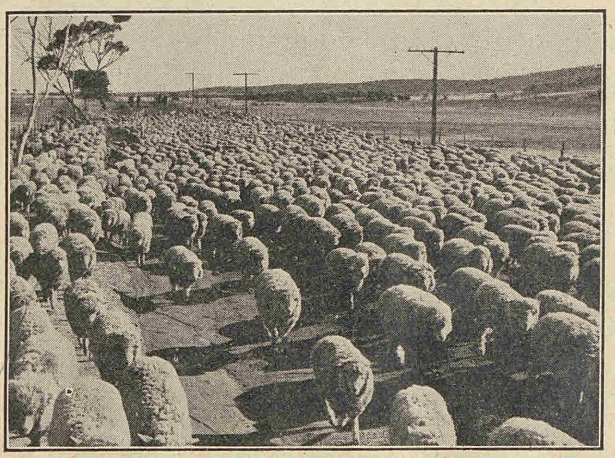
Wool, as you know, is the warm coat of the sheep. In olden days English merchants made money by selling wool to weavers on the Continent. In order to remind the king and the nobles who made the laws, that wool was England's chief wealth, the king's Chancellor was given a great sack of wool for a seat. The Lord Chancellor's seat in the House of Lords is still called the "Woolsack," but we have very little raw wool to export now. Instead we buy large quantities of wool for our own factories.

Australia is the greatest "wool" country in the world. There are wide grasslands, too dry for cattle, but with enough pasture for sheep.

The first fine-wool sheep were taken to Australia about a hundred and fifty years ago ; now Australia has a hundred and twenty million sheep. In the early days the sheep farms were very large. One

farmer might pasture his flocks over an area of some hundreds of square miles.

There are still some very big sheep farms, with fifty thousand or even a hundred thousand sheep,



Taking sheep to the shearing sheds

Courtesy of the Director, Australian Trade Publicity

but most of the land is divided into smaller farms with two thousand or three thousand sheep. In some parts, where there is very little rain, the grass is so poor that only twenty or thirty sheep can be kept on a square mile; then the farmer needs a hundred miles of pasture in order to make a living. In other parts there is more rain, so more sheep can be kept to the square mile, and farms are smaller. The sinking of deep wells often helps the farmers.

Shearing time is a busy season on an Australian sheep farm. Extra men come to work, and clever shearers earn good wages. The shearing is done by machinery worked by an engine or by electricity.



Shearing by machinery; eighteen shearers at work

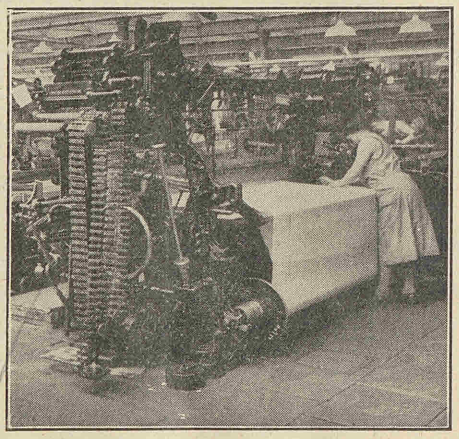
Courtesy of the Director, Australian Trade Publicity

After the shearing the wool is sorted, and other machines press it into bales and seal it up. The bales are sent by goods trains, motor-lorries, or horse-wagons to the ports of Sydney and Melbourne, where there are great warehouses in which are held wool sales attended by buyers from all parts of the world.

Australian wool is landed in England at Southampton and London. In Coleman Street, London,

there is a great wool market to which buyers come from the woollen towns in England, and from places in Europe.

Yorkshire is England's " woollen county," though woollen goods are made in smaller quantities in the West of England and in Oxfordshire.



Part of the weaving shed at Saltaire Mills
Courtesy of Salts (Saltaire) Ltd

Yorkshire has numbers of streams, the water of which can be used for washing the wool. Being on the drier side of England, the climate is suitable, for wool does not work well in damp air. Also, Yorkshire has plenty of coal to feed the furnaces of the steam-engines that drive the machinery.

At the factory, the raw wool is sorted and cleaned ; bits of straw, burrs, and seeds are taken out. It is then washed and *teased*. This loosens the tangled mass, and frees it from tiny thorns, or seeds, still clinging to it. The wool is then *carded* or combed, to lay the fibres side by side. Then it is spun into

yarn, ready for the weavers' looms. Both the spinning machinery and the looms are driven by steam or electricity.

Cloths made from long, thin fibres of wool combed so that the fibres lie parallel are called *worsteds;* cloths made from shorter fibres of wool are called *woollens*.

Bradford and Leeds are the great marketing towns for woollen goods. They also make worsteds. Halifax makes blankets and carpets, and Huddersfield makes both worsteds and woollens. Batley and Dewsbury make a material called *shoddy*, in which fibres obtained by pulling old rags to pieces are mixed with a certain amount of fresh wool.

Witney, in Oxfordshire, is famous for blankets.

THINGS TO DO

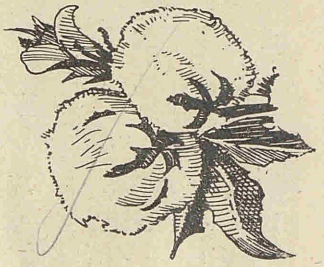
1. Find Australia on the map, also Sydney and Melbourne.
2. Write as much as you can about sheep farming in Australia.
3. Find Yorkshire on the map, also the "woollen towns." Make a list of the towns, saying what kind of goods are made at each.
4. Write a few lines telling how the raw wool is made ready for weaving.
5. Draw a sheep.

No. 2

COTTON FROM PLANTATION TO MILL

COTTON makes us think of dark-skinned negroes, crooning their songs as they work on the plantation.

Raw cotton is the soft fluffy down from the seed-pod of the cotton plant. The seeds are sown in April, and, when the young plants appear, they are carefully weeded, and sprayed to prevent disease. The plant's worst enemy is a grub that eats away the cotton and spoils the crop. The United States of America, the chief cotton-growing country in the world, is said to spend eight million pounds a year in destroying this grub.



A cotton boll

Cotton plants bloom from June onwards. The flowers are at first white or pale yellow ; then they turn red, and in a few days drop off. The seed box, or *boll*, grows until it is as big as a hen's egg. In July or early August, the seeds are ripe, the bolls crack, and the soft fluffy fibres burst out, looking like newly-fallen snow.

When the first bolls are open, the picking begins,

and goes on until the first frost nips the late flowers and bolls.

The work in the American plantations is done largely by black people, men, women, and children.



Cotton pickers at work

Publishers' Photo. Service, N.Y

They go from plant to plant, taking the fibres from the open bolls, and placing them in bags hung round their necks. These bags are emptied into big baskets standing at the end of each row.

The " seed cotton," as it is called, is taken from the plantations to the *ginnery*, where the seeds are taken out. In three hundred pounds of seed cotton there are two hundred pounds of seeds. These

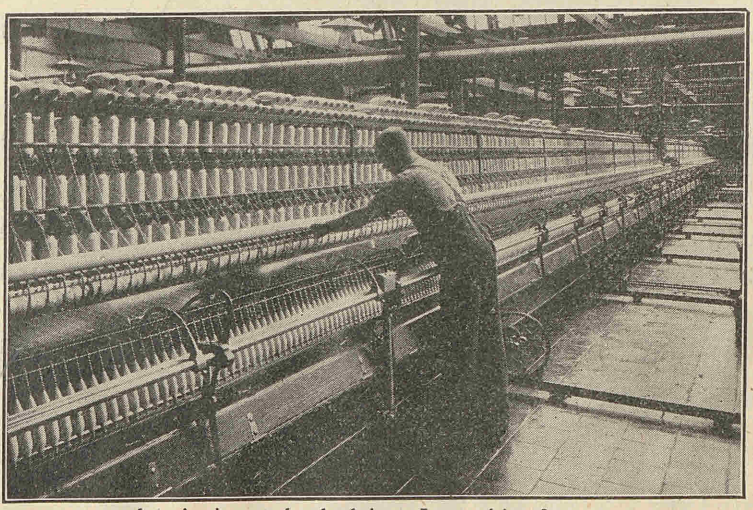
seeds contain oil that is very valuable. The oil is pressed out, and is used for making soap and margarine; the pressed seeds are made into cake for feeding cattle. The stems of cotton plants are used for making paper.

The *gin* is a machine with circular saws which draw the cotton fibres through narrow slits in a grid, and leave the seeds to drop into a box. The fibres, now called *lint*, are brushed from the saws by revolving brushes. Sometimes *roller-gins* are used, in which the cotton passes between leather-covered rollers instead of saws. The rollers press out the seeds. After ginning, the cotton is pressed by machinery into bales ready for the market.

Most of the raw cotton used in our mills comes to the port of Liverpool, and thence to Manchester by the Manchester Ship Canal. Manchester is the great centre of the cotton trade, with warehouses, offices, and the Royal Exchange where manufacturers from all over Lancashire meet to do business.

Lancashire was the first district in England to use cotton thread, first with, and then in the place of, wool or flax. Spinning and weaving by hand were done there more than three hundred years ago. Most of the great inventions in spinning and weaving machinery were made in Lancashire. The first

spinning mills were worked by the water power of the swift-flowing streams, but when steam took the place of water-power, Lancashire had plenty of coal for the boilers.



A spinning-mule shed in a Lancashire factory

Courtesy of Horrockses, Crewdson & Co. Ltd

Lancashire has a heavy rainfall, and the air is moist. This is good for cotton spinning as the thread becomes brittle in dry air, and constantly breaks. Even in Lancashire the air in the spinning rooms has to be kept damp by pumping air through water to make a fine spray.

The towns on the southern side of the Lancashire

coal-field are the spinning towns, including Bolton, Bury, and Oldham, with many-storied, many-windowed, spinning mills. In the north are the weaving towns—Preston, Blackburn, Burnley, and others—with single-storied weaving sheds, with no windows in the walls, but lighted by skylights in the roofs.

Once a year every Lancashire mill closes for a week, and most of the workers go to the seaside. These holidays are called "wakes." Each town has a different "wake week," otherwise there would be too big a crowd at Blackpool and the other seaside towns.

Sewing cotton is made at Paisley, a town on the river Clyde, in Scotland.

THINGS TO DO

1. Draw a picture of a cotton boll.

2. On a map of the United States of America find the cotton-growing states—Georgia, South Carolina, Alabama, Mississippi, and Texas. Find also the great cotton port of New Orleans.

3. Write what you can about :
   (*a*) Picking cotton ;
   (*b*) A cotton gin.

4. Write an account of cotton spinning and weaving in Lancashire. (Find the cotton towns on the map.)

No. 3—THE STORY OF SILK

Japan, China and Cheshire

THE story of silk is very interesting. It begins in China, where, it is said, an empress of long, long ago reared silk-worms and invented the silk loom. Girl silk-weavers were taken to Japan from China, to teach the Japanese the art of rearing the worms and spinning and weaving the silk. Silk-worms' eggs also travelled to India, carried, it is said, in the head-dress of a Chinese princess, together with the seed of the mulberry tree.

The first silk-worm eggs to reach Europe were brought to Constantinople in a hollow bamboo, and from Constantinople silk weaving spread to Italy.

Most of the raw silk used in our mills comes from Japan and China.

Silk-worm farming can be carried on only where there is a supply of mulberry leaves to feed the worms. The eggs or "silk-seed," as they are called, are hatched when the mulberry trees are breaking into leaf. The Japanese keep thousands of worms in trays in special rearing houses. They must be fed on green mulberry leaves, and carefully watched for any signs of disease.

When the time comes for the worms to spin

their cocoons, " brushes " of scrub-oak, or some other many-branched shrub, are placed in the trays. The worms mount the " brush," and begin to spin.



A silkworm-rearing establishment in Japan E.N.A.

If left alone the grub inside the cocoon would in a few weeks change into a moth and eat its way out of the cocoon. This would spoil the silk, so the cocoons are collected. Some are set aside for the moths to find their way out and lay eggs for another

batch of worms ; others are placed in steam or hot air to kill the grub. Then the perfect cocoons are picked out for use as *raw silk ;* stained and imperfect ones are used for *spun silk.*

The cocoons are placed in warm water to melt the gum that seals them. They are next stirred with a bunch of twigs, and the outer loose fibres catch on the twigs and are pulled off. Then the main silk thread is seen.

Little machines are used by which the threads from six cocoons are drawn off, twisted into a single thread, and then wound into a skein. A single silk fibre is so fine that it can scarcely be seen, yet it is strong enough to be drawn out and twisted.

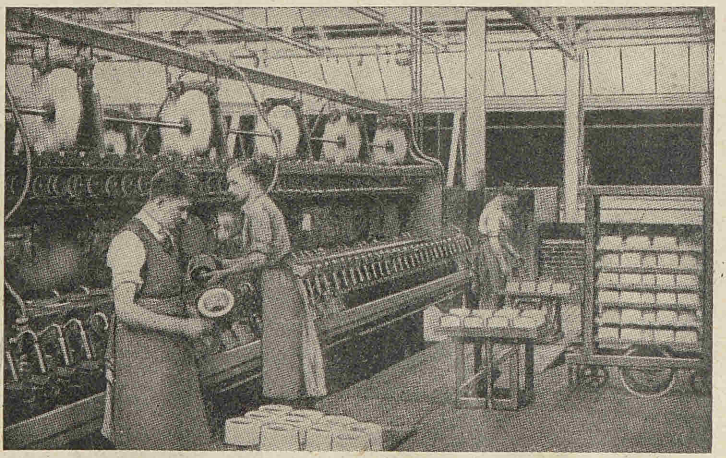
The only silk-producing country in Europe is Italy, where the silk-worms are reared by peasant women in their own cottages. The silk produced is very fine, and is used in the silk mills of northern Italy and France.

France is the greatest silk-importing country in Europe. Silk comes from the East to the port of Marseilles. The city of Lyons, in the Rhône Valley, is the greatest silk-weaving city in the world.

In England, the silk industry is much less important than wool or cotton. The first silk weavers were refugees from France who came over about three

hundred years ago and settled at Spitalfields, in London.

Now the British silk industry is in and around Macclesfield, in Cheshire, where silk twist and silk



Viscose spinning machine showing the doffing of *rayon* "cakes." The viscose threads are carried over glass wheels into rapidly revolving pots, where they are wound into a form which looks like, and is called, a cake *E.N.A*

buttons were made in the sixteenth century. The first silk mill was set up nearly two hundred years ago, and the industry has been carried on ever since that time.

In these days artificial silk—*rayon* as it is often called—is made from wood pulp. The timber used comes from the forests of northern Europe and North America. The wood is chopped into small

pieces and boiled with chemicals to form pulp. The pulp is washed, dried, and pressed into sheets for export.

At the factory the dried pulp is dissolved with chemicals and forced through holes in a nozzle—like the rose of the garden watering-can. As the viscose, as it is now called, comes out of the nozzle it passes into a bath of acid, which hardens it into fine shiny threads, that are spun in the usual way.

Wolverhampton, Coventry, Doncaster, Liverpool, and London are important centres of the artificial silk manufacture.

THINGS TO DO

1. Write what you can about :
   (*a*) Silk-worm farming ;
   (*b*) Winding the silk.

2. Where is silk weaving carried on in England ? Find the town on the map.

3. Write a few lines about artificial silk.

No. 4—PINS AND NEEDLES

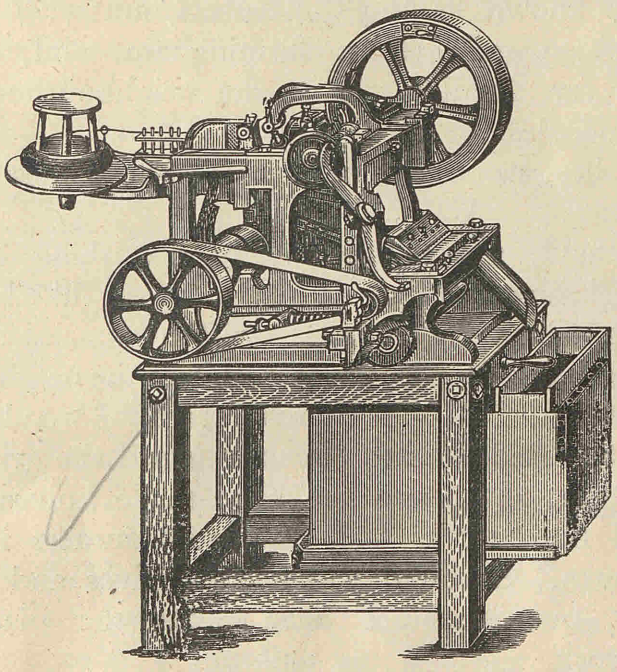
THERE is an old saying that "it takes ten men to make a pin." But that is not quite true in these days, for the work is done by wonderful machinery, which is usually looked after by girls.

Ordinary pins are made from brass wire. The wire is run off a reel into a machine that draws it out and straightens it. When a piece of wire the length of the pin has passed into the machine, it is gripped in such a way as to leave enough wire beyond the "jaws" to make the "head" of the pin. A steel punch springs forward and presses the head into shape. Then the length of wire to make the pin is cut off.

The pins, when cut, drop into a slit too narrow for the heads to pass through. While they hang by their heads the pins are sharpened. Next they are cleaned and coated with tin. After this they are polished by being revolved in a barrel of sawdust. Finally, another machine sticks the pins in rows into the long strips of paper in which the draper sells them.

Birmingham is the home of the pin industry, and also the centre of the British brass manufacture. Brass is not a simple metal like iron or tin. It is a mixture of two metals, copper and zinc.

Although Birmingham is not really in the " Black Country," it is the business centre for that district. It is situated just beyond the borders of Stafford-



A Pin-making Machine. The wire is drawn off the coil and straightened; the pin head is hammered; the pin is cut the proper length, and is then pointed—all in this machine

Courtesy of Kirby, Beard & Co

shire, in Warwickshire, and has workshops and factories, large and small, which make all kinds of iron, steel, brass, and copper goods. Besides making pins, Birmingham makes large quantities of cheap

trinkets and jewellery. It is a fine city and has a university.

Redditch, in Worcestershire, is the centre of what is known as the "Needle Country." It is only fifteen miles from Birmingham, and, along with a few small towns in the neighbourhood, it makes needles.

Needles are made of steel which comes from Sheffield.

Sheffield, in Yorkshire, has been working in iron and steel for centuries. It lies in a basin-like hollow through which flow several swift tributaries of the Don. In olden days iron ore was dug in the neighbourhood, and smelted with charcoal from the woods near by. The rapid-flowing streams turned the grinding stones that sharpened the hand-made knives, and worked the bellows and machine hammers in the workshops. Sheffield still makes knives and other cutlery, but machines have taken the place of hand-work.

Steel of many kinds for special purposes is made in Sheffield. Among them is the fine steel wire used for making needles.

When this specially prepared steel wire reaches the needle factory, it is cut into lengths, each sufficient to make two needles. A bundle is made

up by packing several thousand lengths within two iron rings; it is then made red-hot and worked backward and forward on an iron plate. This soon straightens the needle lengths.

Next the ends of each length are sharpened. Like

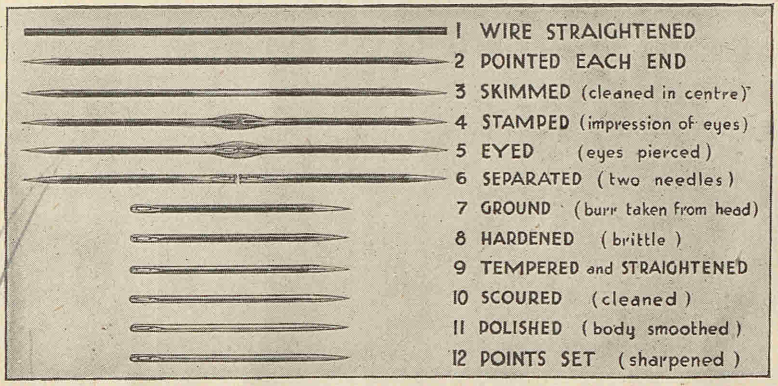


Illustration showing some of the processes in needle manufacture

Courtesy of Abel Morrall Ltd

the Sheffield cutler, the Redditch needle-maker used to do his work by hand. He held several dozen needles against a grinding stone, which he turned with his left hand, while he slightly turned the needles with his right hand. In this way he could sharpen a hundred thousand needles a day. Machines now do it even more quickly.

Other machines make the "eyes" of the needles, and snip each pair apart. The heads are

smoothed, and the needles again made red-hot. After dipping in cold oil and gently re-heating in a gas flame, the needles are scoured and smoothed, and then polished between leather rollers. Finally, they are sorted and put up in packets for the draper.

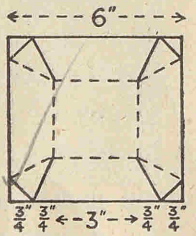
Redditch also makes fish-hooks.

THINGS TO DO

1. Write in your own words :
   (*a*) The Story of a Pin ;
   (*b*) How I was made—by a Needle.

2. Draw a picture of a paper of pins and a packet of needles.

3. Make a pin tray. Take a six-inch square of paper ; and draw the shape as shown, cut along the thick lines. Fold along the dotted lines. Fasten the flaps on the outside. Finish with a scrap or design in the middle.



4. Find on the map all the towns mentioned in this story. Make a list, and say a few words about each.

No. 5 —LINEN

Northern Ireland

LINEN is the name given to cloth woven from flax fibres. The Latin name for the flax was *linum*.

Grass and flax were the materials used by the first weavers thousands of years ago, and linen weaving has been carried on ever since. There are pieces of linen in our museums that are nearly seven thousand years old, and still quite good. This shows how strong the flax fibres are.

The flax plant is an *annual*—that is, a plant that must be sown every year. It has an upright stem, narrow leaves and dainty little blue flowers. One poet calls it " the fairy flax."

Flax grows well in a cool, damp climate, and in olden days, when spinning and weaving were done in the homes of the people, it was grown in many parts of the British Isles. Now, Northern Ireland is the only part of our islands where it is grown in any quantity, and even there the crop is not sufficient to supply the local linen mills.

Most of the flax in the world is grown on the great northern plain of Europe, in Russia, Poland, and the other countries round the Baltic Sea. France, Holland, and Belgium also grow flax.

If we visit Northern Ireland when the fields of flax are in bloom, we shall see a beautiful sight. The delicate blue flowers, swaying gently in the wind,



Pulling the flax crop *Courtesy of The Irish Linen Guild*

look like blue waves. The plant not only supplies the linen weavers with yarn ; its seeds, called linseed, contain oil which is pressed out and used in mixing paint and printers' ink. The crushed seeds are made into cattle cake.

Flax is not cut down like wheat and many other crops. The plants are pulled up by the roots because

much of the stem, which contains the best fibres, is under the soil. The stems are stacked up in bundles in the field to dry. Then the seed is taken away and



The retting dam *Courtesy of The Irish Linen Guild*

the flax is placed in a stream or pond to soak. This rots part of the stem and frees the fibres, which can then be more easily separated. This process is called *retting*.

The retted bundles are spread on a grassy meadow to dry, and about a fortnight later they are *scutched*, or combed, to separate the fibres from

the hard core. The long fibres are used for linen yarn; the shorter ones, called *tow*, are used for making cord.

The work of preparing flax for the mills gives winter employment to numbers of people in Northern Ireland.

Belfast, the chief town in Northern Ireland, is the centre of the Irish linen industry. Besides that grown locally, flax imported from Belgium and the Baltic countries is used in the factories.

The linen industry was started in Northern Ireland during the reign of Charles I, when colonists from England and Scotland settled in Ulster. With the coming of the steam-engine, the new machines driven by steam power came to be used, and Belfast, which was able to get coal and iron cheaply by sea from Scotland, became the centre of the manufacture.

Belfast makes sewing thread, handkerchiefs, tea cloths and other goods. In addition to the linen industry, the city has important ship-building yards and rope factories.

Lisburn, twelve miles from Belfast, is also a linen town. The manufacture was set up there about two hundred and fifty years ago by refugees from Flanders who were skilled weavers. Lisburn makes

patterned linens, called *damasks*, used for table-cloths.

Another Irish linen town is Londonderry, on Lough Foyle. This town makes large quantities of shirts and collars, about four million shirts and twenty million collars a year.

In England, much linen was formerly made at the Yorkshire towns, Leeds and Barnsley, from raw flax brought to Hull from the Baltic ports, but little is made there now. Scotland has linen towns on the East coast, facing the Baltic. Of these Dunfermline is the most important.

THINGS TO DO

1. Find a picture of the flax plant, and draw one in your book.
2. Make a list of :
   (*a*) the flax-growing countries ;
   (*b*) the linen towns in the British Isles, and find each on the map.
3. Write what you can about the preparation of flax.

No. 6 —CANVAS AND OTHER JUTE GOODS

East of Scotland

JUTE is a fibre used in many similar ways to flax. Canvas, sacking, carpets, rugs, and matting are only a few of the materials in which it is employed.

The jute plant needs moisture and a fair amount of rain, but unlike the flax, it must have a hot climate. For centuries, it has been grown in India. Attempts have been made to grow it in America, Egypt, and Africa, but the fibre has proved much poorer than that from plants grown in India.

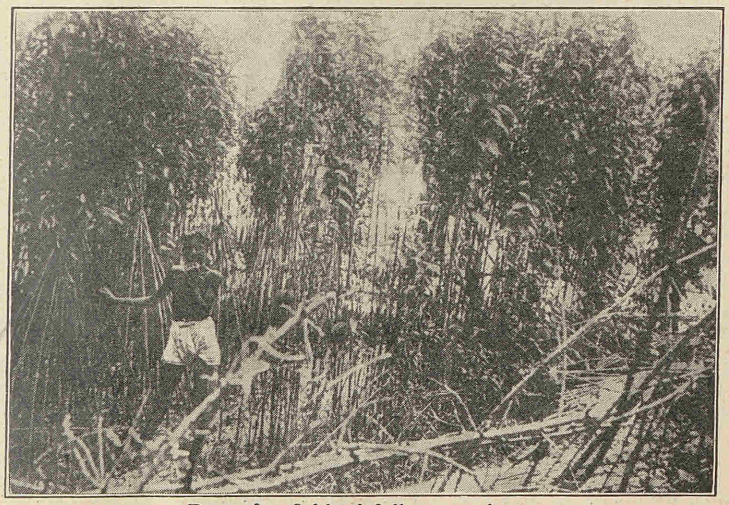
Like the flax, jute is sown every year. The stem grows to a height of from five to ten feet, and is as thick as a man's finger. It bears whitish yellow flowers, and, when these fade, the crop is ready for gathering. If gathered earlier the fibre is weak; if left till the seeds ripen the fibre is stronger, but coarse and dull.

The preparation of jute is very like that of flax. This is how a native jute farmer in India rets his crop.

When the jute has been soaked long enough, he wades into the pond. Standing up to his waist in water, he takes as many sticks as he can grasp. Then he pulls off a bit of bark from the ends next the

roots, and gripping them together cleverly strips the bark from end to end without breaking either stem or fibre.

He next washes it by taking a large handful, swinging it round his head, dashing it on the water,



Part of a field of full-grown jute E.N.A

and drawing it through the water towards him. With a quick movement, he spreads the stems fan-wise on the water, and picks off any black specks. The stems are then wrung out to get rid of as much water as possible. They are then hung on lines to dry.

When the jute is dry it is sent to a *press* where it

is sorted into different qualities, and each lot is pressed into bales weighing four hundred pounds.

It is a long way from the hot plains of India to the East Coast of Scotland, which is the centre of the jute industry in Britain.



Jute workers separating the bark from the fibre *E.N.A*

Dundee, on the Firth of Tay, was in the olden days in the middle of the flax-growing district, and so manufactured linen goods. Then imported flax from the Baltic countries took the place of local crops. When, however, war broke out between Britain and Russia in 1854, no flax came over the North Sea and the linen looms were idle.

Then the Dundee manufacturers began to spin and weave jute which was brought from India. The new fibre was so successful that it became far more important than the older linen industry, and Dundee now makes one-seventh of the world's jute cloth.

The Royal Navy is one of Dundee's best customers, and buys large quantities of canvas. Other jute goods manufactured are sackings and tarpaulin, as well as beautiful carpets. Jute is much used in carpet-making because it is strong and will dye brilliant colours.

Further south is another Scottish jute town, Kirkcaldy, on the Firth of Forth. Here jute is used chiefly in the manufacture of a useful floor covering, called linoleum. You will often see this, as well as carpets, in big drapers' shops. The jute cloth, or canvas, forms a backing to a kind of cement, made of ground cork, linseed oil, and colouring matter. The underside of the canvas is painted to prevent it from rotting.

THINGS TO DO

1. Write what you can about jute-growing in India. Find India on the map.
2. Tell the story of the Dundee jute mills.
3. Draw a picture of an article made of jute.

No. 7—OUR HATS

Many Lands

WE will finish this visit to the draper's with the geography of hats.

Hats fall into three chief classes, hats made of fur felt, hats made of wool felt, and hats made of straw or leaf.

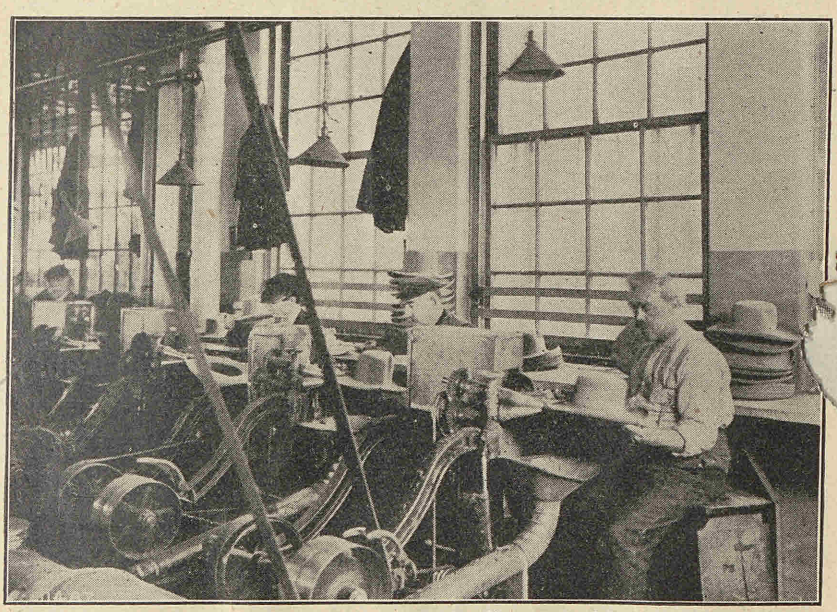
Fur felt is made from the fur of the rabbit, hare, musk-rat, nutria, and beaver. In using the fur of the musk-rat, nutria, and beaver, which are water-animals, the first step is to wash the fur which is often crusted with mud and scum. The hare and rabbit furs do not need washing. Long coarse hairs are also plucked out.

Each tiny fur fibre is covered with small branches or *barbs*. These are opened out by soaking the skins in chemicals. The skins are then fed into a machine that cuts them into short shreds. The fur fibre comes out in an endless belt while the bits of skin are left behind.

The fibre is sorted, and then put into a machine with revolving cylinders, bearing thousands of steel teeth, or *pickers*, which separate the down of the fibres from the coarser hairs.

The hat is made by a machine in which there is

a revolving copper cone. The outer side of the cone is damp, and a misty cloud of fur fibre is drawn to it by means of a current of air, soon



Workers in a felt hat factory "pouncing" or smoothing the hats E.N.A.

covering it with a coating of fur fibre. The fur-coated cone is wrapped in flannel, put into a metal cover, and placed in hot water. The heat and the moisture cause the branched fibres to lock into each other, and make the material we call felt.

After various processes the *hood*, as the shape is

called, is ready to be blocked into a fashionable shape and trimmed.

Cheaper hats are made of wool fibres that are too short for weaving. The wool is cleaned and carded. It comes from the carding machine in a web rather like a lace curtain. This web is wrapped round a double cone which, when cut in halves, makes two hats.

Most of our felt hats come from France and Austria, but there are factories in the East of England, at Wellington in Somerset, and at Stockport in Cheshire.

Straw for making hats must be light and strong, of good colour, and long-stalked. Such straw is obtained only in certain districts ; in Bedfordshire, Buckinghamshire, and Hertfordshire, in England ; in Tuscany (Italy) ; on the coast of China, and in Japan.

In England wheat straw is generally used for hats. The crop is cut by hand with a sickle. Then the loose leaves are removed by a special comb, leaving the pipes of straw, which are cut into lengths between the knots.

In Tuscany, the stalks are pulled up by the roots, and spread out to dry and bleach. The upper part of the stalk is used for making the

famous Leghorn hats, called after the Italian seaport of that name. When the lower part of the stalk is stripped of its sheath it is pure white. This is used for the best quality hats, and is called *pedal straw*, from the word *pedale*, meaning a foot.

Some hats are made of straw plait sewn in overlapping rows by machine. Others are woven like a basket, commencing at the top of the crown with a starting knot, called the "button."



A native woman of Colombia weaving a Panama hat *E.N.A.*

Woven hats were brought from Panama as far back as three hundred years ago. Now these hats are also made in Ecuador and Colombia. They are not made of straw, but of other vegetable fibres.

Raffia hats come from the islands round the Gulf of Mexico. China sends us quantities of rush hats.

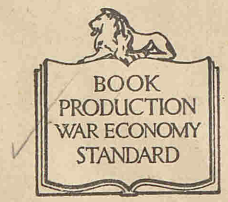
Other kinds come from Japan, Siam, and the island of Java.

The centre of the English straw-plaiting industry is Luton, in Bedfordshire. It was started by straw-plaiters from Scotland, where straw-plaiting was introduced by Mary, Queen of Scots.

Hats are also made at St. Albans, in Hertfordshire, from fibres imported from abroad.

THINGS TO DO

1. Tell the story of "How I was made—by a Felt Hat."
2. Make a list of countries that send us hats, then find them on the map.
3. Write what you can about straw hats and how they are made.
4. Model a felt hat.
5. Draw a straw hat.



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