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—is not an economic feature. The economic difference between the two is, that Schulze Delitzsch co-operation makes the creation and continual accumulation of capital the corner-stone of its system, whereas Raiffeisen co-operation will not even have shares, but relies wholly upon liability, which is to procure for it an immediate harvest. That is all very well when there are only Raiffeisens to sacrifice themselves willingly, with their eyes open, for their poorer brethren. However, appetite so created grows with what it feeds upon. In Germany and Austria such co-operation, or rather a State-favoured caricature of it, now lays the whole country under heavy contribution, to produce—nobody can tell what the result will ultimately be. This aspect of the question should have been dealt with, for its importance is daily growing. However, the reader, though told that there is co-operation, is left to find out the facts for himself, and to form his own opinion.

The French translation is generally good, but every now and then the translator shows a provoking want of familiarity with technical terminology, which is likely to confuse readers not at home in the matter.

HENRY W. WOLFF

Le Travail de Nuit des Femmes dans l'Industrie. Rapports sur son importance et sa réglementation légale. Publiés au nom de l'Assoc. internat. pour la protection légale des travailleurs. Préface par le PROF. ETIENNE BAUER. (Jena : G. Fischer. 1903. Pp. xlii, 384.)

Les Industries insalubres. Rapports sur leurs dangers et les moyens de les prévenir. Publiés au nom de l'Assoc. internat. Préface par le PROF. E. BAUER. (Jena : G. Fischer. 1903. Pp. lx, 460.)

THE reports included in these two volumes, presented to the Association in answer to the resolutions of the Congress held at Paris in 1900, were discussed at the meeting at Cologne in September, 1902. Drawn up by experts, factory inspectors, labour commissioners, &c., thoroughly cognisant of the practical workings of their subject, they give us full and detailed descriptions of the position of each European country with regard to night-work for women, and dangerous trades. It would be difficult to find elsewhere the information they contain, except by going to the original reports of inspectors, factory owners, workmen's unions,

Government Commissions, &c., a task for which few people have leisure.

Professor Bauer, in his admirable introduction to the first of these two volumes, briefly and clearly summarises the evidence contained in the separate reports, and points out the tendencies of legal enactments in each Government, as well as the causes influencing particular trades. Whilst in every country of Europe young girls are protected by law, and their periods of rest fixed, in many countries women are not thus protected. In Russian industrial centres, where night-work for women is usual, infant mortality, as shown by the statistical tables of Dr. Dementjeff (p. 337), is appallingly high. In one factory 1,225 workwomen had had, at the date of the inquiry, 1,815 children, of whom already 1,284 were dead. In England, on the contrary, since the laws protecting women have been passed, their own and infant mortality have greatly decreased. It is not only physically that night-work is so injurious, it is morally and intellectually bad as well. The loosening of family ties, the neglect of children, as well as of the care and cleanliness of the home, are almost unavoidable, and must have a morally deteriorating effect; the intellectual development of the night-worker must also receive a check when she is unable to take part in the ordinary pleasures and amusements of her class. Prof. Mahaim, of Liège, in his report on the wool workers of Verviers, draws a faithful, if somewhat tragic, picture of the homes of women working on night shifts. Mlle. Gatti de Gamond's is a particularly interesting report, dealing as it does with a class extremely difficult to legislate for, such as workwomen in dressmakers' and milliners' shops, makers of artificial flowers, &c. It shows us the utter impossibility of physical, moral, or mental well-being amongst these women in Bruxelles, who, besides long night hours in shops, take private work, which must always be done at night, in order to help them through the dead seasons. If we look nearer home, amongst the industries where night-work is permitted, and where overtime is not only allowed but is also extremely difficult to regulate, we are struck with the unhealthy barrenness of the lives of women workers. Laundries, exempt from the Act of 1901, are fully described in the excellent appendix to Mr. G. H. Wood's report for England. Not only are the hours long, 14 for adults, 10 for children, but they may cover any of the 24 hours, so that there is practically no restriction to night-work. Overtime is allowed three days a week, so that a little girl from 13 to 14 may work on three days from 8 a.m. to 10 p.m., on two days from 8 to 8, and

four hours on the sixth day. When the unhealthy conditions of the work are taken into account, long hours of standing, feet constantly wet, want of ventilation, the atmosphere charged with steam, it is not to be wondered at that, as Miss Deane points out (p. 265), the proportion of women admitted to hospitals suffering from tuberculosis, ulcerated legs, &c., is higher than in any other occupation. Women employed along our coasts salting fish are practically exempt from protection. They may work overtime and at night whenever a fishing-boat comes in. But, as they follow the vessels down the coasts for most months in the year, practically their whole working life is spent under these conditions. They live in sheds round the salting-places, are exposed to all the inclemencies of the weather, working day and night till their job is done. When one compares the lot of these workers to that of women in factories, with limited hours, regulated overtime, and carefully watched hygienic surroundings, it is impossible to contemplate the continuance of such conditions. In Japan, where the work of women and young children is absolutely unprotected, one can study the horrors from which England has only comparatively lately emerged. Efforts are, however, also being made in that country to better the conditions of labour, especially in the silk industry.

One very interesting point of study arises from these reports which is worthy of further attention, that is, that certain industries are said to require in one country overtime and night-work, whilst in others, with no apparent geographical or climatic reasons, they can be successfully worked without having recourse to these expedients. Dairy work and sugar refining are conspicuous examples of these differences. It is to be hoped that a careful study of such discrepancies may show that the number of trades in which success can only be bought at the expense of the worker can be considerably diminished, and that the exceptions to the principle laid down by the Association, absolute prohibition of night-work for women, may become fewer and fewer.

The reports included in the volume on dangerous trades (and Prof. Bauer's introduction) deal specially with works where white or yellow phosphorus and white lead are used. The scope of the inquiry is further limited practically to the use of white phosphorus in the manufacturing of matches, and of white lead in that of colours. Even with these limitations, the reports, dealing as they do with the technicalities of the trades, the causes and prevention of the diseases they give rise to, the lines on which further legisla-

tion should be guided, and the special features of the questions under discussion in each European country, cover such an immense field that only a very few of the many interesting points can be noticed here. The repeated measures of every Government to avert the danger of phosphorus necrosis from the workers in match factories where white phosphorus is used, have met with no really satisfactory results. In spite of every precaution, perfected machinery, the use of respirators and baths, ample ventilation, strict medical inspection, short hours, this terrible malady cannot be stamped out. It is true that its ravages have much decreased ; but Prof. Bauer is of opinion that the complete prohibition of white phosphorus is absolutely the only means of stamping it out. He points out that employers and factory owners are for the most part extremely careful of the health of their workpeople, going beyond even what the strictest regulations require in the use of precautionary measures ; but even their co-operation with the law has not done more than diminish the yearly number of victims of necrosis. He shows that the use of safety matches (made with a non-poisonous preparation of phosphorus), and the adoption of some substitute such as, it is suggested, Bryant and May have lately been employing for "strike anywhere" matches, would make its international interdiction possible, and would, moreover, not be attended by great loss to manufacturers. Anything, however, short of an international prohibition would most probably entail heavy financial difficulties on the firms of those countries where white phosphorus was illegal, and might have the disastrous result of reintroducing match-making as a home industry.

The manufacture of white lead, bringing in its train all the horrors of lead poisoning, saturninism, has been subject to much the same regulations as the use of white phosphorus, but here, unfortunately, international legislation seems impossible. Though white lead has in recent years been slightly superseded in, for instance, pottery works, no really satisfactory substitute has been found. In painting, for which it is chiefly used, it has more enduring qualities than the preparation of white zinc by which it is sometimes replaced. The French Government forbids the use of paint made with white lead in all its public buildings, so do some municipalities ; these measures, combined with the offers of prizes for successful discoverers of substitutes, may lead to its use being greatly diminished. One prohibition should be stringently enforced, that against the employment of women in white lead

works. Not only do they succumb quicker to the danger than men, but they are so susceptible to the poison that it completely destroys their health, and thus threatens the future of the race.

EVELYN FOX

Short Studies in Economic Subjects. By J. H. LEVY. (London : P. S. King and Son. 1903. Pp. 113. 2s.)

Socialism and Individualism. By E. BELFORT BAX and J. HIAM LEVY. (1904. Pp. 155. 2s.)

THESE are the first two volumes of the Personal Rights Series which is being issued by the Personal Rights Association. In the first of the two books, Mr. J. H. Levy deals with a great variety of subjects in a very limited space. In Chapter I., which is called "Wealth Knowledge" (and for which perhaps a better title might have been found), the mercantile theory, the economic causes of the rise and fall of Spain, sumptuary laws, the statutes of labourers, the early poor-laws, the usury laws, are all briefly discussed, and the chapter, which covers more than a third of the book, concludes with some short critical remarks upon the works of the Physiocrats, and of the older English economists from Adam Smith to Cairns. With these in the main we agree, but there are one or two passages in the chapter which seem to us rather misleading, *e.g.*, the author, in speaking of the belief "that the precious metals alone are wealth," says: "This extraordinary idea permeated the whole of society, and gave rise to laws and customs which, viewed by the light of modern economic science, are so absurd that we would have some difficulty in conceiving the state of mind to which they appeared otherwise, if the Bimetallists did not furnish us occasionally with some survivals, the only service to the cause of economics with which I can credit them" (p. 8). Again, the statement on p. 39, that Mill's "renunciation of the wage fund theory made his economic system a ruin," is, we think, an exaggeration, and requires explanation. The second chapter deals with the contrast drawn by J. S. Mill between the laws of production and those of distribution. The author points out that there is no such contrast as Mill supposed, and suggests that the true distinction lies in the fact that with regard to the laws of production we reason from effect to cause, and with regard to those of distribution, from cause to effect. Chapter III., which