imperial settings is overwhelming, but of course this is nothing new. Such beliefs have been well charted, certainly, in European history for many years, but Bender seeks to extend such knowledge to its application by American thinkers and researchers. The role of contemporary European debates, however, is a difficult one to situate, pre-dating (as they did) their American cousins by several years.

While Bender acknowledges that degeneration and other theories had their origins elsewhere, the intellectual pathways from the Old World to the New are not mapped in sufficient detail to allow a proper judgement over the status of American theorising: to what extent was it merely derivative, or can we talk about a unique body of thought? More critically, Bender seeks to introduce an emphasis on industry as the key term which is never quite established. Drawing on Carl Bücher’s 1901 text, Industrial Evolution, Bender makes this phrase central to his claims about the way industry was understood to have progressed, as if it were evolving. However, outside of this German treatise in historical economics, the trope of ‘industrial evolution’ was seldom used by the American authors cited, except perhaps those discussed in the (excellent) chapter on gender. Moreover, it is unclear what sort of role evolution played in these understandings: was it a metaphor, or was it taken to be a real force of history? This confusion is exemplified in Bender’s claim that ‘Industrial evolution had raised certain races to civilization, but left others in poverty’ (p. 39). But did this ‘evolution’ cause industrialism, or was it merely a framework for understanding change? The issue of causation is sedimented in the two senses of the word ‘industry’ outlined above: do industrious people cause industrialism, or does ‘industrial evolution’ create industrious individuals? This question is never quite addressed, and while it is clearly correct to highlight the importance of industry in evaluating civilisation, it was only one measure among the many described. Bender’s relentless emphasis on the phrase ‘industrial evolution’ needlessly detracts from a study whose virtue is, by contrast, its enormous range, especially since industry only appears as a central concern in a minority of the chapters.

In a spirited epilogue, Bender reveals his motivation, rooted in present political debates and, as such, this is engaged historical research. Along with its pricing, this should help the book appeal to a wide audience of scholars and students of social and medical thought; but, while elegantly produced by Cornell in general, the affordability of the volume comes at a cost, as it would have benefited from more generous image reproduction, not least the fascinating set of maps which displayed new taxonomies of the world’s races. Bender is a smooth and skilful stylist, who teases out the complexity of views expressed in his material, but the delivery is at times rather compressed, and a more detailed display of primary sources would have strengthened the argument. This could, perhaps, have been provided in place of the often-repetitive restatement of the overall thesis; nonetheless, as the book progresses, it becomes clear that the issues at stake are big ones. For this ambition Bender is to be highly commended, and he is at his best when weaving together the tapestry of ways in which the problems of race, gender, class and migration have been understood by Americans in the languages of science, medicine and empire, in what is a rich and complex book.

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James D. Schmidt’s Industrial Violence and the Legal Origins of Child Labor is an
extraordinarily sophisticated, incisive, even brilliant analysis of the place of workplace violence in the development of the concept of child labour. Focusing on the southern United States, the author analyses how the courts played a critical role as young workers and their families sought justice from their employers. In addition, he explores how middle-class reformers’ ideology and language were mediated and acted upon by the courts to effect changes in work practices, and ultimately, in the very definition of childhood by working people themselves.

The origins of the conflict over child labour at the turn of the twentieth century can be found in the values of agricultural life, in which childhood was not seen as a separate stage of life, but rather as a time for youngsters to participate in the producing economy, whether in the home, the yard, or the fields. When young workers and their families entered nineteenth century mills, mines, or factories, they brought these same values with them. ‘This desire to help, to do something productive, to be a grown-up, formed the core value for young Southern workers and their families’ (p. 31). Schmidt provides a richly detailed description of the range of industries that young people entered, as well as the motivations of parents and children alike in seeking and keeping a variety of work experiences. Beginning in the late nineteenth century, child-labour crusaders put forward a very different perspective on child labour. Childhood, to them, should not be defined by production, but rather by dependence, passivity, play, and inactivity. Seeing children who laboured as comparable to prisoners and slaves, reformers argued that children should be at school not at work.

Initially, young workers and their families rejected attempts to outlaw child labour, but Schmidt demonstrates that it was these families’ actual experiences in dangerous industrial settings that slowly convinced them to adopt the reformers’ views. When families sent their children into workplaces they expected that employers would ensure the safety of these young workers, that they would be slowly integrated into, and educated about, the hazardous conditions that were ever present in the world of industry. Instead of being protected, parents found that their children were frequently placed in perilous situations. The machines of modern industry decimated workers’ fingers, arms, and legs causing extreme pain and disfigurement; explosions burned young victims, blinded them, and often killed them; steel fragments broke off from machinery causing fatal injuries to the torso and head. Using a wide array of court records that had not been used for this purpose before, Schmidt documents the financial and emotional distress these assaults caused, the serious and permanent disability that left many crippled, the infections that occurred after operations, and the amputations and diminished mental capacity that became an ever-present part of industrial society.

Faced with the constant threat of violence on the job, and seeking both redress and justice, young people and their families turned to the courts. Schmidt’s book is one of an increasing number of studies that has shown how the courts have been used by workers to improve their health and safety on the job. This author’s special contribution is that he demonstrates how the private horrors of industrialisation became public. Thus, it was not just journalists and reformers who were describing the costs of child labour, but workers themselves testifying in courtrooms. Indeed, a major theme of the book is how the courts functioned as a forum for communities to tell what happened to their young people on the job – what Schmidt calls ‘the chilling truths of industrial life’ (p. 219). However, the courts performed another function as well, for, as judges and juries granted judgements to injured child workers against industry, they were incorporating the reformers’ ideas about the distinctive nature of childhood, and they were enunciating the view that the legislation enacted in states against child labour had been primarily intended to prevent accidents on the job. The courts, then, played a key role in winning acceptance of child labour laws, not
only from the broader public, but also from workers themselves. Historians of medicine and public health, and many others, will have much to learn from this strikingly original interpretation of the origins of child labour reform.

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The history of colonial medicine has become a very productive field in the last two decades, but English writings on the subject have mainly been confined to studies on the medicine of the European empires. Japan, a latecomer to the colonial venture, has been sorely neglected. This is not to say that there is a shortage of scholarly studies on Japanese colonial medicine, but these studies have mainly been carried out by Japanese, Taiwanese, and Korean scholars, and have been published in the native languages of these scholars. *Prescribing Colonization* is a welcome addition to the English literature on the subject.

*Prescribing Colonization* covers the entire period of Japanese colonial rule in Taiwan (the first colony of the Japanese Empire). Chapter 1 of the book is a succinct account of the introduction of modern Western medicine into Japan during the last quarter of the nineteenth century. It is commonly known that the Meiji government took the German medical system as the model for its own medical reforms. Using the organisation of sanitary police as an example, Liu’s investigation reveals that Japan not only copied but also modified German medical institutions, adapting them to traditional forms of governance in Japan. Chapter 2 covers the first fifteen years of Japanese rule in Taiwan, focusing on the career of Gotō Shinpei (1857–1929), an ambitious politician with a medical degree who became minister of civil affairs in the Taiwanese colonial government in 1897. In the first few years of colonial rule, frequent rebellions and high mortality and morbidity rates among Japanese troops and settlers caused many Japanese politicians to doubt the sustainability of occupying Taiwan. Gotō’s reforms are generally credited with reversing this situation. Chapter 3 covers the 1920s and explores a variety of subjects, including preventative measures taken against epidemic diseases, the establishment of and subsequent changes to the medical education system, and the regulation of medical and pharmaceutical practices. There is also a brief but useful discussion of the colonial government’s policy of legalising and monopolising the sale of opium to Taiwanese addicts. Chapter 4 covers the period from 1930 to the end of World War Two. It discusses Japan’s attempt to expand and transform studies of tropical diseases in Taiwan into a specialty called ‘southern medicine’, which was to serve the project of colonisation in Southeast Asia. It also details the ways in which Taiwanese medical students and practitioners were discriminated against within colonial medical education and administrative systems.

*Prescribing Colonization* is based on solid, original research and a great wealth of materials, and contains plenty of revealing details and some insightful analysis. The author is particularly skilled at exploring how personal factors shaped the contours of Japanese colonial medicine. Gotō Shinpei, for example, who successively held important offices in Taiwan and Manchuria, was certainly an important force in the development of Japanese colonial medicine. He came from a samurai family of low rank and possessed less-than-outstanding medical qualifications. The medical elite in Japan looked down on him. Consequently, Gotō teamed up with the followers of Kitasato