

and, on his return to Hamburg, not long afterwards, he competed for the chair of logic and philosophy. The suffrages being equally divided between Fabricius and Sebastian Edzardi, one of his opponents, the appointment was decided by lot in favour of Edzardi; but in 1699 Fabricius succeeded Vincent Placcius in the chair of rhetoric and ethics, after which he took the degree of doctor in theology at Kiel. In 1701 J. F. Mayer, who had established himself at Greitswald, caused the chair of theology in that city to be offered to Fabricius; but he refused it on account of his health. But in 1708 he accepted the professorship of the theology, logic, and metaphysics, and was preparing to enter on his new office, when the senate of Hamburg induced him to remain, by adding to his professorship the office of rector of the school of St John, then held by his father-in-law Schultz. Schultz died in 1709, but Fabricius retained the rectorship two years longer. In 1719 the landgrave of Hesse-Cassel made him so advantageous an offer that he was on the point of accepting it; but this time also the magistrates, by a reasonable increase of salary, prevailed on him to remain with them. An attempt was subsequently made to draw him to Wittenberg; but he refused to listen to the proposals made to him, and remained at Hamburg, where he died April 30, 1736.

Nicéron and Reimar give a list of 128 books by Fabricius, but very many of them were only works which he had edited. One of the most famed and laborious of his works is the *Bibliotheca Latina, sive notitia auctorum veterum Latinorum quorumcumque scripta ad nos pervenerunt*, Hamburg, 1697, 8vo, a work which was republished in an improved and amended form by J. A. Ernesti, Leipsic, 1773, in three vols. 8vo. The divisions of the compilation are—the writers to the age of Tiberius; thence to that of the Antonines; and thirdly, to the decay of the language; while a fourth gives fragments from old authors, and chapters on early Christian literature. His *chef d'œuvre* is the *Bibliotheca Græca, sive notitia scriptorum veterum Græcorum quorumcumque monumenta integra aut fragmenta edita exstant, tum plerumque e manuscriptis, ac deperditis*, Hamburg, 1705–1723, in 14 vols. 4to, a work which has justly been denominated *maximus antiquæ eruditionis thesaurus*. It was re-arranged by Harles, at Hamburg, in 1790. Its divisions are marked off by Homer, Plato, Christ, Constantine, and the capture of Constantinople in 1453, while a sixth section is devoted to canon law, jurisprudence, and medicine. Of his remaining works we may mention—*Bibliotheca Antiquaria, sive introductio in notitiam scriptorum qui antiquitates Hebræicas, Græcas, Romanas, et Christianas scriptis illustrarunt*, 1713 and 1726, 4to; *Centifolium Lutherianum, sive notitia literaria scriptorum omnis generis de B. D. Luthero*, 1728 and 1730, 8vo; as also *Salutaris lux evangelii toti orbis per divinam gratiam exorients, sive notitia historico-chronologica, literaria, ac geographica propagatorum per orbem totum Christianorum sacerdotum*, 1731, 4to; and *Hydro-theology*, in German, 1734, 4to. Among the principal works edited by Fabricius may be named *Joannis Mabillonii iter Germanicum, et Joannis Lantioii de Scholis celeberrimis a Carolo Magno et post Carolum Magnum in occidente instauratis liber*, 1717, 8vo.

The details of the life of Fabricius are to be found in *De Vita et Scriptis J. A. Fabricii Commentarius*, by his son-in-law, H. S. Reimar, published at Hamburg, 1757. This is the work whence Nicéron, Chauffepié, and other writers on the subject have borrowed their materials. Nicéron's work is entitled *Mémoires pour servir à l'histoire des hommes illustres dans la république des lettres, avec un catalogue raisonné de leurs ouvrages*, Paris, 1729–1745.

FABRICIUS, JOHANN CHRISTIAN (1745–1808), one of the chief founders of scientific entomology, was born at Tondern in Schleswig, January 7, 1745. His father was a physician of enlightened views, who encouraged his son's inclination to study the natural sciences, and, after educating him at Altona and Copenhagen, sent him to Upsala, where, attending the lectures of the great Linnæus, his future destiny, as he himself says, appears to have been laid. Of his career, apart from entomology, it may be briefly recorded that he devoted his attention professionally to political economy, and, after lecturing on that subject in 1769, was appointed a few years later professor of natural history, economy, and finance at Kiel, in which capacity he wrote various works, chiefly referring to Denmark, and of no special interest. He also published a few other works on

general and natural history, botany, and travel (of which the *Reise nach Norwegen*, 1774, deserves separate mention),—for, although his professional stipend was small, he extended his personal researches into every town in northern and central Europe where a natural history museum was to be found. In 1771 he married the daughter of Counsellor Ambrosius of Flensburg, by whom he had two sons and one daughter; and he died on 3d March 1808.

It is, however, purely as an entomologist that the memory of Fabricius survives, aided perhaps in this country by the fact that he visited Great Britain many times after 1767, exhibiting a marked partiality for English naturalists, amongst whom were Solander, Sir Joseph Banks, Drury, Hunter, Francillon, Pennant, and Greville. Sir Joseph Banks's specimens, indeed, formerly in the collection of the Linnean Society, and now separately treasured in the British Museum, still retain the labels written by Fabricius, and are often consulted by entomologists as evidence of his views. For many years his great scientific reputation rested upon the system of classification, which (it can scarcely be said in opposition to that of his revered master Linnæus) he founded upon the structure of the mouth-organs, instead of the wings. No scheme, however, based upon solitary characters suffices any longer for the comprehension of the vast number of forms now known to science; and, although the value of the cibarian organs is still fully recognized, the system exclusively founded on them has long since passed into disuse. But the name of Fabricius is indelibly stamped upon the science, as he had a keen eye for specific differences, and possessed the art of describing in a marvellously terse and accurate manner; and, from his being recognized as a master, added to the opportunities afforded during his many journeys to European capitals, great numbers of insects passed through his hands for description and arrangement according to his system, at a time when almost everything was new, owing to paucity of workers.

A complete list of his entomological publications (31) will be found in Hagen's *Bibliotheca Entomologica*; the following are the chief—*Systeina Entomologica*, 1775; *Genera Insectorum*, 1776; *Philosophia Entomologica*, 1778; *Species Insectorum*, 1781; *Manitissa Insectorum*, 1787; *Entomologia Systematica*, 1792–1794, with a supplement, 1798; *Systema Eleutheratorum* (1801), *Rhynchogorum* (1803), *Pezatorum* (1804), and *Antiliatorum* (1805). Full particulars of his life will be found, with a portrait, in the *Transactions of the Entomological Society of London*, vol. iv. (1845), pp. i.–xvi., where his autobiography is translated from the Danish by the Rev. F. W. Hope, then president of the society. There is also a good account by Professor Westwood, in the article "Insecta," *British Cyclopædia*, p. 881. Baron Walkkener's verbose life in the *Biographie Universelle*, like Latreille's "Notice Biographique" in the *Annales du Muséum d'Histoire Naturelle*, ii. 393 (1808), contains important errors.

FABRONI, ANGELO (1732–1803), a celebrated Italian biographer, was born at Morradi, Tuscan, 25th September 1732. After studying at Faenza under the grammarian Girolamo Ferri, he entered the Roman college founded for the education of young Tuscans. On the conclusion of his three years' curriculum, he resolved, being determined to attain to literary distinction, to continue his stay in Rome, and having been introduced to the celebrated Jansenist Bottari, received from him the canonry of S. Teresa in Trastevere. Some time after this he was chosen to preach a discourse in the pontifical chapel before Benedict XIV., and made such a favourable impression that the pontiff settled on him an annuity left by the Countess Rospigliosi to young men who had taken a degree in law. With the possession of this annuity Fabroni was able to devote his whole time to study. Besides his other literary labours, he commenced at Pisa in 1771 a literary journal, which he continued till 1796. About 1772 he made a journey to Paris, where he formed the acquaintance of Condorcet, Diderot, D'Alembert,

Rousseau, and most of the other eminent Frenchmen of that age. He also spent four months in London. He died at Pisa 22d September 1803.

The following are his principal works:—*Vite Italorum doctrina excellentium qui sæculis XVII. et XVIII. floruerunt*, Pisa, 1778–1799, 1804–1805, 20 vols. 8vo (the last two vols. were published posthumously, and contain a life of the author); *Laurentii Medicei Magnifici Vita*, Pisa, 1784, 2 vols. 8vo; *Leonis X. pontificis maximi Vita*, Pisa, 1797; and *Elogii di Dante Alighieri, di Angelo Poliziano, di Lodovico Ariosto, e di Torq. Tasso*, Parma, 1800.

FABROT, CHARLES ANNIBAL (1580–1659), a French juriconsult, was born at Aix in Provence, 15th September 1580. At an early age he made great progress in the ancient languages and in the civil and the canon law; and in 1602 he received the degree of doctor of law, and was made avocat to the parlement of Aix. In 1609 he obtained a professorship in the university of his native town. He is best known by his translation of the *Basilica*, which may be said to have formed the code of the Eastern empire till its destruction. This work was published at Paris in 1647 in 7 vols. fol., and obtained for its author a considerable pension from the chancellor Seguier, to whom it was dedicated. Fabrot likewise rendered great service to the science of jurisprudence by his edition of Cujas, which comprised several treatises of that great jurist previously unpublished. He also edited the works of several Byzantine historians, and is besides the author of various antiquarian and legal treatises. He died at Paris 16th January 1659.

FABYAN, ROBERT, an English chronicler, sprung from an Essex family, is said by Bishop Tanner to have been born in London about the middle of the 15th century. Even the date of his death, 1512, is an inference from that upon which his will was proved, namely, 12th July 1513. The records of the Draper's Company, of which he was a member, might have settled these and other chronological doubts; but in consequence of the destruction of the company's hall by fire, there are no memoranda of a date earlier than 1602. All the ascertained details of his life are given in the biographical preface to Sir Henry Ellis's admirable edition of Fabyan's *Chronicles*. From this source we learn that Fabyan was alderman for the ward of Farringdon-Without, and that in 1493 he was appointed to the office of sheriff. In 1502, though he is believed on good grounds to have been very rich, he resigned the former office on the plea of poverty, not wishing probably to be elected to the expensive position of Lord Mayor, as he had a very numerous family. Fabyan's *Chronicle* extends from the time when "Brute entryd firste the Ile of Albion" to the year 1485. In subsequent editions it was continued by unknown authors to the year 1559. There have been five editions of the work,—the first printed in 1516 by Pynson, the second by Rastell in 1533, the third by Reynes in 1542, the fourth by Kyngeston in 1559. The fifth, in the preparation of which all the previous editions were compared, was published by Sir Henry Ellis in 1811. For its exposure of ecclesiastical abuses, Wolsey, it is said, ordered many copies of the first edition to be burnt,—hence its scarcity. The second edition was not published until after the cardinal's death. A great merit of the work consists in its details of city government and ceremonial. Wharton, indeed, observes that, in the eyes of the chronicler, a lord mayor of London seemed to be as august a personage as a king of England, and a city company's dinner as important an event as an English victory in France or a constitutional struggle at home. Ellis, it may be added, suggests that the part of the history which may have excited the hostility of Wolsey was an abstract of the Commons Bill, 11th year of Henry IV., for the resumption of ecclesiastical property. But the story of the suppression of the first edition appears to rest on the uncorroborated assertion of Bayle. In col. 256, vol. i. of Anthony & Wood's *Athenæ Oconienses*

(Bliss's edition, 4 vols., 1813–1820) there is an entry to the effect that Fabyan was "born in London, bred in grammaticals and something in logicalls in this university." In this account it is stated that Fabyan died in February 1511.

FACCIOLATI, JACOPO (1682–1769), was born at Torigia, in the province of Padua, in 1682. He owed his admission to the seminary of Padua to Cardinal Barberigo, who had formed a high opinion of the boy's talents. As professor of logic, and regent of the schools, Facciolati was the ornament of the Paduan university during a period of forty-five years. He published improved editions of several philological works, such as the *Thesaurus Ciceronianus* of Nizolius, and the polyglot vocabulary known under the name of Calepino. The latter work, in which he was assisted by his pupil Forcellini, he completed in four years—1715 to 1719. It was written in seven languages, and suggested to the editor the idea of his *opus magnum*, the *Totius Latinitatis Lexicon*, 4 vols. fol., Padua, 1771. In the compilation of this work the chief burden seems to have been borne by Facciolati's pupil Forcellini, to whom, however, the lexicographer allows a very scanty measure of justice, though the work occupied thirty years of his life. Perhaps the best testimony to the learning and industry of the compiler is the well-known observation that the whole body of Latinity, if it were to perish, might be restored from this lexicon. Facciolati's mastery of Latin style, as displayed in his epistles, has been very much admired for its purity and grace. In or about 1739 Facciolati undertook the continuation of Papadopoli's history of the university of Padua, carrying it on to his own day. Facciolati was known over all Europe as one of the most enlightened and zealous teachers of the time; and among the many flattering invitations which he received, but always declined, was one from the king of Portugal, to accept the directorship of a college at Lisbon for the young nobility. He died in 1769. His history of the university was published in 1757, under the name *Fasti Gymnasii Patavini*. In 1808 a volume containing nine of his *Epistles*, never before published, was issued at Padua.

FACTORS, in mercantile law, are agents entrusted with goods for the purpose of sale. The general rule as to sales at common law is that no person but the true owner can give a title to a purchaser. If, therefore, a factor or any similar kind of agent, being in possession of goods belonging to his principal, dealt with them in any unauthorized way, the persons dealing with him acquired no right as against the real owner. The inconvenience and injustice of this rule are apparent. A merchant *bona fide* buying goods from a person who was in possession of them, and had what among mercantile men are called the documents of title, was liable to have his rights defeated by the appearance of the real owner, who repudiated the transaction and recovered the goods. Or an agent might pledge the goods entrusted to him for advances made to him in good faith on that security, and the unfortunate lender might find that the goods belonged to a principal, and that he had no security for his loan. It thus became necessary in such cases to inquire into the real ownership of the goods and the nature of the agent's authority,—an intolerable necessity in trade. Accordingly the Factors Acts were passed for the protection of such transactions.

The 4 Geo. IV. c. 83 was an Act for the "better protection of the property of merchants and others who may hereafter enter into contracts or agreements in relation to goods, wares, and merchandise entrusted to factors or agents." It was followed by the 6 Geo. IV. c. 94, the principal Factors Act, the second section of which enacts that "persons entrusted with, and in possession of, any bill of lading, Indian warrant, dock warrant, warehouse keeper's

certificate, warrant or order for the delivery of goods, shall be deemed and taken to be the true owner of the goods, so far as to give validity to sales made by them to buyers," without notice of the fact that they are not the real owners. When a factor pledges goods deposited with him as security for an antecedent debt, the pledger shall acquire no further interest in the goods than was possessed by the factor himself. By section 4, contracts made with agents for the purchase of goods consigned to them shall be held binding upon the owners notwithstanding that the purchaser had notice that the vendors were only agents: *provided* such contracts be made in the usual course of business, and that the purchaser had not notice that the agent had no authority to sell.

By the Amendment Act, 5 and 6 Vict. c. 39 (which recites that much litigation had arisen on the construction of the former statute, and that it is necessary to explain and extend the provisions thereof), it is enacted "that any agent who shall thereafter be entrusted with the possession of goods, or of the documents of title to goods, shall be deemed and taken to be owner of such goods and documents, so far as to give validity to any contract or agreement by way of pledge, lien, or security *bona fide* made to any person with such agent, as well for any original loan, advance, or payment, made on the security of such goods or documents, as also for any further or continuing advance." And such contracts shall be binding on the owner notwithstanding notice of the agency. *Bona fide* deposits in exchange are protected, *i.e.*, where an agent pledges goods consigned to him in exchange for other goods on which the person delivering them up had at the time a valid lien. In all cases the transaction must be *bona fide*, and without notice that the agent is acting beyond his authority or in bad faith as regards his principal.

"These Acts," says Mr Benjamin in his treatise on *The Sale of Personal Property*, "apply solely to persons entrusted as factors or commission merchants, not to persons to whose employment a power of sale is not ordinarily added, as a wharfinger, who receives goods usually without a power to sell. The statute is limited in its scope to mercantile transactions, to dealings in goods and merchandise, and does not embrace sales of furniture or goods in possession of a tenant or bailee for him." And the courts of law have unfortunately felt themselves constrained to put a very narrow interpretation on the scope of the Acts. The most remarkable case was that of *Fuentes v. Montes* (*Law Reports*, 3 Common Pleas, 268). Here the plaintiffs, wine merchants in Spain, had consigned some casks of sherry to a London factor for sale, but afterwards revoked his authority. He, while in possession of the wine, but after the revocation, pledged it as security for advances made by the defendant, who acted in good faith, and in entire ignorance of the revocation. The court held that the words "entrusted with and in possession of" referred to the time of the pledge only, and that the factor was not so entrusted at the time of the pledge. This decision, which unsettled the confidence of merchants in dealing with apparent owners of goods, and a general uncertainty as to the true construction of the enactments, led to the passing of the last Factors Act (40 and 41 Vict. c. 39). The second section overrules the decision in *Fuentes v. Montes*, by providing that a revocation of authority shall not affect the right of persons purchasing from factors without notice of such revocation. Then the Act goes on to provide for other cases of apparent ownership in which the same hardships had arisen which the Factors Acts were intended to meet. Thus, where goods have been sold, and the vendor has been permitted to retain possession of the documents of title, any sale by him or his agent will be as valid and effectual as if he or his agent were a person entrusted with, or in possession of, the goods under

the Factors Acts. A case recently decided (*Johnson v. the Credit Lyonnais Company*) will illustrate the purpose of this enactment. A, a tobacco broker, had 50 hogsheads of tobacco lying in dock for which warrants were issued to him. He sold it to B, who paid for it, but left the warrants in A's hands, and took no steps to have any change made in the books of the dock company as to the ownership. In the meantime A obtained advances on the tobacco from C and D, handing over to them the dock warrants. It was held that these transactions were not protected as against B; under the new Act such transactions are protected. The fourth section deals with cases in which goods have been sold, and the vendee has got possession of the documents of title, although some lien or other right remains to the vendor. Dealings with the vendee in respect of the goods, and in ignorance of the vendor's right, are protected. The fifth section protects *bona fide* transfers of documents of title for a previous vendor's lien or right of stoppage *in transitu*. (E. R.)

FACTORY ACTS. The long series of Factory Acts, culminating in the home secretary's bill of the present session (1878), constitutes one of the most important chapters in the history of modern English legislation. The Acts assert the right of the state to control the industrial organizations which depend upon the labour of women and children. As yet the freedom of the adult male labourer has been held sacred from the interference of the legislature, but it is necessarily involved, to some extent, in the protection exercised over persons whose co-operation is necessary to his work. The gradual rise of the important principle that, in the interests of the moral and physical well-being of the community, the labour of women and children should be restricted by law within reasonable limits may be seen by a glance at the Factory Bills introduced in parliament since the beginning of the century.

In 1802 an Act was passed "for the Preservation of the Health and Morals of Apprentices and others employed in Cotton and other Mills, and Cotton and other Factories." The immediate cause of passing this bill was the fearful spread throughout the factory district of Manchester of epidemic disease, which made dreadful havoc among the youthful labouring population on account of their scanty mode of living and peculiar way of working.¹ Pauper children from the agricultural districts of the south were sent to the northern counties to work in the factories which sprang up there in consequence of their superior supply of water-power. Their long hours of labour, the wretched accommodation provided for them, and the over-crowding of workmen in mills and factories, caused the alarming epidemic fevers of those times and districts. The Act of 1802 subjected all mills employing three or more apprentices, or twenty other persons, to the rules and regulations of the Act. The walls were to be washed with quicklime and water; a sufficient number of windows was to be provided; the apprentices were always to have two suits of clothing, one to be new every year. The most important regulation, however, was that which fixed the hours of work at twelve per day, and prohibited work altogether from 9 o'clock at night to 6 in the morning. This Act, being intended to meet the evils of the apprentice system, did not extend to factories where children residing in the neighbourhood were employed. The use of steam-power had meanwhile caused the growth of factories in populous town districts. In 1819 an Act was passed for the regulation of cotton mills: children were not to be admitted before the age of nine, and between that age and sixteen were restricted to twelve hours a day, exclusive of an hour and a half for meal-time

¹ Von Plenar, *Factory Legislation*, p. 1.

In 1825 Sir John Cam Hobhouse's Bill was passed, which established a partial holiday on Saturday, and provided penalties for offences against the Act. An amending Act was passed (10 Geo. IV. c. 51), and in 1831 (by the 1 and 2 Will. IV. c. 39) night work in the cotton factories was prohibited for persons between nine and twenty-one years of age; the working day for persons under eighteen was to be twelve hours, and on Saturdays nine. This was the time of the great political movement which brought about the Reform Act of 1832, and the factory question entered into and to some extent complicated the purely political issues. In the wool districts the unions of the working men clamoured for a restriction of non-adult labour in factories to ten hours a day, and their demand was supported by the Conservative and country party, out of opposition to the manufacturers, who were for the most part keen supporters of the Reform Bill. The wool factories had not been touched by the recent legislation, and the sufferings of the over-worked children appealed powerfully to the imagination of the public. After much discussion in committees and commissions, the Act of 1833 (3 and 4 Will. IV. c. 103) was passed. Night work (between 8.30 p.m. and 5.30 a.m.) was prohibited to persons under eighteen in cotton, wool, worsted, hemp, flax, tow, and linen spinneries and weaving mills; children from nine to thirteen were not allowed to work more than 48 hours a week; and young persons from thirteen to eighteen were restricted to 68 hours a week. In silk factories children might be admitted under nine, and children under thirteen were to be allowed ten hours a day. Provision was also made for school attendance and for the appointment of factory inspectors to watch over the working of the law. The manufacturers, dreading the economical results of the loss of children's labour, subsequently induced the Government to propose that children over eleven should be allowed to work the full time of 69 hours a week, but in the face of the agitation for greater restrictions this amendment was not persisted in.¹

The extension of the Factory Acts to unprotected industries now engaged the attention of philanthropists. A Mining Act (5 and 6 Vict. c. 99) was passed, which prohibited under-ground work to children under ten and women. In 1844 the Factory Act, 7 Vict. c. 15, was passed. Children from eight to thirteen might be employed in textile industries for not more than six hours and a half per day, but in factories where "young persons" restricted to ten hours a day were employed, children might also be employed for ten hours a day on alternate days. Children so employed had to attend school during the "half time." Adult women were brought under the same rules as "young persons." Lord Ashley's² Printworks Act followed in 1845. A Ten Hours Bill was at last carried in 1847 (10 Vict. c. 29). Women and young persons were restricted to ten hours a day, and the legal working day was fixed from 5.30 a.m. to 8.30 p.m. By employing protected persons in relays, manufacturers were enabled to keep their works going during the whole of the legal day; and to meet this evasion, as it was deemed to be, of the factory legislation a uniform working day was fixed, 13 and 14 Vict. c. 54. Young persons and women were allowed to work only between 6 a.m. and 6 p.m.—an hour and a half being allowed for meal-time. No protected person was to work on Saturday after 2 p.m. By the 16 and 17 Vict. c. 104,

¹ One of the consequences of the restrictions imposed on the employment of children was the increased use of machinery as a substitute. In 1835 (before the Factory Act), there were 56,455 children employed in 3164 factories; in 1838 (under the Factory Act), 29,283 children were employed in 4217 factories.—Von Plenar's *English Factory Legislation*, p. 22.

² Afterwards earl of Shaftesbury, whose name, more than any other, is entitled to be associated for ever with the English factory legislation.

children were limited to a legal day beginning at 6 a.m. and ending at 6 p.m. Bleaching and dyeing works were subjected to similar restrictions by Acts passed in 1860 and 1862, calendering and finishing works in 1863 and 1864. Lace factories were placed under the regulations of the Factories Acts by 24 and 25 Vict. c. 117. Night work in bakehouses was prohibited to young persons under eighteen, by 26 and 27 Vict. c. 40. After the report of a commission, a new Factory Acts Extension Act was passed (27 and 28 Vict. c. 48), which brought manufactories of earthenware, percussion caps, lucifer matches, and cartridges, paper-staining, and fustian-cutting within the scope of the factory legislation. In 1867 a distinction was drawn in legislation between factories and workshops. The Factory Acts Extension Act of that year applied to all furnaces, iron and copper works, machine manufactories, metal and gutta-percha factories, paper-mills, glass-works, printing offices, and bookbinders' shops, and to all establishments in which over 50 persons are employed for a period of a hundred days. Special modifications, however, were introduced to suit the requirements of the different trades. In the same year the Workshop Regulation Act was passed, for small trades and handicrafts, fixing the working day for children at 6 a.m. to 8 p.m., and for young persons and women from 5 a.m. to 9 p.m. Printing, bleaching, and dyeing works were brought under the general law by the Factory and Workshop Act 1870. In 1871 another Act with the same title was passed, which, *inter alia*, subjected Government factories to the general law. The Factory Act of 1874, the last of the series, raised the minimum of age in children to ten.

By these various enactments the state has emphatically taken under its protection the whole class of children and young persons employed in manufacturing industries. It has done this in the name of the moral and physical health of the community. The slow but steady advance of the principle of interference may be traced in the titles of the successive statutes. It is needless here to discuss the wisdom of the policy, which has now received *en bloc* the stamp of legislative approval. The substantive law of the Factories Acts has been re-enacted in a measure laid before parliament in the present session, which has already (May 1878) passed both Houses. In the debates in the Commons the only question of principle seriously raised was whether the freedom of adult women ought to be curtailed by legislative interference. Mr Fawcett's motion in the negative was rejected by a large majority.

The following outline will give some idea of the scope of the law relating to factories and workshops consolidated by the new measure:—

Part I. contains the general law relating to factories and workshops, under the following heads—(1) Sanitary Provisions; (2) Safety; (3) Employment and meal hours; (4) Holidays; (5) Education; (6) Certificates of fitness for employment; (7) Accidents.

(1.) Under the first head, the buildings must be kept in a clean state, and free from effluvia arising from any drain, privy, or other nuisance.

(2.) The second contains provisions for the fencing of dangerous machinery, and restrictions on the employment of children and young persons in cleaning, &c., machinery in motion.

(3.) A child, young person, or woman shall not be employed except during the period of employment fixed as follows:—

(a.) In textile factories.—For young persons and women, the period shall be from 6 a.m. to 6 p.m. or 7 a.m. to 7 p.m.; on Saturday, from 6 a.m. till 1 p.m. for manufacturing processes, and 1.30 for all employment, if one hour is allowed for meals; otherwise at 12.30 and 1. Or if the work begins at 7 a.m., it shall end on Saturdays at 1.30 and 2 p.m. respectively. For meal times two hours at least on week days, and on Saturdays half an hour, must be allowed. Continuous employment without a meal time of at least half an hour not to exceed four hours and a half.

(b.) For children. Employment to be for half time only (in morning or afternoon sets, or alternate days). The work-day is the same as