historiographie juridique de l’Europe pré-industrielle qui lui sert de toile de fond et surtout, dans l’expérience mûrissante que possède l’auteur des séries notariales et judiciaires marseillaises pour la période s’étendant du deuxième jusqu’au troisième quart du XIVᵉ siècle. De ces registres d’archives maintes fois parcourus, il restitue aux acteurs, à leurs litiges et à leurs « drames » une humanité de chair et de sang, une complexité et une profondeur que les études traditionnelles arrivent à peine à esquisser. En redonnant le discours aux justiciables, il réussit ainsi à tracer les caractères d’une société capable de transformer la justice par l’usage conscient et parfois abusif des rouages procéduriers en un objet de culture populaire. Toutefois, lorsqu’il s’aventure à expliquer en termes socio-économiques l’évolution de la culture juridique marseillaise entre la fin du XIIIᵉ siècle et le début du XVᵉ siècle, Daniel Smail se trouve sur un terrain beaucoup plus glissant. L’événement de la Peste noire et ses ramifications, le flux migratoire, l’emballissement des salaires et l’inflation galopante (la monnaie marseillaise, d’ailleurs, ne vaut 32 sous le florin qu’à partir de 1366; un laboureur gagne infiniment moins que la moitié des gages d’un magistrat au début du XIVᵉ siècle, alors que les salaires stipulés dans les contrats de travail dépassent de beaucoup ceux que la municipalité essaie en vain d’imposer aux travailleurs après 1348, d’où la valeur douteuse de tous les tableaux où figurent, amalgamées, les données monétaires de l’avant et de l’après-pesté), ont forcément envenimé les rapports sociaux plus qu’il n’en est fait mention dans The Consumption of Justice. En fin d’analyse, évitons de mésestimer la juste part jouée par l’argent dans le sentiment d’espoir de résolution qu’autorise le processus judiciaire, tout comme celui de satisfaction de voir restituer un avoir durement gagné ou du moins d’en limiter l’amenuisement.

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A stretch of the Vancouver Inland Island Highway near Cumberland demonstrates the enduring interest in socialist, labour leader, and anti-war activist Albert (Ginger) Goodwin, who is the subject of a new biography by Roger Stonebanks. Goodwin was killed in the bush near Cumberland in 1918 by a member of a group of Dominion Police Constables pursuing draft resisters. In 1996, when the section of the Inland Highway was completed, the New Democratic Party provincial government paid tribute to his memory by naming it the Ginger Goodwin Way. In 2001 Gordon Campbell’s right-wing Liberal government displayed its hostility toward organized labour by ordering the removal of the road signs marking the Ginger Goodwin Way.

Tracking all of the turns in the life of a migrant labourer, even one who gained as much prominence as Goodwin, can be a major challenge. He was born in the Yorkshire coal-mining town of Treeton in 1887 and began working in the mines at the age of 15. He migrated to Canada in 1906, working in the coal mines of Glace Bay, Nova Scotia, for four years until moving to British Columbia. Goodwin moved around
British Columbia frequently, working for the Crowsnest Coal Company in Michel until late 1910, calling Cumberland (near Nanaimo) home until late 1915, stopping briefly in Merritt and Fernie before securing work in Trail in early 1916, and returning to Cumberland to hide in the nearby mountains in 1918.

Stonebanks does a commendable job of pursuing Goodwin’s story across British Columbia, Canada, and the Atlantic Ocean. His reconstructions of each local setting that Goodwin confronted are especially strong, with vivid accounts of the (usually horrendous) living and working conditions in different mining towns in England and Canada.

Stonebanks particularly highlights how class conflict marked every stage in Goodwin’s life, starting with the miners’ strikes and evictions from company houses in Yorkshire during his childhood (p. 5). The book recounts the major strike at Glace Bay in 1909–1910 and the “Big Strike” by the United Mine Workers of America for recognition in the Vancouver Island coal mines in 1912–1914.

Furthermore, Fighting for Dignity effectively documents Goodwin’s rapid rise in the labour and socialist movements, including his candidacy for the Socialist Party of Canada (SPC) in the provincial election in 1916, his election to executive positions in the Trail Trades and Labor Council, District 6 of the International Union of Mine, Mill, and Smelter Workers (IUMMSW), and the British Columbia Federation of Labor, as well as his leadership role in the IUMMSW strike at Cominco’s smelter in Trail in 1917. Shortly after this strike began, Goodwin’s conscription status was changed from medically unfit to fit for service. Goodwin refused to report, and, after appeals of his reclassification were rejected, he went into hiding in April 1918.

The book also brings Goodwin to life by capturing how he had a second passion and outlet for his talent: soccer. Goodwin starred in a number of local soccer teams and was part of the Michel team that became champions of the Crowsnest Pass Football League in 1910.

Perhaps most impressive is Stonebanks’s treatment of Goodwin’s death and the events that followed. Fighting for Dignity features a remarkable amount of information on the Dominion Police Constables who searched for draft resisters, particularly on the past of Goodwin killer, Daniel Campbell. It documents the widespread outrage within the ranks of organized labour over the killing, which led to the first general strike in British Columbia on August 2, 1918. Stonebanks also outlines the evidence brought before first the coroner’s inquest and later, after Campbell was charged with manslaughter, a preliminary hearing. All of this material brings home the extent of the miscarriage of justice perpetrated by a grand jury in Victoria, which refused to indict Campbell and send the case to trial.

When it comes to placing Goodwin in the political context of this period, Stonebanks is not quite as effective. To be sure, he provides the reader with a solid grounding in the basics of Goodwin’s thought. Stonebanks is particularly successful at capturing Goodwin’s anti-war rhetoric, such as his claim that the “real trouble was that the masters’ interests were endangered through competition with each other, and they called upon their slaves to fight it out” (p. 67). Nevertheless, precisely how Goodwin fit into the wider spectrum of socialist thinking in early-twentieth-century British Columbia remains somewhat murky.
The weakest part of the book is the chapter in which trial lawyer Adrian Brooks speculates as to what might have happened in the trial of Constable Campbell for manslaughter. To be sure, Brooks displays an impressive knowledge of legal strategies and procedures. However, even such well-informed speculation is unsatisfying, especially given that Stonebanks shows at length, in his treatment of the grand jury’s decision not to indict, that legal proceedings can produce the most bizarre and outrageous results.

There are also some stylistic and editing concerns. Parts of the book are blemished by considerable amounts of repetition. In a particularly jarring instance, Stonebanks reuses one of the most dramatic passages in the book. In the opening paragraph of the introduction, Stonebanks describes the party that searched for Goodwin and notes that one of the guides was “a famous cougar hunter. But the prey this day was human” (p. 1). In the opening of chapter 6, one reads again that the guide was “well known as a cougar hunter on Vancouver Island. The prey this time, however, was human” (p. 92).

Despite these drawbacks, Stonebanks’s work will be of interest to both scholars and activists interested in organized labour and the working class, socialism and leftism, and the history of British Columbia. Above all, for those who remain inspired by Goodwin’s charisma, experiences, and activism or who remain interested in the mystery behind the events leading up to and following his murder, *Fighting for Dignity* is essential reading.

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This book argues that no other technological innovation before 1914 had the impact of the railroad on Brazil’s economy, decreasing transport costs as much as one order of magnitude between 1860 and 1900. Brazil, like the United States, made extensive use of shipping by water, but largely in the form of coastal shipping rather than river transport. In judging the impact of railroads, William Summerhill therefore chooses to compare railroad transport with pre-rail forms of overland transport.

Following in the steps of Robert Fogel, Albert Fishlow, John Coatsworth, and others who have measured the economic impact of railroads elsewhere, Summerhill uses a counterfactual approach to show how great were the “social savings” produced by the railroads. That is, he establishes the savings that railroads provided by estimating the costs that would have been incurred for moving the same amount of goods (and passengers) by pre-rail means of overland transport — chiefly by muleback.

Railroads were the most important category of British investments in Brazil, and “easily the most expensive” investment projects in the country in the nineteenth century. The Brazilian government attracted foreign (largely British) investment, prima-