THE AMERICAN REVOLUTION: AN ESSAY REVIEW

By RALPH ADAMS BROWN


For nearly two centuries the American Revolution has been the focus of both attention and interest throughout the world. As the earliest of the world's great revolutions, it foreshadowed not only the collapse of the French monarchy in 1789 but the many political upheavals of the nineteenth and twentieth centuries. We now approach the 200th anniversary of that political and military conflict, a struggle that led to the creation of a federal republic, the United States of America. This anniversary will certainly spawn a great procession of books dealing with events between the years from 1775 to 1783. The four volumes being here considered may be typical of the many new studies and syntheses that will be published in the coming decade.

Professor Greene of the Johns Hopkins University is rapidly establishing himself as one of the foremost scholars working in the period of the Revolution. Some historians excel at research, while others, relying largely on the research of their fellows, become well known through their synthesis or their interpretation. Professor Greene has demonstrated superiority in both respects.

The present volume would seem to have been planned for use with college classes, yet all but the specialist in this period will benefit from reading it. The volume is really two: the editor's introduction of 75 pages, and the 24 selections which make up the body of the book. In his preface the editor has written that,

This anthology is intended to be neither comprehensive nor representative of the vast body of literature on the era of the American Revolution: it includes no statements of earlier interpretations and reflects my personal point of view at this time. What it is intended to do is collect in one volume many of the more significant shorter
The long introductory essay provides a stimulating and well documented "reappraisal" of the American Revolution as gleaned from the historical literature of the past two decades. The first fifteen pages survey the historical literature of the Revolution down to the end of World War II, omitting any consideration of the writings of those of the Revolutionary generation—such as Ramsay, Gordon, Warren, Proud and Belknap. This attention to "Earlier Conceptions" is divided into three parts: the Whigs, the Imperialists, and the Progressives. The latter section, more complete than the first two, is especially well done.

Professor Greene suggests that "Since World War II a new group of scholars has subjected the writings of the Imperial and Progressive historians to a massive, critical reassessment." He suggests further that this "massive, critical reassessment" has been concerned with seven major problems:

1) the nature of the relationship between Britain and the colonies prior to 1763; 2) the nature of social and political life within the colonies and its relationship to the coming of the Revolution; 3) the reasons for the estrangement of the colonies from Britain between 1763 and 1776; 4) the explanations for the behavior of the British government and its supporters in the colonies between 1763 and the loss of the colonies in 1783; 5) the revolutionary consequences of the Revolution; 6) the character of the movement for the Constitution of 1787 and its relationship to the Revolution; and 7) the nature and meaning of the Revolution to the men who lived through it.

In nearly sixty pages of tightly written and carefully identified analysis, he appraises the efforts of historians to re-examine and analyze these seven problems. The problems also become the divisions under which he groups the 24 selections that make up the body of the book.

There is a helpful index, unusual in a volume of this type. More than 130 footnotes in the introduction provide a generous amount of bibliographical information. The one-page "Selective Bibliography" seems designed for the curious undergraduate. Both the keen perception evidenced in the introduction and the breadth of selection make this an unusually worthwhile book. Even the specialist in the period of the Revolution will enjoy it; all others will find it provocative and rewarding.

Alan Valentine is the author of rather good biographies of two British leaders of this period: Lord George Germain and Lord North: The Age of Conformity. In this present work he has turned to one of the least known of the patriot generals and has sought to prove him more worthy of respect and admiration than has been commonly thought.

William Alexander, son of James who came from Scotland in 1715, became a wealthy and socially prominent country gentleman, with a manor seat in New Jersey. He speculated in real estate and engaged in several different business and mercantile ventures. When the title of Lord Stirling
fell vacant in 1739, William Alexander claimed it. In the 1750's he lived in London for several years while he pressed his claim to the title and the very extensive land holdings in the New World that went with it. He gained some success in Scotland, but the House of Lords refused to recognize his claims and he returned to the colony of New Jersey in 1761.

For the next decade and a half, Alexander lived in sumptuous style at his new country manor in Basking Ridge. Here he constantly used the title he had never legally acquired—Lord Stirling. Taking his stand with the patriots at the outbreak of hostilities, he became a brigadier in the Continental Line, saw action in many battles, and served in several political and judicial capacities. His military career has never been carefully studied but tradition has labelled him an inept bungler. It is this evaluation that Mr. Valentine has tried to correct.

The author succeeds in telling a pleasant tale and in portraying an interesting and colorful personality. Yet in this biography, somewhat marred as it is by error and weakened by overstatement and a lack of judiciousness, there is no evidence that Lord Stirling (called such by Washington throughout the war) was an effective leader or even a good tactician. Washington trusted his courage and his loyalty but never gave him important command. Perhaps that is the best key to William Alexander as a soldier. In the absence of other studies, however, this account of the only "lord" in the patriot army will be of interest to many who avidly read about our War for Independence.

For many years American historians ignored the Loyalists of the American Revolution. This is not strange, nor is it unusual. After a struggle has ended the losers of every violent controversy have been ignored by the victors. In the mid-nineteenth century, Sabine remarked that American historians had tended to associate success with virtue. Of late years, however, there have been more attempts on the part of historians to understand and to do justice to the men who chose the losing side in 1776. The following books, by Benton and Upton, fall into this category.

William Allen Benton concerns himself with those colonials who were critical of Parliament during the controversial years between 1765 and 1775, but who, when the final decision had to be made, chose to remain loyal to their King and Empire. Calling these men the "Whig-Loyalists," he has chosen nine of them for study: William Smith, Jr., and Peter Van Schaack of New York, William Samuel Johnson of Connecticut, Daniel Leonard and Benjamin Church of Massachusetts, Andrew Allen of Pennsylvania, Robert Alexander and Daniel Dulany of Maryland, and William Byrd, III, of Virginia. The author sets forth his concept of Whig-Loyalism in an introduction which he closes as follows,

The Whig-Loyalists did not become Tories in 1776. They continued to distinguish themselves from the Tories during and after the war. Thus they did not conform to the ideological pattern of either Whigs or Tories. By studying the Whig-Loyalists, one can see the danger of polarizing all Americans in the revolutionary era into
two neat groups. One can also better understand the large element of conservatism in the philosophy of the American Whigs, as well as the strength of American attachment to the British empire.

In his first chapter Dr. Benton attempts to sketch the lives of his nine prototypes. With Smith and Johnson he makes good use of manuscript sources, but the others are largely based on secondary works. Restrictions of space, perhaps of research as well, limit the effectiveness of these biographical essays. Following chapters detail the role of the Whig-Loyalists, especially his chosen nine, during three controversial periods: those of the Stamp Act, the Townshend Acts, and the bishopric argument. The author deals carefully with the crisis over tea, but this chapter suffers more than others from limitations of organization. There is attention to the decisions on independence and the activities of the nine men after their decision to remain within the empire.

These nine men differed from most Tories in that they supported the patriot side in the early controversies; this is easy to accept. The author's contention that they were ideologically different from and not to be confused with the bulk of the Tories is more difficult to establish. Benton notes that "the Whig-Loyalists believed that the Empire was linked together by indissoluble bonds." This attachment to the Empire, he holds, prevented them from maintaining a "whiggish" position after July, 1776. Not happy with the actions of an arbitrary Parliament,

The Whig-Loyalists disliked the idea of an aristocratic, centralized empire of the kind Galloway proposed as much as did the Patriots. They differed with men like Adams and Henry in that they conceived of the British empire as a tangible community beneficial to all its parts. They were willing to accept some restrictions upon American liberty to maintain the existence of the community; the Patriots were not.

The author's final conclusion is that,

The existence of a political philosophy such as Whig-Loyalism demonstrates the depth and strength of American attachment to the British empire. The Loyalist cause, as of 1776, consisted not merely of the long beleaguered Tories who were isolated, hardened and embittered by a decade of abuse from patriotic agitators, but also of important last minute Whig recruits, men of ability and vigor who had helped to shape the revolutionary cause. These men, motivated by affection for the empire and by fear of social upheaval, could not accept Thomas Jefferson's call to dissolve the long established political bands that tied the empire together and rejected the concept of independence.

Dr. Benton has written a provocative little volume. It is somewhat marred by careless proofreading and more so by unsound generalizations and a tendency to oversimplification. To quote one of Catherine Bowen's "conversations" as though it were established fact will make many a scholar wince. Finally, his rationale of a power struggle between two oligarchies and his explanation of the motives of the Whig-Loyalists may
not be generally accepted. Yet there is a need for studies of this kind. In an area too little explored, Dr. Benton has dared to pioneer. His book deserves to be read and carefully discussed.

Professor L. F. S. Upton of the department of history at the University of British Columbia has long been interested in one of the nine men considered as “Whig-Loyalists” by Dr. Benton. Upton has previously edited two volumes made up of selections from the diary and some of the public papers of William Smith, Jr. Now he has written a full-length study of this important and often controversial figure.

Able, aggressive and ambitious, William Smith as a young man seemed always on the outer fringe of the social and political elite. He established a reputation for dedication to the cause of religious liberty and freedom of the press. Yet at the same time he appeared to be zealous in the pursuit of his own economic advancement. A self-proclaimed Whig who opposed the Stamp Act with vehemence, he was also a member of the famous Triumvirate and a contributor of importance to the Independent Reflector. Yet he courted the favor of those in power in a frequently obsequious manner and his private life was marked by a mixture of avarice and caution.

When protest became revolution, Smith withdrew from the public stage. Eventually he espoused the British cause, and was richly rewarded by an appointment as Chief Justice of Quebec. His contemporaries, admittedly most of them from the “other side,” saw him as selfish, greedy, and an opportunist who misjudged the outcome of the war. Professor Upton, from the vantage point of two centuries and a great deal of careful research, gives him credit for philosophical consistency and a sincere attachment to the empire. In this respect his judgment is similar to Dr. Benton’s.

Was Smith an “eloquent visionary,” determined to preserve the British empire through constructive change? Or was he a selfish, greedy, somewhat petty man, dominated by caution and unable to see the inherent weakness of the British position? Professor Upton has one answer with which not everyone will agree.

There is no question, however, about the importance and the merit of this work. The evidence of research in primary sources is most impressive. The author has obviously cogitated long over the problems William Smith faced. No one who pretends even an elementary understanding of the Loyalist position can ignore this study. Furthermore, it is always well, and sometimes brilliantly written. Thus an important book is also a delight to read.

State University of New York
State College at Cortland

RALPH ADAMS BROWN


If this award-winning volume had a subtitle it might be “a case study of an alliance between a great power and an emerging nation.” Yet neither the diplomacy of the alliance nor the American Revolution are central to
the work. Rather it is a perceptive study of how American political decision making and governmental policies were influenced by, a the existence of the alliance, b the financial and military aid which it provided, and c the political guidance offered by French agents between 1778 and the Peace of 1783.

Dr. Stinchcombe finds significant and continuing differences between the reactions of American "radicals" and "moderates" to an alliance which both saw as essential. His radicals react pragmatically. They believe that self-interest determined French policy. The radicals move with caution as they turn to the problems of peacemaking because they suspect that the French regard as expendable both American claims to western lands and the projected commercial clauses of the peace treaty. His moderates see French intervention as shortening the war and reducing the possibility of internal social revolution. They accept at face value French pledges of support for American peace terms.

The chapters on Gerard and Luzerne shed particular light on how and through whom the French worked to influence the formation of policy by the Congress of the Confederation. Gerard's failure as an ambassador stemmed from his belief that critical appraisal of French policies threatened the alliance as did too great insistence on points of national honor. Consequently he violated his instructions by taking sides in domestic quarrels, most notably in the Deane-Lee dispute. His meddling alienated the Adams-Lee radical bloc and created barriers to effective contact with important segments of congressional opinion. Luzerne avoided Gerard's errors and established himself on a very different basis with Congress. Both ambassadors used French gold to promote support for policies which furthered French interests. Stinchcombe discusses the services of several of the paid agents including Hugh Henry Brackenridge, Rev. Samuel Cooper and John Sullivan. Completion of the framework of the central government became a French goal, and French pressure probably accounts for the absence of Daniel Jennifer when the Maryland legislature broke its deadlock to ratify the Articles.

Luzerne used French subsidies, the promise of military aid, and congressional dependence upon the French treasury for loans in the manoeuvres taken to insure French control of the peacemaking. His greatest triumph was the instructions of 1781 to the peace commissioners. He also succeeded in displacing Adams by a commission representing the various sections. He recognized that conflicting sectional interests might serve as a check and provide openings for French manipulation of the commissioners. The chapters on the French diplomats and their methods are based upon extensive use of their correspondence and reports. Luzerne is judged to have been far more skillful than Gerard in understanding the nature of the revolutionary movement and in influencing American policy making.

Concerning the instructions of 1781, Stinchcombe holds that the proviso requiring the Commissioners to consult the French foreign minister and to accept his guidance represents a significant limitation of congressional power. It restricted congressional freedom to modify or revoke the instruc-
BOOK REVIEWS AND BOOK NOTES

These considerations have previously been ignored because customarily attention has been directed to the Commissioners' circumvention of the instruction requiring them to consult. Here, as elsewhere, the volume provides rewarding insights because the author approaches his materials from a fresh perspective.

An integral part of Dr. Stinchcombe's thesis is the argument that Americans believed the alliance to be a temporary expedient which would not last beyond independence. Structurally the volume closes with a chapter on the end of the alliance in 1783. It cites numerous instances in which this expectation is expressed. But at this point the only serious flaw in the volume arises because the entire thrust of the chapter is that the alliance terminated with the signing of the Peace of Paris of 1783. This ignores the important fact that, although the first section of the Treaty of Alliance created a wartime alliance which became effective when France went to war with Britain and ended with the peace treaty, Section XI provided for a perpetual defensive alliance. Since this is a study of the wartime alliance, its point of termination in 1783 is defensible. But there were embarrassing survivals of the alliance which conditioned American diplomacy between 1783 and 1800. The unwary reader should be alerted to the fact that a French connection continued to exist and was of diplomatic significance long after the peace was made.

Dickinson College

Warren J. Gates


The year 1765 was momentous for the American colonies and Benjamin Franklin, as the twelfth volume of The Papers of Benjamin Franklin shows. As an agent for Pennsylvania, Franklin attempted to prevent the passage of the Stamp Act by offering an alternative tax and was instrumental in modifying the Quartering Act of 1765. Franklin not only worked against the Stamp Act at the legislative level, but once the Act was passed he also wrote letters to London papers against it. In so doing he planted himself firmly on the side of his fellow Americans. While the Papers reveal Franklin as a man with the same problems as any other mortal—carpenters behind schedule in building his home, his wife unable to keep accurate household accounts, indigent relatives requesting assistance—they also show Franklin's amazingly wide interests. He wrote, for instance, an informed essay on music, and experimented with electricity on the deaf.

But the Stamp Act dominates this volume. When minister George Grenville challenged American agents to provide an alternative to the Stamp tax, Franklin (with assistance from Thomas Pownall) presented him with a paper money scheme. As the editors point out, this plan would have given the colonies a system of legal tender and would have presented
a more palatable method of raising revenue than a direct tax. Grenville, “besotted with his Stamp-Scheme,” as Franklin recalled in 1766, rejected the paper money system. This scheme will doubtless appear again in the next volume of the Papers, for Franklin also gave it to the Rockinghamites. “When it fell into their hands,” he wrote Galloway in 1766, they “took a fancy to it . . . and really strengthened one another and their friends in the resolution of repealing the Stamp Act.” In short, the paper money scheme failed to prevent Grenville from initiating the Stamp Act, but it might well have facilitated the repeal of the same legislation.

By offering the Ministry an alternative Franklin made clear his dislike of the Stamp measure. But as his correspondence indicates he was completely unprepared for the American response to it. David Hall complained to Franklin in June that the Pennsylvania Gazette had already lost 500 subscribers who refused to pay the tax, and Thomas Wharton observed that the Act deprived colonists of their essential rights as Englishmen. Franklin’s immediate reply to such complaints was: “Frugality and Industry will go a great way towards indemnifying us. Idleness and Pride Tax with a heavier Hand then [sic] Kings and Parliaments; if we can get rid of the former we may easily bear the Latter.”

If Franklin was prepared to accept the tax, the Virginia Assembly clearly was not. Wharton sent Franklin a copy of the Virginia Resolves which “were brought into the House by a Young Member, Who received a Reprimand from the House therefor.” The young member was unquestionably Patrick Henry. Of equal interest, Galloway informed Franklin that upon learning of the Resolves, Virginia’s Governor Fauquier “procured from the Clerk the Original Minutes of the House, tore them out, and instantly Dissolved the Assembly.” This is the only evidence that the governor mutilated the House minutes. Franklin found “the Rashness of the Assembly in Virginia . . . amazing!” He hoped Pennsylvania would “keep within the Bounds of Prudence and Moderation”; that was “the only way to lighten or get clear of our Burthens.” Loyalty to the crown and adherence to the government would always be the wisest recourse for colonists, he believed. Obviously Franklin was not yet ready to join forces with the radicals in America.

Indeed, Franklin might never have joined the patriotic cause if mobs that threatened it had destroyed his new home. His political enemies had spread the story that he was responsible for the passage of the Stamp Act, a good example where American politicians used British actions for their own ends. At the height of the crisis in Pennsylvania Franklin’s wife Deborah armed herself and called in friends and relatives to protect their home. Yet it was not only Franklin’s enemies and the proprietary party in Pennsylvania who opposed the Stamp Act; members of Franklin’s party, Galloway lamented, had also joined in opposition to it. “Too many of our friends were inclind to unite with these wretches in this Measure.” Galloway noted. Party lines apparently blurred in some cases as individuals joined together in opposing English legislation.

Although Franklin did not yet fit James Harris’s 1766 description of
him—"a most complete American, a perfect anti-Britain"—he did indicate in his letters to the press that he disapproved of British colonial policies. With other agents Franklin opposed the Quartering Act of 1765 by observing in a London paper that Americans needed no "military aid"; colonists "dread no enemy but the mother country." If British legislators wanted to quarter soldiers in private dwellings, let them first test the act in England: "Parental example may produce filial obedience." In opposition to the Stamp Act, Franklin conceded that Parliament might have the right to tax the colonists. Nonetheless it was an unwise move. Englishmen "are secure in their property, because no tax can be laid on them but what is equally borne by those persons who impose it . . . , but they bear no part of what are laid on the Colonies." Franklin avoided the complex constitutional aspects of the tax debate in 1765, preferring instead to use reason and common sense in the defense of America.

The editors continue to bring to these volumes of Papers brief, accurate and learned commentary. For example, they present convincing evidence that Franklin wrote the preface to Poor Richard in 1765 before his partnership with Hall was dissolved, and they clarify various aspects of the paper money scheme, showing in addition how Thomas Pownall later incorporated the scheme into his famous pamphlet. Those who have examined the original Franklin papers can appreciate the dimension of the editors' achievement. Franklin writes in a neat, readable script, but many of his correspondents' handwriting is almost impossible to decipher. All Franklin scholars are indebted to the editors for making the task of research less onerous.

Wisconsin State University, Oshkosh

Robert J. Chaffin


The name on the cover of this book, Lawrence Henry Gipson, indicates the excellence of this bibliography, and its length shows the depth of his research concerning the British Empire before the American Revolution. More than forty years after Professor Gipson announced the beginning of his multi-volume history, the appearance of this volume, along with one more as yet unpublished book concerning manuscript sources, marks the conclusion of one of the most monumental research projects by a living American historian.

Through some thirteen volumes the author meticulously documented his research in copious footnotes. The detailed research shown in the footnotes became a hallmark of Professor Gipson's diligence and ability which won for him major book awards. Further his multi-volume history of The British Empire before the American Revolution has become the standard source for the imperial approach to the study of the British colonies between 1748 and 1776. Now, at the conclusion of the series, this
lengthy bibliography demonstrates not only the extent of Gipson's research but also his interest in being of service to future generations of scholars who may study the imperial problems of the eighteenth century.

As originally conceived the bibliography was to have contained only primary and secondary material actually used in the preparation of the preceding thirteen volumes. But as the years passed and the number of studies concerning this period multiplied, Professor Gipson realized that his bibliography needed to include the most recent results of historical research to be completely useful. Thus the contents embrace not only the sources that he originally used but also the new material he added in the revision of his first four volumes, as well as all pertinent newly published scholarship up to 1967 dealing broadly with the British Empire from 1748 to 1776.

Gipson, perhaps more than anyone else, realized that his multi-volume history was, as he described it, "but one student's interpretation of the course of events within the British Empire during the quarter of a century preceding the Declaration of Independence. . . ." Yet in his "one student's interpretation," his research has been catholic, and this is reflected in the bibliography. The information cited ranges from the most general bibliographical aids to the inclusion of articles on minute subjects. Clearly it is a bibliography of British imperial history between 1748 and 1776, because, in addition to covering the British Isles and the American colonies, he also includes citations for the British West Indies, the Falkland Islands, India, and the Mediterranean area. Within each chapter, both primary and secondary sources are listed, including governmental sources and contemporary secondary studies.

Usually the full bibliographical citation is given without annotation, but occasionally the author makes pertinent comments concerning some of the entries. When he cites a work which he considers worthy, Gipson succinctly writes, "An important work." When he disagrees with a historian, such as Sir Lewis Namier, Gipson notes this fact in his annotations. Professor Gipson indicates the use of his bibliography when he writes, "The present volume . . . will, I trust, be of service not only to the advanced history scholar but also to others." The book is designed to be helpful to the beginner as well as the advanced scholar. This purpose is accomplished remarkably well. It is the most comprehensive bibliography in this field of study and as such it will become the standard beginning point for anyone doing research. Obviously Gipson accomplished his purpose of compiling both an extensive and usable bibliography.

This bibliography is a monument to historical research by an outstanding American scholar. More than this, it is a beginning for future scholars who seek to cover some of the same historical territory which Gipson has explored. But finally, and perhaps most importantly, it is a challenge to American historians to be as thorough, accurate, and encompassing in their own research.

University of Georgia  JAMES L. ANDERSON

Cornwall, the westernmost county of England, is a peninsula of land jutting into the Atlantic Ocean. Protected by geography, like Wales and Scotland, it was never overrun during those Anglo-Saxon and Viking invasions of the fifth through eleventh centuries which so decisively altered the ethnic composition of the rest of England. Thus the Cornish are today a Celtic people, whose land, with its 350 miles of coastline and rich mineral deposits, helped to form both their passion for the sea and their reputation as miners of tin and copper.

The outstanding living Cornishman, Dr. A. L. Rowse, who has previously given us portraits of Cornwall in Tudor Cornwall, St. Austell: Church, Town, Parish, and in his autobiographical A Cornish Childhood, has now written about the impact of his people upon the United States. The Cousin Jacks attempts to trace the history and influence of the Cornish in America, while not neglecting (as some books of this kind do) the effect of the new world upon the immigrants. Here Dr. Rowse strikes a nice balance. His book is clearly a labor of love and we may agree with the author's careful and modest conclusion that "the Cornish have been a distinctive element and made their contribution not without significance."

Most of the book is devoted to an account of the various geographical regions which received the Cornish. Dr. Rowse makes the point that the immigrants settled mainly in mining centers, from which some drifted into cities. There were proportionately many Cornishmen in California during the Gold Rush and in the Rocky Mountain states, but few in the Old South. The author also notes that the Cornish were not a literary people, being more at home with pick and shovel than pen. Hence, the importance of this book, which does contribute to a hitherto largely neglected sector of American immigrant history. But one is impressed after reading the numerous life stories of the Cornish in the United States that a reason for neglect is that, like other Englishmen, the Cornishman, with the benefit of a common language, the Protestant religion, and an individualistic character, mixed easily into American society in the nineteenth and early twentieth centuries.

Italians, Jews and Irish were, for varying reasons, more vocal as well as more numerous. Like these people the Cornish worked hard but they also more readily accepted the prevailing values in the new society and were content to prosper quietly and to form few ethnic enclaves or societies which looked back longingly upon the old country. The progress of John Spargo from socialist propagandist to violent anti-Communist, and (as a reward from President Calvin Coolidge) leadership of the Vermont Sesquicentennial Commission, is perhaps more than the record of one man's "coming to terms with reality." Like the frequent anglicizing of surnames, it is a reflection of the Cornishman's comparatively easy passage into an American.

The author notes that "of all the old colonies along the Atlantic Coast it would seem that the Cornish contribution to the splendid province of
Pennsylvania was the most varied and interesting, perhaps the most influential." As early as the 1680's there were Cornish immigrants, and their numbers increased considerably during the nineteenth century. Growdens, Foxes, Rawles and Penroses played prominent roles in the life of the Commonwealth for generations, while today one finds Cornish names in every corner of Pennsylvania. While noting the role of Senator Boies Penrose in maneuvering Warren G. Harding into the presidency, the author missed the opportunity of pointing out that Harding's famous mistress bore the Cornish surname of Britton. In Pennsylvania the largest single occupation group among these immigrants was the miners, but there were many farming families as well. Although Pennsylvania produces almost all of America's anthracite coal, few Cornish remained in the pits; as the author notes, coal-mining was a province of the Welsh.

Dr. Rowse's treatment of the Cornish in Pennsylvania is typical of his approach to other states. Cornish contributions are discussed, the fortunes of prominent families traced, and numerous individual histories are mentioned. Here, his tendency to rely upon the telephone book as a guide to the diffusion of Cornishmen throughout America is not without risk. A Cornish name such as Vivian or Tremaine encountered in turning over the pages of this impersonal source may belong to an American Negro or to a family from the continent which altered its original name to one more typically "American." Perhaps the author's assertion that there are today eight to ten times the number of Cornish folk, by name or descent, in the United States than there are in Cornwall, is exaggerated.

This is a characteristic Rowse book; well researched, smoothly written and with pointed obiter dicta. This reviewer agrees with Rowse's opinion that America in the nineteenth century was "A far more exciting America than the middle-class America of today, with its sense of guilt, its professed lack of confidence, its apologetics, its habit of standing superfluously in a white sheet for sins which it has not committed. . . ." It was certainly at that time a fit home for venturesome souls from overseas. The Cornish Americans, though small in numbers, deserve the attention which Dr. Rowse's book has accorded to their lives and achievements in an environment which was often so different from the neat and precise countryside which they left behind them. This work should stimulate the writing of some badly needed monographs.

Rutgers University

John W. Osborne


"Urban history," A. J. Dyos observes, "is the most newly discovered continent and into the scramble for it goes every kind of explorer." George Rogers has entered into this "scramble" in his contribution to "The Centers of Civilization Series." A native Charlestonian, he comes to his task well qualified by his previous work on William Loughton Smith and his co-editorship of the papers of Henry Laurens. Designed for non-specialist
readers, this volume is solidly based on original research, a wide acquaint-
ance with pertinent manuscript and published sources, and an intimate
knowledge of the art and architecture of Charleston.

Rogers deals with Charleston’s “golden age of commerce” and cultural
creativity—the century extending from the prosperous decade of the 1730’s
to the economically-depressed 1820’s, which culminated in the nullification
movement. It was during these years too that the Pinckney family was
influential “at every major step in South Carolina’s history.” While the
role of the Pinckneys is skillfully sketched, the contributions of other
Charlestonians are not overlooked, and the primary emphasis throughout
is on providing a balanced picture of the economic, cultural and political
life of the city.

The initial chapter makes it clear that Charleston’s great age was
attributable to the city’s location on “the main Atlantic highway” in the
last century of the age of sailing vessels, and to its pre-eminence as the
rice port of America. “The change from sail to steam left Charleston be-
hind, far from the main east-west Atlantic ocean routes.” By the 1820’s
economic decline was setting in, as she failed to become the cotton port,
did not find the necessary business acumen to develop new industry, and
became increasingly sensitive to criticism of slavery.

Rogers skillfully relates these economic changes to one of his main
themes—the transformation of Charleston from the cosmopolitan “open
city” of the eighteenth century—to “the closed city” of the 1830’s, idolizing
its past and relentlessly attempting to build a monolithic society. He main-
tains that “what kept the society open in the eighteenth century were the
new avenues to wealth opened up by the wars of that century,” and notes
that Charleston was involved in war “either directly or indirectly during
almost half of her golden century.” After 1808 the forces which made
Charleston unique began to work. Although the Santo Domingo slave
revolt of 1791 had “a shaping influence on the mind of the city,” the
crucial factors were the panic of 1819, the Missouri Compromise debates
of 1820, and the Denmark Vesey insurrection of 1822. These “jolted the
city and changed ultimately her way of life—from a city that had looked
outward to one that henceforth looked inward.”

The author points up the continuing influence of the Negroes, not only
on the economy, but also on the accent, the architecture and the “mind”
of Charleston. He notes the burning of slaves for arson and poisoning in
the eighteenth century, the importance of the Work House (with its flogging
block and treadmill) in keeping slaves under control, the increasing fears
about free Negroes by the 1820’s, and the eventual idealization of a society
in which “one race should labor and one should cultivate civilization.” He
does not in fact tell us much about what Negroes thought but this is
undoubtedly difficult to ascertain.

The task of the successful urban historian is indeed a complex one, for he
must be, as Asa Briggs notes, “a historian of something else besides the
city—of families, business, social and political movements, buildings,
and of cultures and styles.” Rogers is eminently successful in adeptly
handling all of these facets of his subject in a volume which is notable for compression, readability and modest price. Perhaps the latter fact explains the lack of maps of the city and the inclusion of only one line drawing. There is a bibliographical note but no footnotes.

*Florida Presbyterian College*  
William C. Wilbur


The Ephrata Cloister and Johann Conrad Beissel have received extensive literary treatment over many years. Snow Hill Cloister in Franklin County, Pennsylvania, the child of the Ephrata monastic community, has now received due and full attention. Frederick S. Weiser, the editor of this publication for the Society, explains the significance and importance of this study. "Snow Hill Cloister was a little Ephrata in many ways... perhaps more successful: it had a good economic basis,... it left a tremendous body of German devotional literature... Snow Hill produced its share of Fractur, too, and of imprints, made on the old Ephrata press."

Treher's excellent account of Snow Hill answers the questions: how a cloister came to Franklin County, how it developed and faded, and what were the differences inherent in Snow Hill from Ephrata. It is amazing to read that from this Protestant "quasi-monasticism" of the Seventh Day German Baptists, begun in 1798, still survive today (despite historians' oversight) the original cloister building which houses the bells, spinning wheels, candle-making molds, dishes, furniture, broadsides, and manuscripts.

Located near Antietam Creek, from which the earlier Antietam Baptist congregation acquired its name, the site of Snow Hill was acquired by warrant in 1763 by Catherine Snowberger, sister to the Swiss immigrant Hans Snowberger. The Pennsylvania provincial land office named the tract of some 130 acres, "Snowhill," as an appropriate equivalent for the name "Schneeberger." The author's life cycle treatment of this later Snow Hill establishment includes excellent biographical portrayals of the leadership—Peter Lehman, George Adam Martin, Andrew Fahnestock, and Obed Snowberger, the last remaining brother. "The Snow Hill Cloister came to an end with the closing of the common dining room on March 29, 1889."

May we hope that the present trustees of the property will guarantee the restoration and preservation of this cloister. The author is to be commended for offering his excellent manuscript for publication to The Pennsylvania German Society. We question the need for the extended introductory account of the Ephrata Cloister and its religious aspects; the reader may find himself impatient to get to the Snow Hill Cloister story.

It is difficult to review, within review limits, a volume of such merit appearing in two parts. About two-thirds of the contents present, under the editorship of Dr. Barba, 112 poems written by the congenial dialect
poet, Ralph Funk, who is also a collector of poems by other Pennsylvania German dialect poets. Funk's own poems appear in six volumes, with a total of 331 poems composed in a period of over thirty years. The poems here selected appear in nine categories: Die Mudderschproch, Lore and Customs, The Seasons, Aspects of Nature, Anecdotal Poems, The Long Ago, Reflective Poems, Occasional Poems, and Autobiographical Poems. Funk, however, to our dialectal delight, applies to some of his volumes such titles as: Yuscht Narrheite (Just Nonsense), Schnitzel Schpee (Whittling Chips), etc. His skill in versification touches on the everyday humor and pathos of the Pennsylvania German life that has almost vanished. He expresses it in these lines:

Mei Haz iss voll Gedanke
Vun Hiwwel, Busch un Feld,
Vun Sunneschein un Schadde,
Un Schpring, wu's Wasser gwellt.

Aware that Pennsylvania German dialect poetry may cease to be written, he wrote in 1952:

Die deitsche Dichter fallen ab,
Sin viel schunn in der Ruh;
'S macht in de letschte fufzeh Yaahr
Mancher die Aaage zu.

We trust that the Pennsylvania German Society has printed a large edition of Volume Two. Without minimizing the importance of the Snow Hill section, a reprinting of Funk's poetry might well be considered.

Lehigh County Historical Society

Melville J. Boyer


Brother Fidelian Burk writes, “What has been set down here in rich detail is the chronicle of an institution. . . .” These words of the academic vice-president of La Salle College succinctly cover the contents of this book. Brother Thomas J. Donaghy's historical training at both Catholic and secular universities, his membership in the Community of Christian Brothers, and his service on the faculty and administrative staff at La Salle College make him well qualified to undertake this study.

When St. Joseph's College closed in 1862 Catholic higher education ceased in Philadelphia. To overcome this deficiency, Bishop James Frederick Wood turned to the Christian Brothers who already operated the city based St. Michael's School. He asked its director, Brother Tellow, to incorporate and expand this secondary school to include a collegiate division. The subsequent Act of Incorporation secured during the spring of 1863 marked the beginning of La Salle College.
Fight for survival characterized much of the history of the college during its first sixty years. Because the basic organizational structure remained highly centralized in the office of the president, the ability of each president (there were fourteen before 1922) largely determined the fortunes of the school. Men such as Brother Noah (1872-1875) and Brother Denis Edward (1911-1917) provided high quality leadership, while others such as Brother Joachim (1876) permitted the school to almost collapse.

Throughout these six decades the need for adequate funds and buildings plagued the administration. In 1867 and again in 1886 the college moved to new quarters. This pressure for space originated in the increased number of secondary students rather than undergraduates. The secondary and commercial departments, in fact, greatly overshadowed the collegiate in terms of enrollment and importance as the income producing sector of the school. While the total number of students almost always exceeded two hundred, less than forty of these attended the college division. The small size of the student body, coupled with a relatively well qualified faculty of both lay and religious professors, meant that the undergraduate received, "What was tantamount to individual instruction. . . ." In addition to a liberal arts program, the college had developed by 1920 special curricula for pre-med students and engineers.

After La Salle College failed to gain accreditation in 1921 because of the lack of students, the Board of Managers was forced to eliminate the primary grades to release space for higher education. Even this unwanted measure did not provide adequate facilities for an expanded enrollment and improved curriculum. Under the guidance of Brother Dorotheus (1925-1928), the college constructed a new campus on the Belfield property in Germantown. When the move into the new facilities was completed in 1929, La Salle College received accreditation. Three capable and determined presidents helped the "new" La Salle College weather the intense financial crises engendered first by the Great Depression and then by World War II. The end of the war saw the school adequately prepared for the great influx of returning servicemen.

A number of significant changes occurred between 1945 and 1965 as the modern college dedicated to mass higher education emerged. For the first time in eighty years the school was placed on a sound financial basis; the administration was decentralized to make more efficient use of personnel; the Evening and Summer Divisions became important branches of the college; a graduate program in theology was initiated; the high school was separated from the college; and new buildings including a library and student center were constructed. The six thousand students who attended La Salle College in 1965 were assured of a substantial educational experience.

The author presents his material as a chronological narrative based essentially on presidential administrations. This traditional arrangement hides the short sections of analysis that do exist in the text and prevents extended discussion of such special topics as student activities, curriculum,
and finances. By omitting conclusions at the end of sections of the book, the author loses other opportunities to draw together his basic points. This lack of topical analysis detracts from the book as history.

A much more serious shortcoming is the author's failure to contrast and compare the development of La Salle College with other Catholic colleges specifically, or higher education generally. One wonders, for example, if the La Salle experience differs significantly from that of the other two major Catholic colleges in Philadelphia. With the exceptions of the Latin Question at the end of the nineteenth century and occasional allusions to disputes with the Catholic ruling hierarchy, the reader receives little indication that La Salle College was even a church-related institution.

To put it another way, this reviewer wishes that the author had cast his history in a larger more analytical framework rather than as a chronicle of events. Alumni and other friends of La Salle College will discover that this book is both interesting and well written. Historians will turn to it for specific information about the college, but they will have to rely upon other sources for answers to broader questions. This reviewer suspects that the author has more than adequately fulfilled his assignment—to write the official history of his institution.

University of West Florida

LUCIUS F. ELLSWORTH


In this intelligent and provocative study Professor Sproat traces the attitudes and actions of the men who fancied themselves the consciences of the Gilded Age. Convinced that they were indeed the "best men" of the nation, the liberal reformers carried the standards of good breeding and aristocracy into the noisy battles of public policy in the late nineteenth century. For many historians, the version of events which the reformers left behind became the orthodox interpretation of the period. The strictures of E. L. Godkin and his cohorts against politicians and businessmen, framed in graceful and persuasive prose, easily overshadowed the less decorous efforts of statesmen and party leaders.

Professor Sproat wisely decided to delve beneath this stereotype and to examine in detail the rhetoric and performance of these custodians of American virtue. His analysis is revealing. The liberal reformers appear as evasive, timid men, all too prone to abandon their pretensions of independence and integrity when confronted with pressure from the more democratic elements of society. From Edward Atkinson, with his Alladin Oven that would teach the "American people how to stew," to the waspish Godkin, the "best men" displayed few admirable qualities and responded badly to the changes that re-made America after 1865.

This book has many strengths. It presents a wise and convincing sketch of James G. Blaine that avoids inaccurate and misguided generalizations about the most popular politician of his day. The reformers chastised Blaine because he could not conform to their own unrealistic standards
of behavior and, more important, because he practiced politics as a profession. In short, they failed to see that Blaine, like all successful party leaders, had to appeal to a broader constituency than the circumscribed circles in which the reformers moved.

Professor Sproat is equally tough minded about the Mugwump hero, Grover Cleveland. He refuses to accept the President's flattering self-appraisal and recognizes that, for all his posturing, Cleveland possessed an ego and ambition unusual even in a presidential candidate. Sproat's observations on the reformers' willingness to overlook Cleveland's ties to the more corrupt elements in the New York Democracy in 1884 are devastating.

Of all the self-styled reformers discussed in Professor Sproat's narrative, E. L. Godkin receives the most intensive scrutiny. A man of erratic political convictions, Godkin demonstrated a deep distrust of the democratic process. His hysterical responses to the most mild entreaties from the less prosperous segments of society mocked his ostensible allegiance to the democratic ideal. When Professor Sproat has finished with him, Godkin's credentials as a critic of society have been destroyed.

The author also emphasizes the fragility of the reformers' commitment to the cause of the black man after the Civil War. He understands why these men felt compelled to betray their earlier beliefs, but he shows as well how they substituted emotion for evidence when confronting the question of Negro ability in the postwar era. Throughout his book, Professor Sproat points out the many similar occasions when the liberal reformers might have acted to ease the transition into a modern industrial society. On the hard questions—equality, social justice, and genuine reform—the "best men" trimmed, wavered, and found refuge in mindless adherence to the status quo.

Sproat's research has been wide and deep. His command of the intricacies of party politics sometimes falters, but his willingness to take the public life of the Gilded Age seriously deserves high praise. The author's lucid description of liberal reform thought and behavior leaves little else to be said about these tangential figures of the late nineteenth century. Historians might with profit move on to reconstruct the actual development of political and social institutions in this period.

*University of Texas at Austin*  
LEWIS L. GOULD


In this study Daniel Nelson has sketched in considerable detail the struggle to enact an unemployment insurance program in the United States. Beginning with the "origins of an American approach" to the problem in the Progressive Era, he traces the debates through to the inclusion of unemployment insurance as a part of the Social Security Act of 1935.
The European approach to unemployment insurance consisted of compulsory programs, set up by the state, and aimed at providing jobless workers with automatic payments adequate to sustain them until re-employed. To Americans the resulting "dole" had little to commend it. It neither tackled the problem of preventing joblessness in the first place, nor encouraged those out of work to seek new employment. The American approach, as it evolved in the late 'teens and early 'twenties, concerned itself with keeping men at work rather than with paying them when they became unemployed, and viewed unemployment as a part of the larger struggle of industry against waste and inefficiency.

During the 1920's proponents of compulsory insurance found themselves outnumbered by opponents of any mandatory legislated scheme. Businessmen and conservative labor leaders alike decried socialistic programs to support the indolent and called instead for voluntary programs that would spread work so as to reduce seasonal unemployment and encourage employers to seek ways of keeping their workers efficiently employed. A few enlightened industrialists such as Henry S. Demison, Morris E. Leeds, and Herbert F. Johnson, experimented with employer-financed reserves plans, or with guaranteed employment programs. These were seen chiefly as goads to managerial efficiency in employing their labor forces, however, and not as measures for providing support during times of unemployment. Similarly, some unions, particularly in the needle trades, negotiated contracts that provided for joint employer-employee reserve funds to assist workers through periods of seasonal unemployment. Again, the plans were more directed at cutting down seasonal layoffs—which were endemic to the industry—than at providing benefits for the jobless.

Nelson devotes considerable space to tracing the efforts of reformers to get compulsory insurance laws enacted by the states. He stresses in particular the work of the Wisconsin Group—John R. Commons and his students John B. Andrews, Paul A. Rausenbush and Elizabeth Brandeis—and of Paul Douglas, Abraham Epstein, Edwin E. Witte, and William M. Leiserson. The various plans, counter-plans, amendments, retreats, defeats, and regroupings are discussed fully and the limited victories celebrated.

The turning point—both for legislative victories and for a shift in emphasis from preventing unemployment to helping the jobless—came with the onset of the Great Depression. Nelson singles out the battles in Wisconsin, New York, Massachusetts, and Ohio in particular as illustrating differing problems and differing solutions to them at the state level. Finally, in his last chapter, he reports the triumph of federal unemployment insurance during the New Deal.

Throughout his study Nelson clearly favors enactment of compulsory unemployment insurance. Generally he maintains a high level of objectivity in his writing. However, when dealing with Herbert Hoover and Franklin D. Roosevelt, his prejudices peek through. Hoover, referred to once as "the oracle of business in the 1920's," is portrayed as ineffective, out-of-date, and politically motivated when opposing unemployment insurance schemes.
On the other hand, Roosevelt, as governor of New York State, even when he does little to promote unemployment insurance, is forgiven his shortcomings. He is seen as pragmatic, as having a "penchant for immediate action," and as a "humanitarian." Actually, as Nelson quotes the two men, their differences regarding unemployment insurance appear less striking than their similarities. By Nelson's account, even as president, Roosevelt did not vigorously push for unemployment insurance so much as allowing it to be pushed on him. The real heroes of the battle for federal legislation were Senator Robert F. Wagner of New York and Secretary of Labor Frances Perkins.

Overall, Nelson has done an impressive amount of research in both archival and periodical sources. He has ordered his materials logically and presented his story in good readable English. His sentences are clear, his word choice precise, and his ideas carefully presented. Both he and his publisher are to be congratulated for the readable format, the careful proofreading, and the complete index. Nonetheless, the book is not wholly satisfying. It contains much information but no surprises. The problem in part is the flood of detail which gradually drowns everything else. Because his subject was not inherently exciting, the author was confronted with the problem of retaining his readers' attention and interest. Yet in the plethora of speeches, articles, and letters that he used, Nelson failed to find any really interesting, or humorous, or witty remarks to lighten his story. One would hardly expect a study of unemployment insurance to be hilarious, but it need not be grim. Not once in reading the entire work do I recall smiling—even faintly. Although he has worked hard to be comprehensive, thorough, and accurate, Nelson has not given his reader a clear thesis or line of argument to follow, or an interpretation to ponder and weigh—only a straightforward narrative of events.

The Pennsylvania State University

Gerald G. Eggert


To the student of urban history the city of Pittsburgh offers at least two distinct advantages not common to other metropolitan areas in America. In the first place, Pittsburgh in the twentieth century presents much greater contrasts than other cities of comparable size. Shortly after the turn of the century Pittsburgh was aptly described by Lincoln Steffens as "hell with the lid off." At the close of World War II, however, a "renaissance" occurred which made Pittsburgh one of the more progressive cities in the country. In the second place, Pittsburgh offers the scholar one of the most unique documents in modern history for the study of twentieth century urban problems. This document is the Pittsburgh Survey, the world's first scientific survey of an industrial city and its problems. The survey was conducted in the fall of 1907 under a grant from the Russell Sage Foundation. The initial findings were published in the
issues of Charities and the Commons for January, February and March, 1909. These findings were later expanded into six large volumes published between 1909 and 1914.

These advantages have not been lost on Professor Lubove. For him the Pittsburgh Survey serves a dual purpose for it furnishes him with a tremendous wealth of material from which he is able, with the benefit of corroborating evidence, to write a brief but cogent description of the Pittsburgh environment during the first decade of the twentieth century. But even more important, the Survey was the first attempt to deal with the numerous problems of this environment by attacking them through scientific methods of social research.

Lubove has examined several important matters which are part of the environment of any large metropolitan area—specifically housing, city planning, and smoke control—to determine what attempts have been made to find solutions to these problems in the twentieth century. He believes the old approach which tends "to interpret urban reform historically in terms of an uprising against 'business,'" to be misleading, especially when applied to Pittsburgh. He has compiled an impressive body of evidence to show that the opposite approach to urban reform has been the one which has prevailed in Pittsburgh. Environmental change was initiated by business and professional leaders operating through voluntary civic organizations. It was just such a group of leaders, impressed by an investigation of social conditions in Washington, D.C., in 1905, that strongly endorsed a proposal by Alice B. Montgomery urging that a similar investigation be undertaken in Pittsburgh. In the years just prior to World War I it was the Civic Club, the Civic Commission, and the Chamber of Commerce that embodied the reform aspirations of the business and professional leaders. In the twenties and the thirties it was the Citizens Committee on City Plan that harbored these aspirations. The Pittsburgh "Renaissance" which took place following World War II was again an example of environmental change initiated by business and professional leadership through the medium of a voluntary civic organization. This time it was members of the business and professional community under the leadership of Richard King Mellon operating through the Allegheny Conference on Community Development.

Although the business and professional elite has given leadership to the city of Pittsburgh and has shown itself capable of decisive action, it has also imposed a certain limitation upon environmental change. Issues are defined and programs established "largely in response to business objectives." This is abundantly evident in the heavy reliance of the business and professional leadership on voluntary agencies, and their failure to utilize governmental agencies better equipped to secure the desired ends.

Twentieth Century Pittsburgh is one of a series entitled New Dimensions in History: Historical Cities, edited by Norman F. Cantor of Brandeis University. By presenting a well-documented, tersely written study Lubove has set a high standard for the series. The value of the book has been
enhanced by a judicious choice of pictures illustrating various aspects of Pittsburgh's environment.

Albright College

William W. Hummel


The purpose of this excellent volume is to provide the student with a "reasonably complete introduction to primary and secondary sources in the history of technology," but it accomplishes much more. In fact, the reader is also provided with pages of wit, opinion, and shrewd insight. Orientation is provided by a brief Preface and a valuable three-page discussion of "Needs and Opportunities." A forty-page index provides entry into the bulk of the volume which consists of citations of books, articles, finding aids, films, journals, and manuscript collections. The individual citations are divided under fourteen headings, ranging from "General Works" to "Subject Fields."

Most of the citations are accompanied by critical comments or direct the interested reader to a published review. Ferguson tells us, for example, that the film "The Hunters" is a "sensitive and moving record of hunting (and living) techniques of the Bushmen of Kalahari," and is "easily one of the most memorable films" he has ever seen. We discover that Ralph Sander's book Project Plowshare, which deals with the "peaceful" uses of atomic power is "incredibly arrogant in a mindless way." It is carefully noted that Charles A. Parsons, The Development of the Parsons Steam Turbine (London, 1936), first appeared as a series of articles in the journal The Engineer during 1934 and 1935, and that Baron Klinkowström's America, 1818-1820, contains "observations on Speedwell Iron Works, ships and boats, bridges, canals, the DuPont powder mills on the Brandywine, and other works."

The coverage is broad as well as critical. Books published in languages other than English are included, and although the citations tend to emphasize the accomplishments of the Atlantic community, the Third World is represented. The good coverage given to British technology makes this a useful supplement to Brooke Hindle's bibliographic Technology in Early America. Geographical subdivisions are not listed in the index, so the student interested only in one particular city, state, or nation will not be able to isolate pertinent material easily. If such a breakdown did exist, however, I suspect that it would show, for the United States, that the Middle Atlantic states are better covered (and more written about) than the South or West.

In his Preface, Professor Ferguson states that he has followed "implicitly, if not consistently, Brooke Hindle's concept of technology, which encompasses activities of man that result in artifacts." Thus stated, the principle contains sufficient ambiguity to save it from all but its most persistent detractors, and Ferguson, as he says, is not consistent. The
mere repetition of the principle, however, points up a tendency which I consider unwholesome. The splendid work done by museums (Hagley Museum and the Smithsonian spring to mind) in preserving artifacts ranging from mill buildings to patent models (and the leadership of museum personnel in sponsoring scholarship in the history of technology) is leading, I fear, to a tendency to overemphasize artifacts.

Even those who would not join recent critics of the technological society in considering social organization itself a species of technology, must admit that there is more to it than artifacts—even when the field is broadened to include the changes made in society by the artifacts. Scientific management can hardly be defined as an artifact, yet few aspects of 20th century American technology have had a larger influence on the way we think and act. Ferguson (and Hindle too) are far too perceptive to be trapped by the limits of their own definitions and gracefully transcend them when circumstances demand. Lesser talents, however, do not so easily break out of the limits imposed by a too-close regard for artifacts. Perhaps we might better err by defining technology too broadly than too narrowly.

This volume is a corrected and expanded version of bibliographic articles which Professor Ferguson first published in the pages of the journal Technology and Culture. He expresses the hope that further corrections and additions will appear in about two years in those same pages. All readers will share that hope, but whether it comes to pass or not we can be grateful that this superb guide to the study of the history of technology (it is much more than a mere bibliography) is safely in our hands.

*University of California, Santa Barbara*                              *Carroll Pursell*
PENNSYLVANIA HISTORY STUDIES

The Pennsylvania Historical Association has available copies of several numbers of the Pennsylvania Historical Studies. These Studies will supplement reading assignments in Pennsylvania American history courses in both colleges and secondary schools. They are valuable guides for libraries, historical societies, museums and the general reader.

A 20% discount is available for orders of twenty-five or more of the same title. To order, please complete and detach the form below.

DR. PHILLIP E. STEBBINS
Secretary, The Pennsylvania Historical Association
Department of History
The Pennsylvania State University
University Park, Pennsylvania

Enclosed please find a check payable to The Pennsylvania Historical Association in the amount of $____________ for the following numbers of the Pennsylvania History Studies:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Title</th>
<th>Price</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Gilbert, A Picture of the Pennsylvania Germans</td>
<td>$1.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Comfort, The Quakers</td>
<td>$1.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Swetnam, Pennsylvania Transportation (Revised Edition)</td>
<td>$0.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Russ, Pennsylvania’s Boundaries</td>
<td>$1.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Brown, Pennsylvania Reformers</td>
<td>$1.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Richman, Pennsylvania’s Architecture</td>
<td>$1.25</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

To be mailed to (PLEASE PRINT):

________________________________________

________________________________________