
In this volume, which initiates a new anthropological series, the editors have gathered together twenty-three previously published articles dealing with the Indian prehistory of Pennsylvania and neighboring areas. The articles were selected to geographically cover the entire state and to chronologically cover over ten thousand years of human occupation. Articles are grouped into "cultural period" sections, each of which is introduced by a brief essay. Each individual article, while not necessarily reflecting the latest archaeological theories, remains the most comprehensive and useful study on the subject which it covers. The volume achieves its purpose of being a handy and compact source book on Pennsylvania archaeology.

In selecting the articles to republish, the editors were necessarily limited by what was available. Thus, certain chronological periods are thoroughly covered, while others suffer from a lack of published studies. This same imbalance applies to geography. Certain parts of the state have been more thoroughly investigated and are overly represented in the volume. When deemed necessary, the editors have seen fit to alter the form and context of republished articles. Thus, certain "non-relevant" sections may be deleted, citations altered, "superfluous" illustrations omitted, and occasional new photographs added. A single bibliography, one of the important new contributions of this publication, has been compiled from the many citations in each original article. The reproduction of photographs, tables, and graphs, is excellent, although several plates lack explanatory descriptions.

The majority (18 of 23) of the articles were written by professional archaeologists, an indication of the scientific nature of this volume. Two authors, John Witthoft and Don W. Dragoo, alone account for almost half of the studies. This professionalism, however, is somewhat offset by the fact that the latest work was published in 1964, and the majority originally appeared between 1959 and 1961. The apparent lack of recent archaeological study in the state of Pennsylvania is somewhat explained by the editors' desire to print only those studies that may no longer be available to most interested persons. It should be pointed out that the title Foundations of Pennsylvania Prehistory also limits the included studies to those basic to and pioneering in the archaeology of Pennsylvania.

Perhaps the most noteworthy contributions of the editors toward the success of this volume are their brief essays introducing each section. In
composing these essays on the various cultural periods of Pennsylvania prehistory, it was necessary to reach beyond the information presented in the articles. It appears that the editors depended, to a great deal, upon their own unpublished research projects and those of their colleagues in recent years. As a result, they were able to present these articles in a proper framework. The benefit of the editors' own knowledge is passed on to the reader.

Obviously archaeologists will argue among themselves over the content and approach of the authors and the editors. It is apparent no attempt was made to frame the volume in the new archaeological theory—socio-cultural integration. Consequently, many critical readers will not find this publication to their liking. Conversely, it will be well received by "dirt" archaeologists who actually work in the area.

In summary, *Foundations of Pennsylvania Prehistory* is a well composed volume which will prove to be a welcome addition to the libraries of all persons involved in the archaeology of this state. It performs a great service to newly established libraries which are unable to obtain the various articles republished therein. It is to be highly recommended as well to the layman who finds his interest drifting eastward and backward in time.

*Dover, Del.*

RONALD A. THOMAS

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As its title suggests, this book is a survey of the legal status of the Indians of the United States and of their land. (The Indians of Canada are accorded only a few pages, and except as they figured in European thought before 1600, those south of the United States-Mexican border are virtually ignored.) The time period covered is from first European contact with Indians to the present, with particular emphasis on the legislation and court decisions of the last decade.

The subject is a worthy one. Too often the complexities of the law have led to its being ignored. But if whites discussing "the Indian problem" in the comfort of a suburban living room can afford to ignore these legal complexities, Indians cannot. They must live under this body of law or at least contend with it, and with its change over time, its difference as it applies to different reservations, and its conflict with customary law of the various Indian peoples themselves. In its turn, these intricacies provide some instruction in the difficulties and differences of opinion among both whites and Indians as to the proper course of future action. All these are important and timely concerns.

Washburn's study of this subject is divided into four parts, not counting a brief prologue and epilogue. Part I, entitled "Theoretical Assumptions," treats of European, particularly Spanish attitudes toward the Indian in the sixteenth century. The discussion is somewhat cursory, and seems to me neither to provide an adequate background for what follows nor to indicate the manner in which this material is to be treated. But, although it
may not be the best of introductions, it is short (being only some twenty pages in length), and if not skipped by the reader, it is quickly read.

The heart of the book is the next three parts. In the first of these, the history of Indian-white relationships is reviewed century by century from the time of discovery to the present. This history serves as background for the next two parts—one on the status of Indian land and the other on the status of the Indian himself. Of particular concern to Washburn are the issues that recently have come before Congress, various federal agencies, and the courts. Consequently, his discussion of the status of Indian land includes that of the Indian Claims Commission, the status of Alaskan, Oklahoma, and Pueblo Indian lands, and the Indian Resources Bill. The final section, a survey of the position of the Indian in American society, is divided into two parts. The first concerns the legal status of the Indian, including the legal definition of "Indian," the Indian court system (on the reservations), constitutional rights of Indians (a more complex issue than might be suspected), and Indian hunting, fishing, and water rights—a subject much in recent news. The second half of this section treats the relationship between various groups and institutions and the Indians: the Bureau of Indian Affairs, Congress, educators, anthropologists, and hippies.

In his description of these matters Washburn gives some account of recent hearings on Indian affairs and mention of the positions of various government officials and members of Congress, as well as a summary of the content of various pieces of legislation and court decisions. Also included are observations on the varying perspectives whites and Indians have brought to their joint relationship and how these have affected this relationship. Although probably no one would agree with all these observations or would choose to make the same ones, they do serve to point up a number of important factors affecting Indian-white affairs.

Some reflection on what Washburn has chosen to include in his discussion and what to exclude from it suggests the perspective taken is that of a historian working in Washington, a not unexpected conclusion as the author is a historian at the Smithsonian Institution. Nevertheless, this point of view has its real advantages. Most of us work outside of Washington and are apt to be less aware than perhaps we should be of the issues being discussed there. Yet some knowledge of these matters is of use, and Washburn's book provides a convenient and judicious guide to them.

Temple University

Elisabeth Tooker


Very few books combine the literary excellence and spiritual and social insight of John Woolman's Journal, an eighteenth century work of major importance. Numerous later writers have testified to its impact on their lives. The gentle reformer, whose own spiritual autobiography is so carefully chronicled in its pages, became a model for the "good Quaker" appearing in so many works of fiction and poetry. Yet despite the Journal's
significance, all previous editions were products of inadequate scholarship. We have at last an edition worthy of its content.

Re-reading Woolman's Journal made clear to this reviewer what a magnificent work it is—a book to be savored and pondered rather than read through as an assignment. Woolman's social concerns were clearly the product of his Christian faith. His Quakerism had much in common with Puritanism, though the latter seemed to differ so strongly with his conclusions and practices. In Woolman's view, man was created to glorify a God who had a well designed plan for all creation, a plan which included every individual. Even illness had a divine function; it made one aware of spiritual inadequacies and encouraged improvement. For Woolman, there was a clear division between the spiritual and the material and, like all mystics, he attempted to subjugate his physical drives and desires to his religious development.

Yet his faith did not lead him exclusively to prayer and meditation. Injustice, said Woolman, was harmful both to the victim and to the oppressor. Therefore, the Christian must be careful to avoid implication in injustice. He not only wrote against slavery but refused to make out bills of sale of slaves or to accept the hospitality of slaveholders without paying for it. He also avoided using dyed material produced by slave labor. He refused to pay taxes to support war. Toward the end of his life he walked throughout England rather than patronize a transportation system which exploited the horses without mercy. At a time when most colonists were quite willing to exterminate the Indians, Woolman saw in them the same divine potential which he found in all humans.

Woolman had a remarkable ability to get at the heart of a problem and to state it simply in language that could not be misunderstood. “The love of ease and gain are the motives in general of keeping slaves, . . .” he wrote, destroying with his plain prose most of the arguments in support of slavery. To those who preached that some people were not as entitled to freedom as others, Woolman answered, “Whoever rightly advocates the cause of some thereby promotes the good of all.” Injustice inherited from the past and perpetuated into the future could only lead to disaster, for past practice was no sound justification for present wrong. “Where unrighteousness is justified from one age to another, it is like dark matter gathering into clouds over us.”

In several respects Woolman's views are peculiarly meaningful for our own time. Although he at all times attempted to maintain a purity of heart and mind, he scrupulously avoided making moral judgments regarding other persons. He recognized the moral dilemma of the slaveholder as well as the sad plight of the slave. He saw in the religion of the Indians a basic faith not unlike his own. The poor he viewed as social victims rather than the product of their own incompetence or laziness. One of his proposals for correcting the injustice of slavery was paying reparations based upon a carefully calculated scale of labor and service performed.

John Woolman was not at all reticent about witnessing publicly to the truth as he saw it. He traveled hundreds of miles, presenting his views in Quaker meetings throughout the American colonies and in England.
His was always an individual witness carried out through conversation, public speaking, writing and living a life consistent with the views he held. In addition to the Journal, this volume contains "Some Considerations on Keeping Negroes" and "A Plea for the Poor." In each case Phillips Moulton has examined all the available published and manuscript sources. Eight appendices contain additional Woolman material as well as a rationale for the present edition and detailed discussion of previous editions with their strengths and shortcomings. It constitutes a convincing case for the scholarly superiority of this edition above all the other contenders. A product of careful and thorough research, it not only gives us the edition Woolman's writing deserves, but also provides a fine model for editorial excellence.

*Wilmington College*

**Larry Gara**


*From Resistance to Revolution* is a study of the evolution of a radical consciousness in the decade preceding independence. Continuing the tradition established by Caroline Robbins and Bernard Bailyn, Pauline Maier argues that a philosophy of resistance—originating in the writings of English "Real Whigs," or "Commonwealthmen"—prevailed within enlightened colonial circles. This doctrine of resistance, succinctly stated, held that while tyranny must be met by protestors representing "a broad consensus involving all ranks of society," the dissidents were "to try all peaceful avenues to redress" prior to the utilization of force. Colonial leaders, she argues, adhered to this formula throughout the Anglo-American crisis, carefully controlling unruly mobs and ultimately resorting to violence only when no alternative existed in 1775. Prudence dictated this course as well, for violence might result in British inflexibility and the alienation of moderate colonists.

Events after 1765 radicalized the American mind. The refusal to genuinely redress colonial grievances between 1765-1770 produced disillusionment with the ministry. The furor over John Wilkes, as well as repressive British policies in Ireland, Corsica and the West Indies, contributed to the belief that Parliament was insuperably corrupt. The Monarchy's harassment of Wilkes and its support of the Intolerable Acts virtually eliminated whatever sympathy had existed in America for that institution. Nevertheless, at the beginning of 1775 the colonists were "not yet consciously molding . . . an American revolution. They sought rather a British revolution. . . ." The colonists reluctantly resorted to force only when it became apparent that the British masses would not rise to alter their government. Furthermore, the decade of radicalization caused the colonists to embrace republicanism "by conviction, and by choice." The American governments which emerged after 1776, although based on the British model, were polities stripped of the impurity of hereditary rule.

Serious questions might be raised about some of the author's judgments. She portrays the protest movement in terms of a colonial elite manipulat-
ing the inarticulate masses. Whether the mob had an interest distinct from that of the radical leadership, or whether it was necessary for the masses to be aroused by the elite are questions she does not confront. Too, a partial explanation for the desire of colonial leaders to prevent mob violence—and one that is overlooked in this study—was the widespread fear that such protests were difficult to control and might result in serious socio-economic dislocations. Anyone who has read the debates at the First Continental Congress is likely to have reservations about the depiction of nearly unanimous disillusionment with British institutions by late 1774. A body that rejected Joseph Galloway’s compromise plan by only one vote does not appear to be overwhelmingly disenchanted. Professor Maier’s contention that Americans assumed an insurrection was at hand in Britain in 1774-1775 is perhaps an overstatement. Colonists realized that fissures existed within the ruling circle in London and that the opposition might succeed in altering imperial policy, but that would have hardly constituted a revolution. The study might have been strengthened by a section examining American attitudes toward Britain before 1763, as well as by a short investigation of why twenty percent of the population (the figure she uses) were not sufficiently radicalized to become revolutionaries. The book contains a useful compilation of unpublished manuscript materials but sadly does not include a comprehensive bibliography.

Taken as a whole, however, the book is refreshing and provocative. After many studies of the radical mind, this is probably the best appraisal of the evolution of that mentality. The author makes a persuasive case for the belief that radicalization was a gradual process and not the product of one crisis such as the Stamp Act upheaval. She convincingly traces antimonarchical sentiments back to the early 1770s and, in the process, places Thomas Paine in a truer perspective than has been traditional. By the time “Paine took up the cause of republicanism,” she concludes, “there was little to be said . . . that had not already been argued in the previous half decade.” Her assessment of violence in early America is original and hopefully will spawn new studies of the attitude toward the use of force in post-Revolutionary America. Of the plethora of monographs certain to accompany the American Revolution Bicentennial celebration, this is a study that will have lasting value. In short, Professor Maier’s book is timely in these days of conflict, and it is must-reading for any serious student of the American Revolution or the colonial intellect.

West Georgia College

JOHN FERLING


Post-revolutionary Philadelphia flourished as the wealthiest and most cosmopolitan city in America. It also enjoyed the reputation as a leading handicraft center. An important sector of this economic environment included associations of skilled workmen intent upon maintaining standards
of excellence and stabilizing competition. The most prominent was the Carpenters' Company of the City and County of Philadelphia.

The retrieval of information bearing upon the organization, activities, and technological accomplishments of early trade associations is no simple task. Consequently the republication of the Carpenters' Company 1786 rule book is a welcome event, particularly for architectural historians and students of early building techniques. In addition to identifying the names of 133 members (82 of whom were living in 1786), the volume contains detailed guidelines for measuring and valuing house-carpentry work and thirty-five original copperplate illustrations of contemporary building forms. Reflecting the influence of Georgian classicism, the latter are accompanied by brief explanatory notes and range in coverage from common sashing and window shutters to more complex king-post roof trusses and a magnificent studded wall frame.

The rule book also includes fourteen governing articles that assign the duties of respective officers and outline company policy with regard to poor relief, conditions of work, settlement of grievances, selection of new members, and training of slave apprentices. Taken together they clarify the relationship between the Carpenters' Company and its medieval forebears, The Worshipful Company of Carpenters of London, founded in the fourteenth century. The implication is clear: in organization and administration the Philadelphia company closely resembled a medieval guild, thus indicating that craft traditions had become deeply embedded in at least one segment of the Quaker City's "mechanik" population.

Charles Peterson, fellow of the American Institute of Architects and long-time student of Philadelphia architecture, introduces the volume with a brief historiographical essay in which he argues that the Carpenters' Company rule book "was a strictly American production" and, as such, represents "the first really American work" on architecture. Though Peterson writes with insight, he tends, unfortunately, to assume too much knowledge on the part of the general reader. The upshot is that the work will appeal to the narrowly focused specialist but few others. Perhaps this is what Peterson intended. Whatever the case, his analysis would have profited had he sketched in the historical background of the Carpenters' Company and at least touched upon its relationship to the rise of the professional architect-builder in America. Notwithstanding the foregoing comments, the entire work is of an extremely scholarly nature and admirably produced. Coming from a qualified architect who possesses intimate knowledge of the subject, it makes a distinct contribution to the history of building during the early national period.

Ohio State University

MERRITT R. SMITH


Stanley I. Kutler, one of the brightest young scholars writing in the field of constitutional history today, has in his examination of the Charles
River Bridge case (1837) given us a small book of unquestionable excellence. While many historians would have been satisfied with a narrative of legal maneuver and judicial opinion, Kutler takes us beyond the law office and the court room—relating this important decision to the broader social, economic, technological and political events of an awakening America. As a consequence of the author's broad perspective, this work serves as an example of what good constitutional/legal history should be. Kutler's consideration of a landmark Supreme Court case in its historical context is part of a welcome trend in the historical examination of our laws and our courts. Similar efforts include recent works on Yazoo land frauds (Fletcher v. Peck), the Marshall-Jefferson confrontation (Marbury v. Madison), as well as Kutler's own book on the Dred Scott case.

As background for the Charles River Bridge case, Privilege and Creative Destruction opens with a discussion of the local political and economic controversies over the construction of a new free bridge between Boston and Charlestown in the 1820s. Owners of a private toll bridge, the Charles River Bridge Company, in existence since the late eighteenth century correctly saw in the proposed Warren bridge a threat to their property interest. The conflict between the proponents and opponents of the free bridge soon took on broader implications and became a symbol of a tension between economic progress and vested interest. At issue was how much of the old and the established must be sacrificed to make way for the new, the dynamic, the adventurous?

Upon the construction of the new bridge the proprietors of Charles River Bridge carried the controversy through the state judiciary and then up to the United States Supreme Court. Kutler discusses the argument and reargument of this case before the justices in Washington. The majority opinion of Chief Justice Taney came down firmly on the side of the Warren bridge and innovation; while Justice Story's dissent denounced the "new" doctrine of the majority and called for the continued protection of privilege and vested property interests.

Kutler's book then uses this case as a microcosm of the currents running in all America in the 1830s. He highlights the fundamental problem of weighing the particular rights of the individual to hold and use his property as he will, against what seemed to be the broader community concerns that may on occasion overrule these individual interests. He examines the perennial question of who should make policy for the nation: the democratic legislatures responsive to the will of the majority, or the judiciary which may be uniquely qualified to safeguard minority rights from majoritarian injustice. Most importantly, he examines the continuous American process of weakening established privilege to make way for the dynamic release of creative energy—a process of creative destruction. Here Kutler acknowledges his special indebtedness to James Willard Hurst, a scholar whose brilliant examinations of American legal history have pointed the way for many who are now writing and teaching in this field.

While some have seen the decision in the Charles River Bridge case as a constitutional revolution, overturning the doctrine of the conservative Marshall Court, Kutler disagrees. He finds that Taney's "new" doctrines were
merely an adaptation of Marshall's rather vague constitutional legacy to the current values and needs of American society. Whigs and Jacksonians agreed upon ends (economic growth), writes Kutler. They only differed over means: the granting of privilege which would stimulate and maintain investment, or creative destruction which would encourage new inventions, new services, new property forms for the material benefit of the community.

For the reader for pleasure or the historian this is a fine book that goes far in explaining basic factors operating in Jacksonian America. It is recommended to anyone wishing to understand some of the issues which not only divided and united Americans in the 1830s but which have done so ever since. To the constitutional or legal specialist this book is a model of a happy synthesis of somewhat specialized and technical matters (e.g., the strict construction of the contract clause, or the beginning of the idea of substantive due process) with broader generalizations which find in legal arguments and judicial opinions a summary of the central values held by American society.

**Pennsylvania State University**

**PHILLIP E. STEBBINS**


This is a comprehensive story of America's first national conscription law (if one excepts that enacted by the Confederate Congress in April, 1862), its intent, its administration, and its achievements in the face of almost insuperable difficulties. Other historians have dealt with certain aspects of conscription during the Civil War, but none provided the mass of detail and documentation that features Professor Murdock's account. Indeed, there is so much here that the author is too often guilty of repetition. But he makes good use of the materials in the National Archives, some not used by other students. They include the "Historical Reports" prepared by district provost marshals, recommendations submitted by each state's acting assistant provost marshal general, James B. Fry's *Final Report to the Secretary of War by the Provost Marshal General*, and other government documents. He drew upon contemporary newspapers and correspondence for information respecting local conditions, and he also made use of the significant secondary works dealing with the subject.

This study repeats, albeit with greater detail, the standard story of the Civil War draft. As the early enthusiasm for suppressing the Rebellion waned after two years of bloodshed and frustration, the supply of volunteers dwindled. To meet the crisis, the federal Congress passed the Enrollment Act of March 3, 1863, a measure to create a national force liable to compulsory military service. With neither legal nor historical precedent to support such legislation, Congress tried to soften the impact of an unprepared and skeptical public by including escape clauses. It provided for substitution, commutation, and bounties for volunteers. As
the author makes clear, all three of these devices were meant to encourage volunteering—drafting men against their will was the last resort.

The implementation of the Civil War draft makes in many respects a depressing story. Murdock’s narration probes the depths of human weakness, if not human depravity. Its *dramatis personae* is made up of “brokers” who trafficked in human flesh, of “bounty jumpers” who repeatedly enlisted and just as repeatedly deserted, of corrupt government officials eager to accept bribes, and of men of military age who employed all sorts of subterfuges to escape military service. All of these unworthy characters practiced fraud and chicanery against their government, on the naïve recruits who fell into their clutches, and among themselves as well. Yet, the cast also includes hundreds of over-worked and harassed district provost marshals, conscientious military surgeons, honest local officials, and the general public who paid the bill. The lesson is that the Civil War generation was no better and probably no worse than any other generation of Americans.

Part of the trouble stemmed from the inadequacies of the legislation which provided for enrolling and selecting conscripts. In its provisions for hiring substitutes and for the payment of $300 to the federal government to avoid military service it favored those with means. These built-in injustices lent support to the notion that suppressing the Rebellion was “a rich man’s war and a poor man’s fight.” Although it erected elaborate administrative machinery, the lack of general regulations permitted local officials too great a latitude in enforcement. This paved the way for regrettable inequities from district to district. Professor Murdock recognizes these weaknesses but explains that they stemmed in large part from the Congressional attempt to make more palatable to free-born Americans a measure foreign to their tradition and sensitivities.

Heading his final chapter, “But It Worked,” the author invokes the testimony of those directly associated with its enforcement. In the words of George Eyster, the district provost marshal at Chambersburg, “The enforcement of the Enrolment Act undoubtedly saved the Republic.” One might question this by noting that of the 776,629 names enrolled, only 46,347 were finally drafted, and, as Murdock admits, the number of these who actually got to the front and saw active duty there is uncertain. Perhaps its chief contribution was that intended by Congress, to encourage volunteering by means of what the author labels “only a semidraft.”

Emerging from *One Million Men* is the impression that while history does not repeat itself, today’s problems in securing adequate military manpower for America have an intriguing similarity with those confronted by the federal government during the Civil War. Perhaps today’s solutions are a bit more sophisticated and hopefully more effective. It is of interest to note that the bounty system, so discredited by Civil War experience, is again being considered as a means of inducing young men to volunteer for military service. Evident also is the fact that intimidation of draft officials, the invasion of recruiting stations and destruction of enrollment records, and violent encounters in the streets between troops and anti-war
BOOK REVIEWS AND BOOK NOTES

and anti-draft activists are not entirely new to the American scene. While the riots that ravaged New York City in July, 1863, were the most sanguinary and destructive, violent resistance to the draft occurred elsewhere throughout the Northern States.

Murdock makes much of the fact, as have other students of Civil War conscription, that lessons learned from its shortcomings stood the nation in good stead in preparing the selective service legislation of 1917 and 1940. His story effectively refutes the cynical aphorism that we learn nothing from history.

Gettysburg College

ROBERT L. BLOOM


Historians, particularly since the days of Leopold von Ranke, have attempted to model their craft upon the workings of science. Ranke, more properly some of his more zealous disciples, confidently proclaimed the ultimate success, that of writing scientific history, history free of bias, i.e., history which portrayed how things actually were, "wie es eigentlich gewesen." Today a new development in historical study has again produced the misconception that historians have the ultimate weapon in their search for the elusive past. The computer has seemed to some to have raised history to a plane of more definitive certitude. Surely a computer cannot be biased; it coldly evaluates the material it receives and produces the answer.

Fortunately those historians using this marvel of modern technology have, for the most part, been careful to indicate the limitations of their work. The computer is a marvelous aid to the historian as is the photocopying machine, but neither takes the historian's place nor makes his evaluations for him. The skill and ability of the historian in his use of any aid determines the validity of the end result, not the instrument itself.

Professors Alexander and Beringer, of the Universities of Missouri and North Dakota respectively, have made efficient use of the computer in their study of the Confederate Congress. They recognize and indicate to the reader the strengths and weaknesses of their quantitative approach and carefully limit the scope of their study and its results.

The authors attempt to discover what it was that determined the vote of a member of the Confederate Congresses. They compile and tabulate information concerning a member's party affiliation, his stand on secession in 1860-1861, his wealth and slaveholding status, how he stood economically in relation to other persons in his district, and whether his district was within the Confederacy or under Union control (Interior or Exterior). This information is cross-tabulated with 1490 of 1900 roll calls in a number of ways "to throw light on the same question: how much and what part of a member's decision making in the Confederate Congresses was associated with and, perhaps, may be attributable to the measurable personal characteristics and circumstances employed in the analysis?"
The book is tedious reading. It is replete with charts, tables and jargon associated with quantitative history. It is not the sort of book one would want to curl up with on a quiet evening. It must be studied and pondered. The conclusions must be extricated from the mass of "cohesion levels," "scale analyses," and "Gamma values." The effort, however, is worth it.

The Confederate Congress has not received much study. Wilfred Buck Yearns's 1960 study, The Confederate Congress, has been the standard work on this subject. This new computer study does not replace Yearns, it supplements him, presenting new insights and statistical support for members' voting behavior. Alexander and Beringer acknowledge their dependence on Yearns though they indicate their lack of agreement with all he says.

Professors Alexander and Beringer's conclusions are judicious. They do not claim too much, recognizing that certain intangibles cannot be measured by quantitative means. They find that the most significant determinants of a congressman's voting behavior were his former party affiliation, his stand on secession, and whether he represented an interior or exterior district. (Exterior congressmen were willing to take much more drastic steps than their interior colleagues.) Economic considerations, even slave-holding status, had little impact on voting patterns. The authors also argue that the lack of a cohesive two party system prevented the establishment of an efficient loyal opposition and thus hindered Congress' effectiveness. Finally, congressmen refused to take the necessary steps to keep the struggling nation viable. They represented "a people who never ventured the ultimate commitment," and thus they were never willing to make it themselves.

In the end the authors agree with David Donald and others that the Confederacy failed, not because of the failure of free institutions, but because of their success. Constitutional liberty was prized above survival.

This work is a worthy addition to the growing corpus of computer historical studies and adds to our insights into the workings not only of the Confederate Congress, but also of democratic bodies as a whole. The authors might have considered a number of other points (e.g., the effect of Jefferson Davis's leadership, or lack thereof, within the context of a Congressman's personal determinants), but it could perhaps be argued that this is beyond the scope of this study. In any case, this is a work of thorough research, valuable insight and judicious conclusions. Alexander and Beringer have produced a book of scholarship and restraint which would well be emulated by all historians, quantitative or traditional.

Gannon College

JOHN F. MARSZALEK, JR.


This volume is one of the most ambitious efforts to interpret the Republican party in the years from Garfield to McKinley since the work of Matthew Josephson. From the outset Professor Marcus gains the reader's
confidence by his ability to explore the period analytically and to present its political nuances clearly. His extensive research into the political documents of key states (New York, Pennsylvania, Ohio, Indiana, and Illinois particularly) makes possible his portrayal of the interrelatedness between politics at the state and national levels.

The author is a highly skilled observer of the competing political forces that make for change, stalemates, and inconsistencies. In attempting to explain these phenomena, he at times reaches conclusions that are not fully supported by the evidence presented. Of course, no single volume could defend the many interpretations offered here to the satisfaction of all readers.

Marcus concludes, for example, that the failure of presidents to be re-elected in this era stems from their becoming too prominent, but to me there is not adequate evidence to show that prominence hindered Arthur in 1884, or Cleveland in 1888, or Harrison in 1892. In conflict with the prominence theory, the author notes that "many an election . . . was determined by who was in the best position for perpetuating frauds." There is support for this generalization, but no relationship to prominence is established.

In a similar manner the author reports that Tom Platt enjoyed complete control of the campaign in New York in 1888; in fact, Matt Quay, as the party's national chairman, personally took charge of the canvass in the state's most crucial area, New York City. When he supplied Platt with $150,000 late in the campaign, critics challenged the use that was made of the funds. Quay explained the situation in a letter to Harrison on January 18, 1889, assuring him that all funds spent by Platt during the campaign were allocations "made upon consultation with me, at my request, and under my direction, and that he used & received no money for any illegitimate purpose or which was not accountable for—to my satisfaction."

Marcus also concludes that Quay "took charge of the eastern headquarters" during the 1896 campaign. This seems unlikely since Hanna wrote him three letters and McKinley one, urging the use of his name on the national committee. In his final letter Hanna declared: "Unless you positively say no, out [to the public] goes your name." Quay remained silent, and in this way "backed" onto the committee. His only recommendation was that funds be appropriated for three southern states: when Hanna authorized funds for only one of them, Quay faded into the background.

Such examples are secondary to the author's main thesis and do not detract from it. Focussing his study on the five presidential elections of the era, Professor Marcus notes that, while the nation was growing in complexity, the Republican machinery was becoming more decentralized. This is an accurate observation, but the author does not indicate fully how it came about. He does not attribute this trend to the Stalwart-Half Breed rivalry and the evolution in the locus of power within bossism.

The Republican party was still establishing itself in a reunited nation during the Grant era. Since the president was ill-equipped to administer
power, it went by default, as Professor Marcus accurately points out, to
the most aggressive senatorial oligarchs, namely Simon Cameron, Roscoe
Conkling, Zach Chandler, Oliver P. Morton, and John A. Logan. On many
occasions these bosses merely advised the president of their needs, sug-
gested how they might be procured, and in due course received their
requests in full. Only so long as a president responded to the petitions
of these state leaders, did the state machines run smoothly.

Dependence on presidential cooperation was paramount. Confronted by
Grant's successors, the machines sputtered and stalled with a frequency
that was alarming to the bosses. When a moderate Republican such as
Hayes, or a Half Breed such as Garfield, or a political opponent such as
Cleveland was in the White House, the boss system was in a precarious
state. Even the patronage pressures on Arthur caused the bosses to grumble
that the spoils were being dispensed too slowly.

Also in the period between 1868 and 1884, the House of Representatives
was often anti- rather than pro-Stalwart; this limited further the legisla-
tive accomplishments that the oligarchs could predict. In addition, the
Pendleton Civil Service Act of 1883 outlined the future more boldly; as
it became reality, spoils at the national level were systematically being
reduced. To the practical minded younger men such as Platt and Quay,
a system of boss rule with tap roots in Washington had lost the security
and influence that it once possessed. They sought to shift the locus of
power from the nation's capital to the individual states.

These factors, along with those emphasized in Professor Marcus's treatise,
account for the trend toward party decentralization. The growing com-
plexity of the nation presented the various state leaders with conflicting
goals and prompted them to build machines that would be responsive to
their own particular needs.

Byzantine Rite Rusins in Carpatho-Ruthenia and America. By Walter C.
$7.95.)

The past several years have witnessed a growing interest in the study
of minorities in American society. It is becoming increasingly clear, in
fact, that the story of ethnic groups is a rich field of historical scholarship
that has much to say of the American experience. Pennsylvania, moreover,
has more than its share of ethnic communities, most of which are still
awaiting serious scholarly treatment.

Walter Warzeski, who is essentially a European historian, has provided
us with a pioneering effort, nonetheless, into the life and struggles of an
ethnic group that was largely centered in Pennsylvania. His volume is a
study of the relationship between nationality and religion in both the old
and new homelands of the Rusins. Indeed, he suggests that religious-
denominational conflict led to the emergence of a unifying Ruthenian na-
tional consciousness.

The Rusins were an Eastern Slavic people from Carpatho-Ruthenia—the
easternmost state of pre-World War II Czechoslovakia. Warzeski provides us with a long introductory essay on the original Slavic migrations into the Carpathian Mountain region and the religious events which brought the Slavs of Carpatho-Ruthenia into a union—"Uniate Church"—with Rome. Moreover, his discussions of the Uniate Church in Carpatho-Ruthenia from 1715 to 1940 provides American historians with valuable background information on a particular American ethnic group.

Rusin immigrants came to America largely in the early years of the twentieth century. Warzeski argues that the primary cause of Rusin emigration was economic. Industrialization and taxation in Austria-Hungary helped break up the old system of land holding among the peasants of the Carpathian region and forced a mass exodus of the population on a permanent and seasonal basis. Pennsylvania received the majority of Rusins. Warzeski points out that they initially settled in the eastern coal regions of the state, often entering the mines as strikebreakers. Later many moved to the bituminous fields and steel centers around Pittsburgh.

Warzeski deals extensively with the growth of Rusin colonies in Pennsylvania, especially the formation of their religious institutions. Perhaps his major contribution to students of American immigration, however, is his detailed examination of the growth and persistent factionalism of the immigrant Uniate Church in Pennsylvania. With the appointment of a bishop for Uniates in America, factions arose between the Ukrainian Catholics and the Rusins. The bishop, Stephen Ortinsky, set up his offices in Philadelphia and, through the appointments of certain clerics, became identified with the Ukrainian faction. This led to a deep division between Ukrainians and Rusins who opposed a “Ukrainization” of the Uniate Church. The Rusin faction was led by a fraternal group centered in the Pittsburgh area, the Greek Catholic Union. The GCU, significantly, not only challenged Ukrainian leadership but espoused doctrines of lay control in their running of immigrant churches. The factionalism resulted in a division of the Church in 1918 into a Rusin and a Ukrainian branch.

As if the heightened ethnic consciousness which split the Uniate Church in America was not sufficient proof of the intensity of ethnic feelings that were aroused by the American experience, Warzeski gives us a lucid discussion of the remarkable birth of an autonomous Carpatho-Ruthenian state planned in Pennsylvania.

In the Pittsburgh agreement of 1918, American Rusins began negotiations with Thomas Masaryk for the creation of an autonomous Rusin state within Czechoslovakia—since an independent Rusin nation would be too small. This end was furthered by the formation of an American Carpatho-Rusin Council in Homestead, Pennsylvania, in 1918. The council’s representative, Gregory Zatkovich, a Pittsburgh lawyer, conferred with Woodrow Wilson on the future role of Ruthenia. Zatkovich was eventually able to gain incorporation of Ruthenia into Czechoslovakia.

The final sections of Warzeski’s account are devoted to the internecine strife that characterized the Pittsburgh Exarchate before 1950. Issues involving lay control, celibacy, and controversial bishops led to several schismatic movements.
Warzeski's study is a contribution in both American and European history. For students of American social history, moreover, it is a valuable addition to the growing scholarship on the relationship between religion and ethnicity.

*Pennsylvania Historical and Museum Commission*  
*John Bodnar*


Professor Darrah, Gettysburg College paleobotanist, has presented an excellent description of the sudden emergence, brief prosperity, and rapid decline of the western Pennsylvania oil town of Pithole. Wildcatters on Pithole Creek brought in a handful of wells by the spring of 1865 and touched off a boom that attracted approximately 20,000 persons to a nearby bluff on which, according to the drawings of draftsmen, would arise a city with broad streets and high hopes. Between the summers of 1865 and 1866 Pithole surged forward: speculators, tavern keepers, loose women, and drivers of teams of oxen appeared in droves. Lawlessness was a commonplace. Oil production peaked at nearly 6,000 barrels each day.

A series of disastrous fires in 1866 checked the boom. The completion of pipelines which diverted the oil away from Pithole toward Titusville and the decline of oil production spelled the end of the borough. Its residents moved away in large numbers. By September, 1867, production had fallen to 500 barrels daily. Pithole lingered for a decade and then formally disappeared in August, 1877, when the court of quarter sessions annulled its charter. A year later the site, which in 1865 had sold for two million dollars, went at a sale for $4.37.

Blessed with an abundance of records, newspapers, and photographs, Professor Darrah has patiently and thoroughly recreated a picture of Pithole's three vibrant, raucous years. There is a wealth of detail about petroleum technology, wildcatting, business operations, town construction, amusements, violence, local government, and the hazards of everyday life. Forty-eight photographs, maps, and advertisements enhance the description. Anecdotes enliven it. But the study lacks completeness.

What is missing are perspectives which would provide a reader with an understanding of what transpired behind the scenes so well described. First, a somewhat minor observation is that the acquisition of sites for drilling, oil technology and financing, and the frantic attempts to move the crude oil profitably to market are all treated primarily as local problems in Pithole. Occasionally Professor Darrah relates them to equivalents in the immediate region, but he rarely mentions national conditions which, at times indirectly, compounded local difficulties. There is too limiting an emphasis on the locale.

Second, in his delineation of Pithole society there is no probing of the aspirations, values, institutional strivings, and general goals of the populace. To be sure, and this he implies clearly, there was not a single public purpose. Some came to get rich quickly and move on; others doubtlessly to seek the golden opportunity that would launch successful business
careers elsewhere; others because Pithole seemed another exciting place to go; and still others because it offered them a place to settle down in the midst of affluence. Did the dominant majority transport their former standards and ways of life to Pithole? Did Pithole offer the chance to rebel against the village ethic of their past? What vision did they have of the future of the city? How, beyond church construction and tax assessment, did they endeavor to forge their dream into a reality? Or was Pithole an aggregation of desperate, lost, and futile transients who together produced a garish and often sordid society without depth or purpose?

Perhaps it was the latter, and perhaps the fortunes of the oil economy were strictly a local matter. Pithole leaves this impression with the reviewer. The anecdotes, notably the stories of Ben Hogan and the town's social clubs, support the image of a community marking time until the next strike several miles distant. Yet Professor Darrah at the close of the book asserts:

In later petroleum history, the people who settled boom towns had no intention of building for permanency. They expected to move on to the next strike. Not so with the Pitholeans. They struggled to survive. The speculators deserted as did the unemployed but the townspeople doggedly held on. Perhaps Pithole's dizzy climb and crashing fall taught a lesson.

The conclusion could be true, but the materials as presented fail to give it much support.

To dwell further on the negative is to distort the reviewer's response to Pithole. A well written, carefully researched, detailed narrative, it belongs on the shelves of every library seriously concerned with housing Pennsylvaniana or studies of the oil industry. It makes fine undergraduate reading and scholars of the Commonwealth should note its contribution. If Professor Darrah will forgive the implication of snobbery, a historian might further investigate Pithole and other Pennsylvania oil towns with a broader and more analytical framework—to reach inside events, as it were, and to extract their meaning both for Pitholeans and the successive waves of humanity drawn to the lure and irrepressible disappointment of boom towns throughout the region.

Bloomsburg State College


This book, bearing the imprimatur of a county historical society, is decidedly atypical of the usual local history offerings. It is neither antiquarian, sentimental-nostalgic, anecdotal, bombastic, whimsical, nor amateurish. It is a product of two qualified Ph.D.'s (Newton from Western Reserve University in Cleveland; Sperry from the University of Arizona). Both happen to be professors of history at Bloomsburg State College; and they perceived a larger significance in the tragic history of nearby Jamison.
City. The result is a thoroughly researched, well-written, interpretive book.

Jamison City is virtually a ghost town, having dwindled from 350 residents (85 houses) in 1893 to fourteen families in residence in 1970. The story of the founding of such a community, its hopes and ambitions, and its doom makes for painful reading, like the obituary of a promising young man who is killed in a war that is not of his own choosing. Did it need to happen? The authors obviously regret that it did; but do not suggest any other alternative. The inference, however, is that the railroad should never have been built, the town never platted, and the mountainous, forested wilderness of east-central Pennsylvania left unspoiled.

Jamison City was doomed from the start. "The logic of lumber exploitation had already sentenced it in time to a ghostly future." Right or wrong, some 200,000 acres of virgin timber (spruce, hemlock, and hardwoods) were sacrificed in response to the greed for profits and in behalf of the prevailing philosophy of economic progress. The cost in human and ecological terms was not reckoned.

The authors present a clear account with precise details gleaned from newspapers, official records, manuscripts, and interviews. The reader gains a close insight into railroad promotion and financing, townsite speculation, and the organization and operation of sawmills and tanneries. The industries were large, efficient, using mass production techniques—a marvel to visitors. The workmen were comparatively well paid. The county road, the bridge across Fishing Creek, two pretentious hotels, the Methodist Church, the Cornet Band, the baseball team, etc., all gave an aura of permanence during the boom era.

While every aspect of community life is described, the authors give particular attention to the social structure. It seems likely, in fact, that this book began as a comprehensive study of small-town social structure. At the top were the seldom visible elite, the few who dominated the fate of the community however much the local middle class might delude themselves that the facts were otherwise. Among these absentee rulers were the Philadelphia banker Benton K. Jamison, Boston banker Thomas E. Proctor, and a military man, Colonel James Corcoran of Williamsport. The middle class, which included most of the permanent residents including some sawmill and tannery workers, mostly hailed from nearby counties and were of British, German, or Irish extraction. The numerous transients, and a sizable minority of Hungarian, Polish, and Italian immigrants comprised the lowest strata. The authors conclude that the town might have survived except that the "emerging middle class could not possibly accrue enough capital to maintain the village's economic structure" after the timber resources were depleted.

In short, Jamison City was dependent on a single industry; indeed by 1905 a single company. A series of mergers had given U. S. Leather Co. a "monopoly in lumbering and tanning." Many other communities, in other times and places have been victims of similar circumstances, from the eighteenth century English "deserted village" of Goldsmith's poem to the ghost towns of the Rocky Mountain mining frontier. Pueblo, Colorado,
BOOK REVIEWS AND BOOK NOTES

long dependent on the Colorado Fuel & Iron Corporation, is a recent example.

To have recorded in detail the course of events in an ill-fated boomtown is a valuable contribution to historical knowledge.

Illinois State University

FRED W. KOHLMeyer


Amid the changing historical perspectives on the Progressive Era, one element has remained constant. Scholars have agreed that the railroads, and the men who operated them, were proper targets for the wrath and scorn of a reform-minded generation. The terms of the Progressive indictment are familiar. Railroads made exorbitant profits through high rates and watered stock; in return the public got inferior service. These corporate giants interfered in politics with improper influence and often outright bribery. In 1965 Gabriel Kolko's Railroads and Regulation even contended that the railroads had welcomed and sponsored federal regulation as a relief from the hazards of ruinous competition and vigorous state supervision.

Albro Martin's fascinating book challenges the whole tradition of Progressive historiography and forcefully contends that the railroads were more victims than villains. Arguing that it is wrong to equate the situation of the railroads in the early 1900s with conditions two decades earlier, Martin offers impressive evidence of industry achievement in the decade between 1897 and 1906. In those years American companies improved and rebuilt the national railroad network; they developed larger locomotives and bigger rolling stock; they recorded substantial gains in the number of passengers, amount of freight, and general productivity. While not ignoring sensational episodes like the troubles of the New Haven Railroad, Martin renders a favorable verdict on the quality of railroad leadership in this period.

After 1906, however, the railroads found their financial predicament more precarious. At a time when demand for their services was growing, the rail companies faced rising costs, especially for labor, declining income, and a drying-up of outside capital for investment. In astute and subtle chapters on the industry's condition, Martin concludes that a general rate increase was needed to supply the money that the roads required. In the author's view, the failure of the Interstate Commerce Commission to authorize these rate boosts between 1910 and 1917 was short-sighted and disastrous. The ICC's actions held back the railroad system and laid the basis for the troubles that have plagued it during the ensuing half century.

An examination of the ICC's successive denials of railroad requests for higher rates forms the core of Martin's analysis. He demonstrates that the rail companies had a far better case than historians have alleged, and he casts serious doubt on the fairness and judgment of the ICC members. The author is equally skeptical that the public interest and the interest
of railroad opponents were identical, as the commission, the public, and historians assumed. The ICC, Martin says, could have performed a useful service as a kind of administrative ombudsman to see that rates were applied equitably and efficiently. Instead, an "archaic Progressivism" deprived the railroads of rate hikes and applied one standard of regulation to them and another to their competitors.

The adherents of "archaic Progressivism" receive tart treatment. Martin has few kind words for Senator Robert M. LaFollette and correctly discerns the shallowness of "Battle Bob's" economic thought on matters like the physical valuation of railroad property. Recognizing the leadership of Albert B. Cummins among Senate progressives in this area, the author outlines the Iowan's bitterness toward the railroads, and his skill in framing legislation against them. Martin's astringent comments on these men are a welcome corrective to the uncritical praise so often administered. The credit given Francis G. Newlands of Nevada for constructive policies again underscores the need for a full biography of this neglected lawmaker.

Martin also attacks Louis D. Brandeis's record on railroad regulation in one of the few critical evaluations in recent years of this progressive hero. Brandeis's impractical ideas for "scientific management" in the operation of railroads disclose another side of the reformer that his admirers have played down. He could be as crafty and calculating as any of his adversaries. Martin plausibly concludes, moreover, that there was "a certain intellectual coarseness in Brandeis's grasp of the workings of the capitalistic economy." Now that his letters are being published, more detached and analytic examinations of Brandeis's reform career are in order, and Martin's work will be a useful element in that reappraisal.

Coming to history from a business career, Martin displays an easy mastery of corporate finance and the daily operation of the railroads. His pages on rate-making are an excellent introduction to that troubled topic, and he shrewdly recognizes the impact of inflation on American politics and economic life in these years. The book is also a delight to read. The author understands the value of "color" in creating versimilitude; his acidic footnotes, witty asides, and caustic prose further enhance his narrative. Soundly based on a wealth of government documents, company reports, and printed sources, the book might have gained more depth from research in the riches of manuscript material for this period. Some will view Martin's iconoclastic work as merely a conservative rebuttal to Kolko, but it is more than that. It represents a significant contribution to the erosion of the hackneyed interpretive analyses that have too long dominated scholarly efforts in the Progressive Era, and it reopens the railroad question for serious historical debate.


As the successful Princeton professor crossed the Atlantic on his first
foreign excursion, the United States quickly amassed an imperial domain outside its continental borders. The events were not completely unrelated. How could they be when Wilson soon began searching for a scholar to fill an endowed chair in colonial administration at Old Nassau. The ramifications of the Spanish-American War deeply affected Wilson's thoughts on American society and its political institutions. This volume closes with a new introduction he wrote to the fifteenth edition of _Congressional Government_. In it the author described the obvious repercussions the war had on his own political science. "Much the most important change to be noticed," Wilson writes, "is the result of the war with Spain upon the lodgment and exercise of power within our federal system: the greatly increased power and opportunity for constructive statesmanship given to the President by the plunge into international politics and into the administration of distant dependencies."

There were other effects beyond the growth of presidential power. A newspaper account of a speech Wilson delivered at Waterbury, Connecticut in December of 1899, reported that the lecturer had originally opposed the acquisition of the new territories. But he had since changed his views. Indeed, Wilson was reported to have rejoiced that "this country has young men who prefer dying in the ditches of the Philippines to spending their lives behind the counters of a dry goods store in our eastern cities." Wilson consequently reckoned the Filipino venture as "an opportunity for the impetuous, hot blooded young men of the country to serve . . . according to the measure of their power." One wonders about the intellectual position the nation's teachers assumed in this new 'tough' era that marked our entry into the world political arena as the published Princeton scholar forebodingly commented that institutions "are not spread by manuscripts." If the possession of Pacific islands was disputed among Russians, Germans, and Americans, Wilson reasoned that it was the United States that should take them "inasmuch as hers was the light of day, while theirs was the light of darkness."

In such a Manichaean milieu it would come as no surprise that traditional American beliefs became as dated as Wilson's description of congressional inertia. The egalitarian heritage of the American past was an uncomfortable, atavistic throwback to a primitive age of idyllic isolation. Innocence lost! How else account for Wilson's treatment of the Declaration of Independence before a group of New England prep school administrators? If there was a time when Americans had taken the statements of that precious document literally, Wilson noted that his own contemporaries read it in a "Pickwickian sense." Laughter was reported among his auditors as the speaker continued that "if we believe that all men are born free and equal, we know that the freedom and equality stops at their birth." Empire building always requires giants in the earth.

In this age of the new imperialism, the Southern scholar soon found that his deep interest in the Civil War and its aftermath brought insights particularly germane to the position of world power his country relentlessly occupied. This volume contains three especially interesting articles Wilson composed on the causes of that war and its consequences.
A lecture on secession, which he delivered at Richmond College, a chapter on states' rights he prepared at the request of Lord Acton for the Cambridge Modern History series, and a piece composed for a magazine issue devoted to Reconstruction established a Wilsonian synthesis in which the agony of sectional division laid the groundwork for the grandiose accomplishments of national imperialism. Throughout all these essays there appears the biological analogy of the nation state—where legalist interpretations of our constitutional structure are replaced by the category of the organic state. Wilson found that both the North and South were "right" from their respective points of view. He was relieved that once the country quit the internecine conflict it emerged "with a stronger national life permeating all sections and all parties." We came to realize that "written constitutions are not mere legal documents . . . (but) the skeleton frame of a living organism."

The issue of slavery may appear as the cause. But agreeing with his friend Frederick Jackson Turner, Wilson thought that was true only "upon the surface." The North won not merely because she possessed a material advantage of men and resources, but because she fought on behalf of "the abiding peace, concord, and strength of a great nation." The national government which emerged from the task of Reconstruction was not the one "which went into it." After toying with the emancipated slaves—those whom Wilson describes as "a host of dusky children untimely put out of school," the American nation state passed beyond the occupation of the defeated Confederacy to a more manifest destiny. It awoke to that "sentiment of union and nationality, never before aroused to full consciousness or knowledge of its own thought and aspirations." So there developed by the beginning of the twentieth century this "new thing, aggressive and aware of a sort of conquest." And because empire-building was the prerogative of only the strong, Wilson concluded the *fin de siècle* American expansion was the "direct result of the national spirit which the war between the states cried so wide awake, and to which the process of Reconstruction gave the subtle assurance of practically unimpeded sway and free choice of means." Having undergone this mighty metamorphosis, the American nation state would no longer be hindered by sectional divisions and constitutional legalisms. It would be able to conquer and rule. But over whom would its sway be exercised? Naturally, it was to be those "undeveloped races which have not yet learned the rudiments of order and self-control." Mixing elements of Burke and Darwin, Wilson made his contribution to the new American ideology of integral and imperial nationalism.

Like all the published volumes in this series, this one contains the leitmotifs of the Wilson family and personality. Ellen visits New Orleans and writes her husband about the extravagances of a creole culture celebrating the Mardi Gras. Wilson himself corresponds with a New York physician in regard to a new electric therapy he is using for his nervous "tic." An unsuccessful effort is made to bring out the journal of Philip Vickers Fithian for publication. On his trip abroad, Wilson observes the ritual of an English assize and describes Dublin as "one of the dirtiest
cities in the world." He expresses interest in an educational experiment for Appalachian hill people centered around Berea College. One is astonished to learn that while Wilson toured the British Isles, his wife slept with a pistol "at my bed-head for some time now" as the academic community at Princeton experienced its own law and order scare. This volume continues the outstanding contribution its editors are making to documentary history. But the specter of inflation has even touched the Wilson Papers with a one dollar increase in the price for this latest product of their labors.

The University of Connecticut

VINCENT A. CARRAFIELLO
The Negro in Pennsylvania History, No. 11 in the Pennsylvania Historical Association's Historical Studies series, has just been published. This 68-page booklet presents a comprehensive survey of the social, legal, political, and cultural progress of a people, starting with the settlement of the Delaware Valley. The author is Ira V. Brown, professor of history at Pennsylvania State University. Like the other Pennsylvania Historical Studies, it will serve as a useful course supplement for teacher and student (it contains a bibliography), and will be an enlightening experience for the general reader.

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

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