
All God’s children have roots. This time the origins were German, and the transplantation was to the Pennsylvania frontier north of Easton in the 1740s. Heimer’s historical novel recounts John and Susanna Hahn’s occupancy of a 200-acre tract of wilderness and its transformation through unremitting physical labor into a productive farm. Progress for their family is measured in terms of acres under cultivation and buildings erected. Contacts with neighbors originating in need of assistance for house and barn raisings or a child’s birth soon find institutional expression in church and school. According to the publisher, the author’s purpose is to tell the story of his own ancestors and recount “what life was like for the colonists and immigrants who never made the history books.”

For the casual reader the volume appears to be a low key, factual account of the evolution of the Hahn farmstead and family, 1741-1777. House and barn raisings, christenings (Taufschein), organization of a union church, the acquisition of livestock, clearing of fields, building fences, and the rhythms of agriculture are duly recorded. The pioneers encounter standard hazards: a blizzard, a bear, and Indians. Score in the 1756 Indian alert: one Indian killed, two wounded by rifle fire and two more slain, while entering the cabin, by an axe-wielding Susanna, a tigress in defense of hearth and young. Before the story closes, the children have grown, married, acquired farms, entered artisan occupations, or enlisted in the Revolutionary army. It ends when the matriarch dies full of years, revered for her family and pioneer roles. Although the account is fiction, that is disguised by the book’s form as an historical narrative complete with functional footnotes and bibliography citing standard historical and antiquarian sources on the Pennsylvania German community.

Historians in the schools as well as librarians might recommend the novel for its local flavor and attention to folkways. But they should stress to users that some of the book’s most fictionalized aspects appear as facts about clearing land and the construction and maintenance of buildings. Examples: Between 21 July and early October 1746 the adults with two axes (but no draft animals) clear, drag-harrow, and plant six acres in wheat. Yet construction of a winterized shelter complete with fireplace occupied them continuously until 15 September. The following spring John with two oxen completed clearing, plowed, and planted sixteen acres in corn in less than one month. In the first fifteen months, forty acres were cleared, fenced and more than half placed in cultivation, a log cabin erected, and a shelter provided for cattle. The rate of conversion of forest to arable would do credit to Paul Bunyan and Babe.
It substantially exceeds rates reported in Fletcher’s *Pennsylvania Agriculture and Country Life* which Heimer cites. Possible prolepsis is also present. In 1748 a barn builder, whose sole occupation is this trade and whose services are scheduled for the next seven years, erects a large bank barn for a nearby frontier farmer. He returns ten years later to build one for the Hahns. In 1766 itinerant painters materialize with ladders, scaffolding, and paint for the barn. Yet Fletcher advises that most Pennsylvania barns were unpainted as late as 1840.

A twenty-page appendix provides brief histories of ten union churches—Lutheran and Reformed—of eastern Pennsylvania and a list showing names and locations of other “notable” union churches. The operative connection to the main work derives from the heritage of the author in the Reformed Church.

Lest the title mislead, note that this is not family history in the sense that devotees of that emergent specialty understand the term.

*Dickinson College*  

Warren J. Gates


Though Pennsylvanian Robert Morris undoubtedly marred his own historical reputation in his later years, this volume of *The Papers of Robert Morris* shows the man at his best and also establishes his place among the hallowed Founding Fathers of the nation. The papers cover the important but often overlooked months of January to April 1782 when Morris, as Superintendent of Finance for the new nation, was called upon to persuade the several states to come forth with their requisitions, finance an anticipated post-Yorktown campaign, and keep impatient creditors, army officers, and congressmen at bay while desperately searching for new sources of revenue. As his correspondence and diary clearly demonstrate, Morris was a master in all this—often patient and forebearing, sometimes clever and ingratiating, and occasionally brusque and rude as he attempted to juggle the infant nation’s meager financial resources and thus keep the country afloat.

The volume—as are its predecessors—is organized around Morris’s diary, an illuminating day-to-day chronicle of those crucial months when it was uncertain whether Great Britain would mount another military offensive or whether the vulnerable new nation would financially collapse before it could gain its independence. As always, Morris showed a remarkable grasp of every detail of securing provisions and animals, finding partial pay for officers and men, obtaining loans from other nations, and creating favorable propaganda for his programs (in one case through the use of the popular but erratic Thomas Paine). Morris wheedled, cajoled, barked, and threatened in an only partially successful effort to make people believe that the new government was stronger and more decisive than it in fact was. One can see why the nation owes him so much and why many of his contemporaries found him impossible.
For financial reasons, editors Ferguson and Catanzariti have kept explanatory footnotes and editors' asides to a bare minimum. Yet they were wise in this choice, for Morris's papers—as much as any Founding Father's—clearly speak for themselves. Indeed, we see Morris unobscured as he went about his indispensable role in the creation of the United States.

Scholars of the Revolution will find the volume both rewarding and useful. General readers will find the disparate pieces of an intriguing story of a man at his apex and a nation at its birth.

University of Tennessee, Knoxville

WILLIAM BRUCE WHEELER


“Philadelphia has taken Howe” was Benjamin Franklin's famous response to the news that the British army had captured the Revolutionary capital. Regardless of whether Franklin referred only to General Howe's private life or was predicting problems that the entire army would face there, this witticism has been used in many studies to introduce the few passages that superficially discuss the occupation of Philadelphia. At last John W. Jackson has produced a detailed account of what took place during those nine months from 18 September 1777 to 17 June 1778. He begins with incidents leading up to occupation and includes chapters on the battles of Brandywine and Germantown. Emphasis is placed on the struggle to control the Delaware River, which had to be resolved before Philadelphia could be transformed from a beleaguered British stronghold to a garrisoned city. The British finally gained control of the river late in November.

Jackson has traced the location of most of the quarters used by the British. Many enlisted men had to be sheltered in deserted private homes where they did structural damage, looted and deposited filth. Since they were closely confined to the buildings, some destructiveness was inevitable. Other redcoats, however, looted the neighborhoods. In the matter of obtaining fuel it is likely that their officers expected them to be brutal, and in this process many private homes were demolished. There was also a food shortage. Unfortunately, Jackson does not treat this in broad terms so that it is not clear how bad the situation really was. Loyalist retail merchants from other areas gravitated to Philadelphia late in 1777 and set up new shops. But by 1778 the outlook was so unfavorable that few were willing to become involved in further new ventures. Of course, profiteering and price gouging were common events. Manufacturing ceased entirely during the occupation.

Although they were backed by British arms, Philadelphia's loyalists did not engage in widespread recriminations against fellow citizens who had supported the Revolution. Nor was there any significant partisan skirmishing within the city. Lack of discipline among the enlisted redcoats was responsible for most internal problems. In a chapter devoted to military discipline Jackson explains that British commanders tried to make the courts martial system a deterrent against undisciplined
BOOK REVIEWS

brutalizing of civilians. They were largely unsuccessful. Since Jackson does not compare the occupation with occupations of other areas, it is not clear to the reader whether Philadelphia's situation was any worse than might have been expected in any eighteenth-century military occupation.

The high living of the officers' corps is presented in three chapters dealing with the officers' dramatic performances, their drinking and gambling activities, and their farewell extravaganza honoring Howe as he departed—known as the Meschianza. There is no reason to believe that these were undertaken as anything more than respite from military duties. The participants mirrored their commander's life-style, something subordinate officers have always been encouraged to do. Civilians did not complain about these activities. The worst result was that several officers compiled gambling debts which ruined their careers. They had to sell their commissions and retire.

The final six weeks of occupation was a confusing period. On 4 February, George III told Germain to accept Howe's resignation, and on 21 March he sent secret instructions directly to the succeeding commander, Sir Henry Clinton, to evacuate Philadelphia and, if the Carlisle peace mission should fail, also to abandon New York and perhaps even Rhode Island. Unaware of the royal decision, however, subordinate commanders like Brigadier General Sir William Erskine and loyalists like Joseph Galloway tried to change Clinton's mind almost up until the day of departure. As we know from other studies, the powers of the three-man Carlisle peace mission were uncertain. That added to the confusion. Also, although Clinton arrived in Philadelphia on 8 May and formally took command on 11 May, Howe acted as commander until his departure on 24 May. Thus, he was in command of a major exercise that involved risking a major engagement at Barren Hill, on 19 May. Also, until a few days before the evacuation the British continued to enlarge their fortified lines north of Germantown, which was a very expensive way to try to deceive the Continental army.

A chapter is devoted to problems of American prisoners in Philadelphia. Jackson is certain that they were mistreated, although the examples he presents are neither specific nor convincing. Mistreatment was in part a function of the materiel shortages. The first supervisor of prisoners, Provost William Cunningham, has always been portrayed as a cruel person, but the reader is left in doubt as to why he acquired that reputation. Eventually he was transferred back to New York. From that moment American prisoners ceased to submit written complaints about mistreatment. There was a professional military understanding that an army fed those of its men who were prisoners of an enemy. This was impractical, however, for both armies during the winter of 1777-1778. The problem was that the British used the understood rule as an excuse for providing so little for the American prisoners. Exchange of prisoners did not work because the British felt they had been cheated when, in 1776, they had released large numbers of Americans without receiving anything in return.
The detailed information concerning the British northern defensive lines, the Delaware River struggles, and the skirmishes and confrontations that occurred during the nine-month period is probably the finest contribution this book makes. One can read into these accounts the fact that success or defeat was always in doubt, so that this is a corrective to the common interpretation of the period, an interpretation that has risen to the level of myth or epic because of the heroism at Valley Forge. But the book is written in an unorthodox manner. There is no consideration of the strategic thinking of the commanders and there are no comparisons to military activity elsewhere during the Revolution or at any other time during history. Also, in dealing with a subject that demands consideration of logistics, the author fails to attempt quantification. Professor R. A. Bowler has argued convincingly that the British trans-oceanic supply system was especially defective during 1778, but Jackson does not even touch on that aspect. Furthermore, the author should have spent much more time arranging and polishing his manuscript before publication. Although the choice of chapter topics is excellent, there are many confusing and overlapping sections. There are some illogical passages, too, as on pages 11 and 12 where there is reference to a troublesome spurious communication planted by General Sullivan, but no hint as to what it contained. On page 82 there is a paragraph dealing with plundering civilian property, but it is not clear whether the comments apply to Germantown or Philadelphia. Similarly, on page 191, the fact that officers shifted their personal quarters in Philadelphia without authorization is placed within a paragraph dealing with vandalism.

Pennsylvania Historical and Museum Commission


To her contemporaries, Graceanna Lewis was a figure of note, an accomplished, if marginal, contributor to American science. Spencer F. Baird, the prominent ornithologist, praised her “great originality in research.” Thomas Henry Huxley, on a visit to the United States in 1876, pronounced her work “fully up to the latest and most advanced ideas in regard to systematic classification.” Supporters of women’s rights celebrated her career in their journals and such works as Daughters of America (1877) and A Woman of the Century (1898). Our own century has been less kind. Historians of science rarely mention her name. She is absent from such standard guides as the Dictionary of American Biography, Who Was Who, and even Notable American Women. In this slender biography, Deborah Jean Warner of the Smithsonian rescues an admittedly minor figure from this undeserved oblivion.

A birthright Quaker, a scientist, and a woman, Graceanna Lewis participated in the vital movements of her time. Born in 1821 in Chester County, Pennsylvania, on land deeded to her ancestors by William Penn, she inherited a belief in equality and a love of God that shaped her entire career. From her youth, she actively supported abolitionism. During
the Civil War she turned to natural science which, in accord with the prevailing Baconianism, she viewed as an avenue to understanding God's creation. During the 1860s she found support from this quest in German Naturphilosophie and the work of Louis Agassiz. In later years she honored this allegiance in rearguard battles against the major tenets of Darwinism, while earning a reputation as a popular lecturer, author of *A Natural History of Birds* (1868), and designer of carefully illustrated phylogenic charts. Unable to obtain an academic post, she paid the price of her sex, and of the professionalization in science that finally stranded a generation of amateurs. Treated as an equal in her youth, she never knew or understood the "cult of true womanhood" and for this reason, the author suggests, was less actively rebellious than Margaret Fuller or the Grimké sisters. Never married, she formed deep emotional relationships with other women of the sort our post-Freudian age finds difficult to understand. Despite her Quaker dislike of politics, she was sympathetic to suffragism in her later years. Three years after her death in 1912, the suffragists of Media held a service at her grave.

The author treats these several aspects in eight brief, well-organized chapters. In each instance, she relates biographical detail to recent scholarship. Although specialists will find little that is new, the focus on a single life raises important questions concerning the relationship of science, sex-role typing, and reform in the nineteenth century. Tantalizing excerpts from letters—concerning the "ugly red houses and uglier people" of York, for example, or her personal relationships—make one yearn for a deeper analysis of a complex personality. Although drawing on personal papers, the biographer is apparently not helped by the fact that Lewis destroyed much of her correspondence, preserving especially that which showed how "fragrant with goodness" were her sisters and friends. A useful contribution to Quaker history, this study underlines the importance of religion in stimulating scientific endeavor in the mid-nineteenth century, and the limits this commitment placed on speculation in the post-Darwinian years. Students of Pennsylvania history will enjoy the details of her life and work in Chester and Delaware Counties.

Swarthmore College

ROBERT C. BANNISTER


Jesse Holmes was a unique individual, and the fact that he could stay happily in the Religious Society of Friends is an indication of the resiliency and vitality of this small sect. While he had an enormous following among his admirers, there must have been many Quakers who shook their heads in a perplexed manner as they observed his career.

He came from a Quaker family in Iowa, and his early education was obtained in that state and nearby Nebraska; however, he went east to Johns Hopkins University to pursue a Ph.D. in the sciences. After several years of teaching chemistry and physics at George School, the Friends
boarding school in Pennsylvania, he agreed to change his direction and
pursue the fields of philosophy and religion as a faculty member at Swarths-
more College. In 1892 he married a Philadelphia woman, Rebecca Webb,
who served as a balance wheel to a superactive career for the next half
century.

Professor Albert Wahl has gone through an enormous volume of pri-
ivate letters and published materials in preparing this stimulating and
illuminating biography. Having been drawn to Holmes through his pre-
vious studies of the Progressive Friends at Longwood, he has tended to
emphasize the liberal and sometimes radical activities of this Swarthmore
professor. He has traced his work for the Peace Movement, including
the founding years of the American Friends Service Committee, and
provided interesting material about his service overseas with this body. He
has also described in graphic fashion the contribution of Holmes to the
Chautauqua idea, which gave him an opportunity to speak about peace
and other social issues. Holmes was a leading figure in the Socialist Party
in Pennsylvania for many years and ran for governor in 1934 and 1938. He
worked actively for Norman Thomas in the presidential elections in the
1930s and ran for Congress several times in Delaware County on the
Socialist ticket.

Several chapters deal with Swarthmore College, especially during the
years that Frank Aydelotte was president. Holmes, who was very popular
with the students, was often referred to as “Ducky Holmes.” For one
who was an ardent pacifist, he had an extraordinary interest in inter-
collegiate athletics. At the same time, Holmes contributed a great deal
to the intellectual life and vigor of Swarthmore during these important
years.

Professor Wahl has also provided insight into the life of the so-called
“Hicksite” Friends both at Swarthmore and in Philadelphia Yearly
Meeting. However, Holmes’s intellectual and spiritual scope was not entirely
satisfied by this group, and he was actively involved in the Progressive
Friends movement where he served for some years as presiding clerk.

While the author provided this reviewer with full notes on the sources
for the entire book, unfortunately his publisher decided to omit these
notes from the volume in the interest of keeping the cost down. In addition,
the publisher refused to allow him to provide an index for the volume.
This is the sort of book which would have been made far more valuable
to both general readers and scholars if adequate notes and an index had
been provided. A skillful editor would have persuaded Professor Wahl
to omit some parts of the book which could have been published in other
places, as well as to avoid some repetition, and such deletions would have
made it possible to include both the notes and the index within a 450-
page volume.

Despite these serious deficiencies and a number of minor mistakes
in specific facts and spelling, this is an extremely valuable book which
will be referred to for many years to come.

Haverford College

Edwin B. Bronner
This third volume in C. D. Stephenson's history of Indiana County consists of documents intended to illustrate and expand upon the historical narrative presented in volumes 1 and 2. The scope of the source material is impressive. Items range from a late eighteenth-century poem describing an Indian captivity to charming accounts of growing up in Indiana County by filmstar Jimmy Stewart. Also included are nineteenth and twentieth-century newspaper articles, memoirs, and a few public documents. There are some pictures, too, which add richness to the text.

Stephenson has included pieces that illuminate the growth of the county and the oddities and strengths of the inhabitants. Of particular interest are articles that focus upon the effects within the county of events of state or national scope. There are, for example, documents that mark Indiana's reaction to the Civil War and its peace, to World War I and its Armistice, and Indiana's participation in the Second World War. Milestones are also noted: there are documents about the beginnings of the automobile age, the coming of the street car, the founding of Clymer and the development of Rossiter—the latter are two twentieth-century communities within the county.

Murderers get their say, as do trolley bandits and victims of mine disasters. Some election battles gain attention, and some human interest stories are featured, such as "A Home for an Abandoned Baby."

Local historians will find a wealth of information in this book. Residents of the various communities in Indiana County will be pleased to read of their past. School teachers, teaching local or Pennsylvania history, will find a great deal of useful material here. They should be able to assign particular documents to their students in order to give specificity to local studies. Imagine a school child reading of commencement week at Indiana Normal School in 1880, and then writing an account of his or her own last week of school. Imagine students looking at the various documents presented in Part III (1810 to 1844) and analyzing the reasons for growth in some communities and stagnation in others, or reading Part IV (1845-1865) and understanding the complexities of the Civil War. Might a school child better understand the Tory position during the Revolutionary period by reading Richard Weston's "Confessions of a Tory" (1788) or might a young person have a new understanding of contemporary local attitudes by reading the 1955 "Appeal to End Racial Discrimination."

There is a scattershot approach to the documents, however, for the editor gives no explanation of his selection process or his themes. Mr. Stephenson does not give us a clue about his editorial process, either. Were documents shortened, tidied up, or corrected? And where are the various items to be found? Only the newspaper articles have firm identification; the whereabouts of most of the other documents are not given (see for example, Matthias Manner's Civil War Diary, p. 179), nor are there
specific dates on the magazine articles (see, "This Was My Father," by James Stewart, from *McCalls* p. 505).

I am also concerned about what is omitted. It is awkward to complain about what does not appear in a 650-page book, but there are no church documents nor are there census materials. These latter, either copies of the originals or the abridged accounts found in almost all nineteenth-century newspapers, would have provided the reader with a more fully rounded look at Indiana’s population so that the changes over time of people, their occupations, their allegiances, and their households could be known. Census materials would have framed these diverse items into a meaningful historical context lifting them from accounts that are merely interesting or curious to pieces that help our understanding of the past. Their absence is sorely missed.

Tompkins Cortland Community College,  
Dryden, New York

---


To a certain extent Trussell has followed the Wilkinson-Wall tradition, dividing his bibliography into the same broad categories of bibliographical aids, books concerning chronological periods, general and special works such as county histories, and a final miscellaneous category dealing with travel, church history, military history, folklore, and ethnic groups. There is also an extensive index covering subjects, authors, etc. Trussell’s bibliography reflects recent attempts to do as much research in the post-1860 period as prior to that date whereas two-thirds of Wilkinson’s entries are pre-1860.

While Trussell’s bibliography is fairly good, it did not come up to the full expectation of this reviewer. In the section on research aids Trussell omitted the annual reports of the research conference cosponsored by the Pennsylvania Historical Association and the Pennsylvania Historical and Museum Commission which are published in *Pennsylvania History*. These reports contain important information concerning research which is either going on or needs to be done in the field of Pennsylvania history. They have proved useful for students doing masters theses or doctoral dissertations.
Another area of concern deals with the number of periodicals covered by Wilkinson and Wall as compared with Trussell. Trussell has 2½ pages of periodicals listed while Wall has 5¾ pages and Wilkinson 7¼ pages. Part of the reason may rest with the longer time span of the two earlier bibliographies. Or has Trussell been as careful hunting for articles on Pennsylvania history as the other two?

Even more serious are the articles which Trussell fails to list in the periodicals he uses. For example, in citing articles from the *Proceedings and Collections of the Wyoming Historical and Geological Society 1970*, Trussell notes the article by LeRoy Bugbee on “John Franklin and the Wild Yankees,” in the text and index. Unfortunately he fails to include three other articles from the same publication; namely George D. Wolf on “The Big Runaway of 1778,” W. Curtis Montz on “Water Transportation on the Susquehanna,” and Ralph L. Hazeltine on “Some Notes on the Use of Water Power along Toby’s Creek.” These omissions raise the question of how thorough Trussell has been citing articles in other periodicals.

Certain other minor flaws came to my attention. Trussell repeats the same material in item number 239 which he listed in item number 209. Since the article deals with Benjamin Franklin and William Smith, such repetition may be permissible. Trussell also has a separate topic for the Agnes Flood of 1972 even though his entries stop with 1970.

Over-all this bibliography is valuable as a research tool to aid scholars and students. Knowing the headaches involved in doing extensive bibliographical work and making an accurate index, John B. B. Trussell must be complimented in doing a fairly good job. I look forward to the other bibliographies which will cover books and articles published in the 1970s.

*Bloomsburg State College*

H. Benjamin Powell

---


This guide is a major step in the efforts of the Pennsylvania State Archives to facilitate scholarly access and use of its records. A decade ago a similar *Guide to the Microfilm of the Records of the Provincial Council, 1682–1776*, enhanced research in records of William Penn’s colony. This guide, compiled as part of a National Endowment for the Humanities micropublication grant, deals with the records created by the four Revolutionary councils which governed Pennsylvania between 1775 and 1790.

An introduction to the guide includes a brief history of the Committee of Safety, Council of Safety, (Second) Council of Safety, and the Supreme Executive Council and a list of state and Continental presidents and secretaries. It also contains discussions of the provenance and past history of the records, the editorial methods used in organizing the records for microfilming, and a list of abbreviations. Finally, the introduction also
includes a brief summary of related records and manuscripts in the State Archives, the Historical Society of Pennsylvania, other repositories, and printed sources.

The bulk of the guide (334 of the 351 pages) is devoted to the tables of the records included in the fifty-four rolls of microfilm. Each entry provides the date of the item, the heading, the roll number, and the frame number. Whenever possible, the heading is descriptive.

For example:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Month, Day</th>
<th>Heading</th>
<th>Roll</th>
<th>Frame</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Oct. 14</td>
<td>Chevaux de frise, Report of Pilots employed to sweep river bed</td>
<td>Roll 21</td>
<td>824</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Roll 21 is part of the Executive Correspondence of the Revolutionary Governments, 1775-1790, and is one of three rolls which contain records of the presidency of John Dickinson, 7 November 1782-17 October 1785.

In addition to executive correspondence, the records include the Accounts File containing accounts, receipts, and fiscal reports; Applications for Passes; Military Appointments; Political Appointments; Bankruptcy Files; War Board and Navy Board minutes, account books, bonds of marque, and general correspondence; Clemency Appeals; Forfeited Estates Files; and Military Returns.

The guide's only major shortcoming is the lack of an alphabetical index. The chronological arrangement of the records and of the guide series entries hinders specific item searches. The State Archives has compiled the index, which was beyond the scope of the NEH grant, and should publish it as a supplement to the guide early in 1980.

Both NEH and the Pennsylvania State Archives deserve commendation for supporting this project. The staff did an excellent job arranging the records of an era marked by change, confusion, and intenseness. This guide and, hopefully, similar guides in the future broaden access and thus use of official and administrative records. This provides an additional facet and perspective to our understanding of Pennsylvania under its Revolutionary governments.

_United States National Archives and Records Service_  


This major revision of Diane Lindstrom's 1974 doctoral dissertation received Columbia University's Prize in American Economic History in honor of Allan Nevins. The major focus of her book is an explanation of economic growth and structural change in the Philadelphia region which uses intra-regional demand as the key agent of change, and which argues that demand from other areas of the country (the rest of the Northeast, the West, and the
South) did not contribute significantly to the development of that region's economy up to the mid-1830s. After the mid-1830s the role of trade among the eastern regions increased rapidly. During the period from 1810 until at least the mid-1830s "the nation consisted of several distinct regional economies, each of which followed its own pace and pattern of development" (p. viii).

The combination of trade within the Philadelphia region (the eastern intraregional trade model) and trade among eastern regions (the eastern intrasectional trade model) is labeled the "Eastern Demand Model." The essence of this model is that

a symbiotic relationship existed between the seaport cities and their hinterlands; behind every major American city lay a productive hinterland. During the early national period, this mutually beneficial relationship intensified as the urban cores expanded and more efficiently integrated the areas under their commercial domination. From these strengthened [sic] positions, the Eastern cities were able to engage in significantly increased levels of trade among themselves (p. 93).

The bare bones of the process of growth and development posited in the book is one in which decreased transportation costs resulted in increased core-periphery specialization and trade accompanied by division of labor which resulted in increased productivity and income which in turn resulted in increased demand. This is offered as a "new model to explain Eastern development" (p. 8).

Although Lindstrom was not necessarily the first to suggest that the East was its own best market, her well-crafted explanation is indeed a new model of eastern development which will undoubtedly compete very well in the marketplace of ideas with the two major interregional (Lindstrom would say intersectional) demand models: the Callender-Schmidt-North cotton staple theory of growth model as it applies to eastern industrialization, which emphasizes the role of the southern market, and the Robert Zevin model of eastern textile development, which emphasizes the role of the western market. As an explanation of development, however, it is not new. Two rather distinct theoretical explanations of regional development exist in the literature. The export base theoretic approach is best exemplified here by the works of Douglass North and Robert Zevin. The alternative framework is sometimes referred to as the "stages" theory of regional development and is largely attributed to the work of Edgar Hoover and Joseph Fisher. This latter theory explains regional development largely as an internal evolutionary process. In this model, as in the eastern demand model, transport developments lower transfer costs and lead to resource reallocation in line with comparative advantage. The ensuing rise in income stimulates some local industries, but eventually this growing demand is shifted to industrial regions. For all its similarities to the Hoover-Fisher model, however, Lindstrom's work on core-periphery development seems to have been developed quite independently of Hoover and Fisher for they are not included in her bibliography. No doubt historiographers will come to call this the Hoover-Fisher-Lindstrom stages model of eastern regional development. Curiously, Douglass North, in an article in the *Journal of Political Economy* (June 1955), rejected this stages model as having "little relevance for the
development of regions in America." He was wrong. Lindstrom has amply demonstrated that hers is indeed a model of considerable relevance for the development of the Philadelphia core-periphery region(s).

In providing evidence to support her thesis Lindstrom has amassed a staggering array of statistics from diverse, and in some cases obscure, sources and has deftly patched them together into six strongly argued, carefully reasoned, and felicitously written chapters and three appendices. These chapters are brimming full of opinions and judgments that supplement the hard facts, and they employ a variety of assumptions to justify the use of data in creative ways. While her assumptions surrounding the nature of "merchandise" in Philadelphia's intersectional trade are probably incorrect, in general her handling of the data shows ingenuity and an incredible ability to relate bits and pieces of evidence. An alternative approach to valuing "merchandise" can be found in my Interregional Commodity Trade from the North to the South . . . (1978).

What is relatively neglected in Lindstrom's theoretic approach is the consideration that supply factors might possibly change independently of a previous change in demand. This seems to be exactly what happened in the case of coal. One would like to know more about autonomous and induced changes on the supply side in order to have a fuller account of economic changes in the Philadelphia area. But it would perhaps be an ingratitude to ask Lindstrom to have done that as well. Her book is by far the fullest account of Philadelphia's economic development in the 1810-1850 period, and it makes at least two major and significant contributions: a gathering and estimation of relevant data on an heroic scale and an insightful, analytic interpretation of especially the demand aspects of those economic developments and the responses they called forth in the Philadelphia region.

Vassar College

Lawrence A. Herbst


Eyewitness accounts of the American Revolution abound, yet few of them include testimonies from among the thirty thousand German troops who served Britain's cause. The journal of Captain Johann Ewald (1744-1813) rectifies this historical shortcoming. Ewald, an experienced combat officer when he arrived in America (October 1776), commanded Hessian detachments during subsequent campaigns in New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, South Carolina, and finally in Virginia. There he became one of the eight thousand captives taken by Franco-American forces at Yorktown in October 1781. In a brief supplementary section, Ewald recounts his movements after his capture until his disillusioning return to Germany in January 1784 where he received neither his back pay nor "a single special gracious glance" from the ungrateful Landgrave Frederick II of Hesse-Cassel.

Captain Ewald's journal is revealing both for its accounts of particular military events and the insights it offers into the character and feelings of
one Hessian officer. In the former instance, Ewald's writing often corroborates existing observations of wartime battles and tactics. This is evident, for example, in his comments concerning Lord Cornwallis's poor strategy at the Battle of Princeton, the crucial role of Chew House in the British triumph at Brandywine, and the tactical errors of the Hessian commanders in their abortive assault on the fort at Red Bank, New Jersey. Besides these noteworthy engagements, Ewald also provides graphic accounts of marches, countermarches, ambuscades, and numerous, almost insignificant skirmishes. Even the dislocations of war are incisively noted in the Captain's depiction of the sufferings of noncombatant refugees and the bitterness of Philadelphia loyalists upon General Sir Henry Clinton's evacuation of their city.

The diary is also edifying in its characterization of the author himself. (A brief appendix shows the Captain's romantic side in eight of his letters to the daughter of a New Jersey loyalist.) Ewald emerges as a courageous, energetic, resourceful, obedient, though often narrow-minded and haughty professional army officer. Ignoring the fact that most of his Hessian reinforcements had been pressed unwillingly, and even rebelliously, into service, he offhandedly concludes that "good discipline" alone will spark their martial ardor. Ewald is equally disdainful of the patriot struggle, dismissing it as a "tyranny" in which "liberty for all must be forced on a few by despotism." Nevertheless, he regards the treason of his Virginia commander, Benedict Arnold, "detestable," and after Yorktown he even expresses some grudging admiration of his American adversaries: "Who would have thought a hundred years ago that out of this rabble would arise a people who would defy kings and enter into a close alliance with crowned heads?"

Major Joseph Tustin has performed superlative work in obtaining, translating, and editing Captain Johann Ewald's diary. His annotations reveal the broad, painstaking efforts undertaken to identify the plethora of individuals and locales cited in the journal. The notes also connect Ewald's comments on specific wartime events to other relevant assessments of such occurrences. Ewald's plans and drawings sketched during his American service, including one of only three extant contemporary maps of Washington's encampment at Valley Forge, add another complimentary feature to this fine work. Perhaps the editor might have included more comprehensive maps depicting the over-all scope of Ewald's American campaigns. However, the work itself clearly lives up to its editor's claims as "the most important and comprehensive diary kept by a Hessian mercenary," and as such it offers new perspectives for historians of the American Revolution.

_Loyola University of Chicago_  
_SHELDON S. COHEN_
The growing crisis in Anglo-American relations after 1763 embraced political quarrels at home among rival factions of the Whig oligarchy, and led to an upsurge of popular sentiment, initially focused on John Wilkes and his various disputes with the government. Wilkes's cause in turn prompted the "Honest Whigs" or more extreme radicals to raise wider questions of political principle, linking the alleged betrayal of the Glorious Revolution to the growing corruption of British politics and the "unconstitutional" demands that George III's ministers were making of the American colonists, above all over the issues of taxation and consent. To men such as James Burgh and Granville Sharp the grievances of the Americans and the Irish had much in common: they could be laid at the door of a corrupt English legislature. Hence the reform of Parliament (a life-long cause of their fellow radical, John Cartwright) would logically lead to the redress of imperial grievances. Thus the case of the colonists became part of their own quarrel, and the success and failure of both causes were irrevocably linked. The colonists for their part looked to this small group of British radicals, principally some five men and one woman, to provide them with propaganda and much needed encouragement.

The writings of Catherine Macaulay, particularly her History of England (1763–1781), provided men on both sides of the Atlantic with an extreme Whig interpretation of English history since 1688; those of Dr. Richard Price gave the colonists in particular an additional moral dimension to their cause. Price's Observations of the Nature of Civil Liberty (1776), Dr. Toohey contends, "might be considered a finer statement of American Revolutionary Ideology than anything written in America" (p. 90). In contrast, with the notable exceptions of Chatham and Shelborne, the Whig hierarchy saw the American struggle overwhelmingly in terms of British domestic politics, the struggle for office, and the need to retain the old imperial system. For this reason, the ideas and writings of a handful of critics, rather than the policies of statesmen, not only proved receptive to American needs, but overwhelmingly dictated the ideological context of the American Revolution.

If one individual played a crucial part in making the radicals and their views known more widely, it was Benjamin Franklin, agent for Pennsylvania and resident in London for sixteen years before the outbreak of the War of Independence. Franklin not only befriended individuals such as Price, but also acted as a channel of information for the Americans and their British advocates. Philadelphia, too, played an important part in the story. The pamphlets of Cartwright, Sharp, Macaulay, and Price all appeared there when the Continental Congress was sitting in 1775–76. Many of them were printed by a local man, Robert Bell. Journals such as the Pennsylvania Packet advertised Burgh's writings to a wider audience. Anthony Benezet, the Quaker anti-slavery reformer, published Sharp's The People's Natural Right to a Share in the Legislature at Philadelphia during
these years, while both the College of Philadelphia and the local subscription library held many of the works of Sharp and his fellow radicals. Dr. Toohey rightly stresses the significance of these men and their influence on events in America, whilst appreciating their total failure in forcing the government's hand at home, where Yorktown, rather than Price's statistics on the cost of the war, compelled the ministry to admit defeat. However, he points out that the views of the "Honest Whigs" on Parliamentary and Imperial reform were broadly vindicated through the policies of successive governments in the first half of the nineteenth century.

Dr. Toohey acknowledges his debt to the pioneer work of Dr. Caroline Robbins. Nevertheless this book is welcome in its own right as a useful contribution to the history of British radicalism, illustrating as it does, the unique contribution made by a particular minority to the great debate that influenced the American founding fathers in their move towards independence from Britain.

Portsmouth Polytechnic, England  
(Visiting Professor, Indiana University of Pennsylvania)  

NIGEL SURRY


Few presidential elections have prompted more scholarship than that of 1928, and it is difficult to imagine that anything fresh could be added to it. However, Allan J. Lichtman, professor of history at the American University, has written a splendid book, one that enhances greatly our understanding not only of that election but of other presidential contests both before and after it.

Lichtman's use of data goes beyond previous studies of the election. His interpretations are informed by a statistical analysis of all the 2,058 counties outside the former Confederate South. For all the counties models are fashioned for fifteen different measures of the vote in 1928, and the differences between this vote and that of other presidential years is carefully scrutinized. Unlike other statistical studies of the election, Lichtman uses multiple regression models rather than correlation measures. The book also benefits from other statistical data, political surveys, and previous scholarship.

In dealing with the issues and the voting population in 1928, Lichtman challenges many traditional interpretations. He argues that prohibition was not the most important issue, and that while the Catholic Al Smith was the first Democratic candidate in four presidential elections to win more votes from immigrants and the first generation Americans than from second and later generations, the voting gap between native and foreign stock was modest. Further, Lichtman denies that Smith's candidacy drove a wedge between city and country; urbanism by itself did not influence the vote that much in 1928.
One particularly interesting chapter is devoted to two groups of voters who have not been studied that much in this particular election: women and blacks. Lichtman writes that although black elites and most black newspapers defected from the Republicans in 1928, their influence on black voters must have been minimal because the shift of black votes from Republican to Democrat was not all that significant. As for women voters, Lichtman found that increases in voter turnout between 1924 and 1928 were greater among women than among men, that Catholic women were more likely to become new voters than Catholic men, and that non-Catholic women more than non-Catholic men voted overwhelmingly for Herbert Hoover.

While prohibition, political personalities, the city versus the country, native versus immigrant, and racial and economic issues all affected the vote in 1928, Lichtman insists that the religious issue was the most commanding factor in the election. All over the nation he found that the division between Catholics and Protestants dominated any statistical description of voter decisions. Both Catholics and Protestants voted their religion, with the Republican Hoover enjoying a net gain in the process.

One chapter discusses presidential elections from 1916 through 1940. Using both quantitative and traditional sources, Lichtman disputes the critical election theory that historians have attached to 1928. Not only was that election not a crucial one, it was not even an important component of a realigning era of electoral change. Because Smith's Catholicism was such an overriding issue, 1928 was an aberration rather than a harbinger of the next generation of politics. Lichtman further denies that any election between 1916 and 1940 qualifies as a critical one.

While at times the author's methodology leads to repetition, it does not diminish the scope of his scholarship. Like Herbert Hoover, Lichtman's book is meticulous, solid, and business-like. And although his approach should be no easy matter for the casual reader, the breadth of his work and his compelling arguments offer a valuable study for the serious student of twentieth-century political history.

California State College

Thomas H. Coode


Gary Nash's Urban Crucible offers a bold and exciting reevaluation of the urban social processes operating in colonial Boston, New York, and Philadelphia which ultimately turned these seaport towns into crucibles of revolutionary agitation. Nash argues persuasively that the vicissitudes of the economies of these important ports evoked in the minds of the less affluent classes a vivid portrait of a changing society in which competition increasingly supplanted consensus as the dominating motif. This cognitive breakthrough set the stage for the social upheaval which accompanied the American Revolution.
Nash contends that by the end of the Seven Years War, the traditional elite model of social relations no longer seemed valid as the wartime redistribution of wealth gave working classes an increasingly smaller share of community assets. As perception of antagonistic interests turned into active struggle, laboring men both at the bottom and middle of urban society expressed their frustrations by forcing their way into the political arena to challenge the political and cultural hegemony of elite leaders. To Nash, the significance of the American Revolution lies in this subtle alteration in political and social awareness of urban workers who shattered the equilibrium of traditional social relations by denying the gentry's claim that their rule was legitimized by custom, law, and divine will.

Conceptually, Nash employs the metaphor of the crucible to elucidate the factors which hastened or retarded the mobilization of working class groups in each of the three cities. Because of the fragility of an economy which magnified social antagonisms, Boston became the earliest center of insurrectionary ferment. New York and Philadelphia lagged far behind as ethnic tensions and factional politics worked to inhibit the development of any horizontal unanimity of working class interest. Yet, by 1770, Boston's urban gentry through the reaffirmation of the spirit of covenant, promoted interclass unity thereby halting the demands for a new social order. Surprisingly in Philadelphia which had the least tradition of radical class activism, working class consciousness and its derivative class power progressed the farthest as a combination of artisans and lesser merchants captured control of the political process in the absence of effective Whig leadership. But in all three cities, the pressures of economic change provided the heat necessary to fuse together in the urban crucible formerly polarized laboring people who developed new modes of thought which shattered their traditional habit of obedience.

Methodologically, Nash employs a variety of traditional as well as frequently neglected sources to reconstruct the day-by-day circumstances that ordinary urban dwellers faced as they saw their formerly familiar world change before them. Data gleaned from tax lists, poor relief records, wills, and wage records indicate the enormous economic dislocations which occurred after 1765. In an effort to cope with the burgeoning problem of poverty, for example, Philadelphia's Whig leaders and merchant elite established the "Bettering House" more as a frightened response to the "swelling ranks of immigrant and itinerant poor" than as a "monument to the philanthropic impulses of Philadelphia's Quakers." Data suggest that this experiment to rehabilitate the poor, to the astonishment of its elite benefactors, proved a dismal failure as the poor resisted elite efforts at moral management by refusing to play the role assigned to them. The failure of Philadelphia's poor to accept the elite solution to poverty dramatized the widening social fissures and the increasing resentment germinating in the minds of lower classes which would eventually puncture the cultural hegemony of elite control.

Nash's failure to place the rise of urban working class activism within the wider social and political nexus mars an otherwise faultless piece of scholarship. Certainly, no one denies that the forces operating within the
urban crucible did produce glaring inequities which alienated many urban workers. Yet, as Nash asserts, not all articulated their disaffection radically. As economic conditions worsened, did itinerant workers tend to intensify or dilute resentment against elite leadership? Did activist leaders attempt to recruit the roving poor, or did they fear them in the same way that elites did? And ultimately, what role did the laborers in the rural hinterland play? Were they receptive to the insurrectionary fervor unleashed in the urban crucible, or did they act as a conservative damper to the energies of the urban disaffected? For the metaphor of the crucible to have meaning, Nash must demonstrate that the boundaries of the crucible were refractory enough to contain processes within and resist forces from without. His failure to consider the total network of evolving urban and rural relationships renders the metaphor suspect.

Nonetheless, Nash's *Urban Crucible* stands out as a major work of reevaluation in the field of American social history. His ability to capture the centripetal tensions smoldering beneath the working class's mask of deference towards elites directly assaults the popularly accepted myth of pre-Revolutionary cities being open, fluid, and egalitarian societies. By providing us with a more accurate picture of the multifaceted complexity of eighteenth-century urban life, *Urban Crucible* represents a singularly important contribution to American Studies literature by one of the leading innovators in the field.

Alliance College

BRADLEY W. HALL


During the ante-bellum period and the Civil War, Northern blacks organized on the state and national level in order to protest the existence of slavery and to struggle for equal rights. Happily for the researcher the records of the black convention movement have been collected and reprinted. Philip S. Foner and George E. Walker have edited the state proceedings in two volumes while Howard H. Bell has published the Minutes of the Proceedings of the National Negro Conventions, 1830–1865 (1969). Unlike Bell, Foner and Walker have provided a general overview of the black convention movement, an introduction to each state's proceedings, and copious reference notes that provide useful information, while the table of contents and a comprehensive index are helpful guides to the documents. Foner and Walker's collection of documents is essential to understanding the dynamic struggle blacks waged for justice during the period from 1840 to 1865.

The three Pennsylvania conventions held in 1841, 1848, and 1865 were representative of those held in other states in regard to the issues they confronted and the procedures they followed. The major effort of the Pennsylvania conventions was to end the disfranchisement of black voters which the revised Pennsylvania constitution of 1838 had instituted. Blacks
clearly understood that the motivation for the ban on their right to vote was racist. As the Harrisburg convention of 1848 urged, blacks “must not fail to battle with the demon of complexional INTOLERANCE FIRST” (p. 132). The conventions sought to slay the racist “demon” in several ways: they argued that the proscription on the black franchise contradicted fundamental republican and Christian principles; they cited the patriotism of black soldiers during the Revolutionary War, the War of 1812, and the Civil War; and they supported the goal of the National Equal Rights League to end racial discrimination. The conventions exhorted blacks to advance their moral and material condition through education, temperance, and farming. Most delegates thought that greater opportunity for socio-economic mobility in the United States, not emigration to foreign lands, was the key to improving the status of their people. The conventions stressed the importance of black unity through support for an Afro-American newspaper, the common struggle against racial segregation, and solidarity with their enslaved Southern brethren.

The effectiveness of the state conventions was enhanced by their systematic organization. The procedures followed in the various states were similar. A circular announced the time and place of the meeting, delegates representing various cities and counties of the state attended, the members debated and approved resolutions, and the consensus of the convention was directed to the state’s politicians and populace through published addresses. In such a manner the conventions sought to influence public opinion and encourage social change. The delegates, some of whom were very eloquent spokesmen, seemed to constitute the black bourgeoisie of their day; they appear to have been relatively successful in socio-economic terms, comparatively well educated, and often urban residents. Although the state conventions were mostly concerned with local issues, they strongly supported the national movement for black rights. In 1851 a state convention in Ohio aptly summed up the importance of the meetings by declaring that “past experience has proved that conventions have done much towards our improvement and elevation” (p. 269).

Vanderbilt University

Lawrence B. Goodheart


In the introduction to this small booklet, John Bodnar, Chief of the Division of History, Pennsylvania Historical Museum Commission, states, “No problems have concerned historical societies more in recent years than those arising from their status as nonprofit corporations.” As historical agencies awaken to their important community roles and responsibilities, they have become increasingly preoccupied with the problems of funding and the growing governmental regulations concerning their operations. This short guide succeeds in surveying these various concerns and offers a thoughtful analysis of many of the administrative matters faced by historical agencies.
The first half of the book is devoted to the subject of fund-raising. The author rightly suggests that historical societies should not underestimate the possibilities of raising money in their local communities. While the author does not specifically mention the importance of creating a long-range plan for financial development, he does analyze the possibilities of raising money from special events, the business community, and foundations. Magda evaluates the importance of the different funding sources and suggests strategies for approaching these potential sources of support. The Appendix lists informational aids and services dealing with private foundations. Public funding from city, county, state, and federal sources is briefly surveyed, and the special sources for historic preservation funding are discussed. Throughout the chapter, the reader is referred to publications and agencies useful in planning a fund-raising program. A general discussion of the subject of deferred giving would have been useful, but was not included.

The second half of the book is devoted to the problems historical societies face as nonprofit organizations. The procedures for incorporation are discussed, and the rights and responsibilities of nonprofit status are reviewed. The role of trustees is surveyed, and the responsibilities of trusteeship considered. The insurance needs of historical societies are ably discussed, although the topic of releases was not included.

There are many topics that are not discussed in this booklet. Many societies possess collections to which precatory and mandatory restrictions have been attached. These restrictions often stipulate that an object must be placed on permanent exhibit, or that it cannot be deaccessioned. I would have appreciated a discussion of the alternatives available to societies attempting to deal with this difficult situation. Other relevant topics not discussed include the regulations imposed by Section 504 of the 1973 Rehabilitation Act, the new copyright laws, O.S.H.A. and Department of Labor and Industry regulations, and regulations regarding age discrimination.

If this short work is not thorough in its scope, it is nevertheless useful and suggestive as a guide to many of the fundamental administrative concerns of historical societies. As such, it is a welcome addition to the small body of literature dealing with the administration of historical agencies.

Johnstown Flood Museum

Richard A. Burkert


There are two important measures by which to gauge the extent of democratic development wrought by the American Revolution in each of the several states: (1) the constitutional changes to achieve a broad and equitable expression of popular sovereignty and (2) the land policy formulations to distribute public lands for the greatest good of the greatest
number. In this study of Pennsylvania's land policies, 1779–1800, Norman Wilkinson focuses on the second of these two measures while assuming that the reader understands the first. Pennsylvanians had shaped an advanced democratic political system, albeit through a radical-conservative contest that drafted constitutions in 1776 and 1790. For Wilkinson, his land policy study is "a test of the new democracy" for socio-economic growth. He concludes, with great disappointment, that political democracy failed to attain its honorable land policy goals. It was, primarily, a case of policy betrayal by those appointed to administer it.

The state legislature created a Land Office in 1789 to manage the vast heritage of public lands derived from wartime decisions: twenty-four million acres taken from the Penn family by the Divesting Act of 27 November 1779 and forty-three thousand acres confiscated from the Tories. In 1792 the state purchased from the United States two hundred thousand acres in the Erie Triangle. All of this amounted to six-sevenths of the state's area.

The leaders of the new commonwealth operated on the theory that the state was but the trustee of the public lands, awaiting distribution to individuals and groups. Before the end of the Revolutionary War the legislature had promised land grants to soldiers who would enlist for the war's duration, and it had offered to pay soldiers their wages with land in lieu of depreciated currency. These "bounty" and "donation" policies were commitments for the Land Office to honor. The legislature also enacted land laws to make land available to all citizens.

The land legislation appeared to pass the tests of democracy. Its civic welfare safeguards were similar to those followed by the Penns: modest prices, generous credits, squatters' rights, limited grant size, and curbs on speculation. The diversity of individual and collective benefits intended by the land legislation ranged from aid to war veterans and would-be settlers to funding the public debt, aiding education, and promoting community development.

Wilkinson's main thesis is the failure of the state administration to carry out the indisputable public will. Blame must, therefore, fall heavily on the director of the Land Office, Surveyor-General Daniel Brodhead, Comptroller-General John Nicolson, and Governor Thomas Mifflin. The deputy-surveyors, numerous and little known, took advantage of the lax administration to conspire with speculators—and perhaps the Surveyor-General—to defraud the public and serve themselves.

Among the host of unrestrained speculators were well-known public figures Robert Morris, James Wilson, Richard Peters, and William Bingham) and some less familiar, but powerful, business enterprisers. Combinations of speculators in the form of land companies compounded the consequent socio-economic problems: (1) inflated land values, (2) litigation over cloudy land titles, (3) retarded sales and settlements, (4) state revenue losses, (5) investor losses from bankruptcies, and (6) public mistrust of the state's land business.

The Arno Press, publisher of this volume, includes it in a forty-three-volume collection entitled "The Management of the Public Lands in the United States." In dealing with the economic and social effects of the
American Revolution, Wilkinson's book is a fitting companion to the state studies by Philip Crowl (Maryland), C. Peter McGrath (Georgia), and H. B. Yoshe (New York) and to the general essays by W. F. Jameson, Clarence Ver Steeg, and Frederick B. Tolles.

This book deserves better editorial treatment. Although attractively bound, it is a photographic reprint of an original typewritten doctoral dissertation (Pennsylvania, 1958). A publisher's note acknowledges the unevenness of the reproduction. The book lacks an index that could aid the curious student and also dramatize Wilkinson's thesis about the involvement of famous figures and numerous unfamiliar names. With these shortcomings, the book is overpriced.

This is a readable and informative book. It should also stimulate research, particularly in biographical studies (for example Daniel Brodhead and John Adlum) and local community development.

East Stroudsburg State College

John C. Appel


This volume is the second in Paul Kleppner's continuing study of the "social bases of American mass political behavior." It is, in effect, an extension of his earlier regional study, The Cross of Culture: A Social Analysis of Midwestern Politics, 1850–1900, to the national level. The book is one of an ever increasing number of studies in which the techniques of quantitative analysis are applied to the data of American political and social history. Like all studies of this nature the chronological and geographical boundaries must be defined and the analytical procedures spelled out in detail, otherwise the study loses much of its value. Kleppner divides American political history into five distinct "electoral systems." The first extended from 1789 to 1820 and was characterized as a period of "groping" during which time the paraphernalia of future party structure was taking form. Kleppner calls it the "preparty party system." The second system began in 1828 and continued until the break-up and realignment of political factions which took place in the early 1850s. The third electoral system, the subject of Kleppner's book, covers the period from 1853 to 1892. The fourth began in 1893 and ended with the depression, while the fifth began in 1932 and has continued to the present.

Kleppner has divided the third electoral system into two distinct periods: (1) a period of realignment of voters which began in the early fifties and continued until 1872 and (2) a period of Democratic resurgence that continued until 1892. After extensive examination of election returns on a county-to-county basis Kleppner has found that the many movements by individuals and groups from one party to another, from major parties to third-party movements, can only be understood in light of the antislavery movement, religious affiliation, sabbatarian zeal, temperance, and other political, social, and cultural factors that have from time to time influenced voting patterns and party affiliations.
BOOK REVIEWS

The principal shortcoming of the book is one which Kleppner shares with other practitioners of the quantitative method of historical research. In the process of analyzing voting returns and other statistical data they manage to remove most of the human beings from the historical scene. The names of the leading political figures of the period from presidents down appear so infrequently in this study that they seem to be irrelevant to an understanding of the era. The detailed index at the end of the volume only substantiates this observation. Only James Blaine, Horace Boies, Rutherford B. Hayes, and Walter I. Hayes receive mention. However, a small number of Midwestern politicians are mentioned in the text even though they are not listed in the index. Failure to mention the major political figures especially in a period which saw the rise of political machines and the bosses who headed them places serious limitations on a study of this nature.

The technical terminology used extensively throughout the book will undoubtedly limit the number of people who will read the book. This is unfortunate because Kleppner has made an important contribution to our knowledge of the structure of politics during the period. Even after reading the book it is almost impossible to come up with a clear understanding of what Kleppner's use of the term "elector system" entails. It obviously implies more than the term "voting system," but what and how much more is not made clear.

It would be wrong, however, for the reader of this review to assume that Kleppner's study is not worthy of the attention of the scholar. Such an assumption is no more valid than its counterpart, namely, that if an area of research cannot be subjected to quantitative analysis it is not worthy of serious study by the historian. The Third Electoral System is one of the major works in the field of quantitative analysis and should be read by every person who lays claim to a certain expertise in American political history. Kleppner has done a great service by showing that national generalities about political activities must be verified on the local level. By subjecting an enormous amount of data to careful analysis Kleppner has done much to establish the quantitative method as one of the important means of securing such verification and, one must add, revision.

Albright College

William W. Hummel


Professor Blanco has performed a useful service in directing attention to the important, but relatively neglected, subject of the Continental Army's medical history. He begins by laying a solid foundation in a description of medical education and practice and the evolving state of medical knowledge in the America of the period. Moving on to the provisions adopted when hostilities began, he clearly portrays the horrors, misconceptions, and inadequacies of eighteenth-century military medicine, the efforts made to develop a workable organization, and the personal rivalries
of leading medical figures. Beyond this, he not only demonstrates the impact of casualties and illness on effectiveness, but brings out the seriously inhibiting effect which fear of disease had on recruitment.

It is perhaps unfortunate that he chose to use a biography of Jonathan Potts as a vehicle to tell what is inherently a much larger story—and, indeed, the story in which his major interest clearly lies. As he makes plain from the outset, since little is known or can be established about Potts as a personality, it was necessary to assume that what is known about American medical practice and practitioners in general probably applied to Potts in particular. While such applications of generalizations are carefully qualified, the reader is still left with a somewhat cloudy picture. Nor can it be said that Professor Blanco makes full use of such information about Potts as is known. In particular, since he speculates on so many other aspects of Potts’s life, he would have been equally justified in speculating far more extensively than he does on the consequences of the trauma that must have resulted from the scandal surrounding Potts’s marriage.

Regarded only incidentally as a biography, and granting substantial virtues, this book is seriously flawed in a number of respects. The numerous misprints are only mildly annoying, but the major errors in footnotes are much more serious. A spot check of only six page references cited revealed that no less than three were incorrect, and one quotation from the journal of a soldier at Gulph Mills in early December 1777 was transposed to the late winter at Valley Forge, when the author of the journal was not even there. The treatment of military events, personalities, and practices is marred by numerous inaccuracies, some trivial but others not: we are told that in June 1775 Congress authorized Pennsylvania to form eight battalions, when in fact the authorization was for eight companies (lest this seem mere semantics, what Pennsylvania formed was one battalion, making the quantitative error one of substantial magnitude); Arthur St. Clair is described as a colonel at a time when he had long been a major general; repeatedly, “the generals” are condemned for ignorance of the rules of military hygiene, even though, in contradiction, repeated references to their instructions concerning sanitation are quoted verbatim; the improvement in troop health is consistently attributed exclusively to the medical officers’ effectiveness in spreading the gospel of cleanliness, whereas it was due at least equally to the development of an effective chain of command through which implementation of the generals’ orders was enforced by intermediate authorities all down the line. The list could be extended, but the point does not require belaboring.

In brief, this book falls short of its promise, even as the story of Jonathan Potts, but still more as the story of military medicine in those aspects of the American Revolution in which Potts was involved. This is not to say that it lacks a great deal of merit, but it leaves the definitive history of the subject still to be written.

Pennsylvania Historical and Museum Commission  
JOHN B. B. TRUSSELL, JR.