BOOK REVIEWS


Unlike the frequent flyer of today it took John Heckewelder fifty-nine years to rack up the 30,156 miles on which this account of his travels is based. The earlier edition bore the title Thirty Thousand Miles with John Heckewelder. Between 1762 and 1813 Heckewelder crossed the Alleghenies thirty-two times in the service of church, country or family. He recorded his travels in twelve manuscript journals and two printed diaries. Wallace also utilizes an account by John Mortimer, who accompanied Heckewelder on a trip from Bethlehem, Pennsylvania, to Fairfield in Upper Canada. In combining the journals for publication Wallace performs important editorial services. First, he provides careful translations of the manuscripts, many of which were written in German. Second, his introductions establish the contexts and provide continuities between the accounts. Third, a glossary of names and places and an index assist without creating an unwieldy editorial apparatus. The 1985 edition provides a one page map in contrast to the two foldout maps of the 1958 edition.

Collectively, the journals offer contemporary descriptions of travel routes and accommodations as well as observations on prospective developments in the areas visited. The geographic scope includes westward routes from Pennsylvania and New York, many trips in the Ohio country, an expedition to Vincennes on the Wabash and two to Detroit and upper Canada in the 1790s. Heckewelder’s commentary, references to contacts with individual residents and observations on the pace of local change and population trends are especially useful to local historians. The accounts reveal the realities and hardships of travel to, from and on the frontier. They also document the demographic fluidity of the trans-Appalachian frontier.

The evidence shows that Heckewelder ultimately recognized that conversion and adaptation to life in the Moravian mission communities made those Indians unique. They were both suspect and also objects of curiosity to the “wild” Indians and to whites. As a displaced group they were often forced to relocate in a vain search for security. Other Indians as well as many whites doubted the Moravian Indians’ protestations of neutrality in U.S.-British conflicts and the chronic Indian-white wars. Consequently both groups raided the missions, took captives and murdered with impunity. Heckewelder and other spokesmen sought to obtain land grants which could provide economic viability and cultural autonomy for the mission communities in the old Northwest.

Much of the detail which Heckewelder furnishes is anthropological since he comments regularly on food, dress, housing and ceremonial procedures of the Christian Indians and others. His conversations with whites elicit views on the mission Indians, treaty making and the implications of westward expansion. Although not intended for the purpose, his accounts represent field studies of acculturation. Heckewelder was increasingly aware of the uniqueness and fragility of the cultural accommodations which made the Moravian mission
communities viable. The renewed availability of this source serves historians, anthropologists and other students of the Indian and/or the frontier well.

Dickinson College

**Warren J. Gates**

*Mechanical Metamorphosis: Technological Change in Revolutionary America.*


While the political, economic, and social results of the American Revolution have long been the subject of study and interpretation, the accompanying technological changes have only recently begun to be examined and analyzed. Neil Longley York's contribution to that examination and analysis is both scholarly and enjoyable. Rather than merely reciting mechanical changes, York analyzes the social reaction to manufacturing, invention, and technological innovation. The first half of the book explores the ways the Revolutionary War itself tested American technology and public perception. The remainder traces the role of invention in the emergence of American technology.

York relates how the early attempts in the 1760s and 1770s to establish colonial manufacturing saw little success due to a combined lack of capital, advanced machinery, public support, and talented people to operate and own the equipment. In similar fashion, inventors and their inventions, such as Arthur Donaldson and his clamshell dredge or Christopher Colles, who installed an early, rudimentary waterworks project for New York City, were viewed largely as tinkers by the public. Even the Pennsylvania rifle, an icon of the American craftsman, fell victim to the volley fire tactics of the day and was eventually dismissed as an ineffective fighting weapon. The author's remaining chapters detail the birth of the American munitions industry, the beginnings of our nation's military engineering, the inventions and escapades of inventors, such as submariners David Bushnell and Joseph Belton, and the final emergence of an industrializing nation by 1790.

York skillfully balances the tensions created in the 1770s by a young America aspiring to shed the stigma of mechanical inferiority and attain technological recognition against a dual obstacle—the absence of favorable conditions, such as capital and machinery, and a general lack of comprehension about the intellectual, physical, and mechanical foundations required for technological advances. By 1790 this tension had yielded to a new harmony as many Americans acknowledged "a direct connection between national prosperity and the rate of technological change."

The author's research is thorough, his analysis keen, and his footnotes prodigious. He carefully interweaves previous historical facts and interpretations with his own research and conclusions. As a result, one with a marginal background in the history of technology can walk away from the book with a thorough understanding of selected technological developments between 1770 and 1790 and their social impact. He has scoured repositories and sources for historical facts, among them the Historical Society of Pennsylvania, the American Philosophical Society, and the Papers of the Continental Congress, and has succeeded in interpreting their significance.

These chapters describe for the reader, just as the Revolutionary War demonstrated to the young nation, "how far American had to go before it could
even begin to rival European scientific and technological expertise.” They will be valuable reading for scholars and students of both the history of American technology and Revolutionary America.

Wyoming Historical and Geological Society


Robert Fulton was a Pennsylvanian only in the sense that he was born and educated in Lancaster and Philadelphia, and later on had steamboat interests on the Delaware and Ohio Rivers. He lived most of his life in London, Paris, and New York and dealt with national and international projects, such as canals, submarines, and steamboats.

His wife Harriet Livingston had attended Moravian Academy in Bethlehem, Pennsylvania, for two years. She was not an important influence on him, however, for they were married relatively late in his life, and he was much more involved in a curious *ménage à trois* with an American diplomat Joel Barlow and his wife Ruth—an affair which began in Paris and lasted as long as they all lived.

Fulton “invented” the steamboat only by combining the ideas of John Fitch and others, and creating the first regularly scheduled and reliable steamboat line anywhere in the world. He always maintained that invention consisted of practical combinations, of the sort he presented, but he had difficulty defining the original features of his combinations for a U. S. patent. More useful to him in defending his great project was the monopoly obtained in New York state by his partner Robert R. Livingston, the famous diplomat, who had powerful political and social connections.

The steamboat empire grew until he had two Mississippi boats (in addition to the original Hudson River boats), two Ohio boats, and others planned for the Potomac, the James, Long Island Sound, and the East River. He was challenged at every step of the way, however, mostly by former associates and employees, who were the only ones with the technical know-how to be able to compete with him successfully.

When he died from pneumonia in 1815 at the age of forty-nine, he was deeply embattled and almost completely frustrated. The last chapter of the book is entitled “Stag at Bay.” Nevertheless, his funeral in New York City was attended not only by prominent citizens, but by ordinary workmen as well, and he was greatly respected as “the nation’s benefactor” for his contributions to national defense in the War of 1812, then happily concluded.

He sought fame and fortune with a fierce ambition, and tried to sell the submarine (and underwater torpedoes and canons) first to France, then to England, and finally to the United States. He was a competent artist—beginning his career as a portraitist under the tutelage of Benjamin West in London. In the course of his life he had dealings with William Pitt, Napoleon, Jefferson, Madison, and any number of entrepreneurs, inventors, and scientists.

Cynthia Owen Philip is perceptive as to his mercurial character, knowledgeable as to the mechanical principles involved in his inventions, and gets bogged down only in outlining his numerous contracts and partnerships, which were
admittedly difficult to follow, even for contemporaries. There is adequate documentation in widely scattered sources, and a short index. The illustrations cover both the artistic and the mechanical aspects of his work.

*Lafayette College*  

**JOHN M. COLEMAN**


*Latrobe’s View of America* is an excellent book in every way, well researched and written as well as beautifully produced. Two introductory essays provide both general and specialized knowledge for the full enjoyment and understanding of both the visual and textual materials presented. Edward C. Carter’s biographical essay explicates many important areas of Latrobe’s Moravian upbringing and education not known or properly understood previously. Latrobe’s engineering and architectural associations in Britain with John Smeaton and Samuel Pepys Cockerell, as well as his European travels, are touched upon. In both cases one hoped for more information regarding Latrobe’s experiences, particularly his travels in Italy, but apparently such information is just not available. Carter outlines Latrobe’s American career as an architect and engineer but gives particular attention to his lesser known achievements as a naturalist which was so integral a part of his travels in this country. In addition to his topographical representations of American scenes—ranging from cityscapes and landscapes to individual buildings—Latrobe was particularly interested in unique American botanical and piscine specimens, depicting them all with a scientific exactness or pictorial beauty, depending on his purposes.

Charles E. Brownell’s essay on Latrobe’s drawings is one of the most cogent and succinct discussions of the eighteenth-century aesthetic theories of the neo-classical (beautiful), the sublime and the picturesque available. Having these important concepts which permeated European and American aesthetic thinking in the late eighteenth and early nineteenth centuries expressed not in the words of the philosophers who originally propounded them but in the words of a European-born and -trained artist perceiving the American landscape and American institutions, habits, and needs gives them an immediacy and vitality. Brownell demonstrates how—and why—Latrobe differentiates between topographical views and picturesque compositions, discussing not only his drawing and watercolor painting techniques but his historical and artistic sources as well. His exploration of John Flaxman’s illustrations for *The Iliad* (London, 1795) as the source of many motifs and themes in Latrobe’s drawings is an important discovery, for Latrobe often used these “neo-classical” elements in “picturesque” or “sublime” compositions. It is this that marks Brownell’s essay as a brilliant turning point in the serious study of early American architecture: the documented explication of how these elements are fused in the work of a mature American artist and their relevance for his architectural compositions.

Arranged chronologically, watercolors and pencil sketches are selected from Latrobe’s sketchbooks dating from his voyage across the Atlantic in 1795–6 to his final trip to New Orleans a quarter century later. Geographically, scenes
depicting people, towns, and the land (and fish and flowers) in Pennsylvania, New Jersey, Maryland, Washington, Virginia, Florida, Louisiana, and the Bahamas are included.

As Latrobe's sketchbooks were primarily done en route as a record, for pleasure, and for edification, many of the natural scenes are of rivers with their shores (often geologically interesting). The interplay of water, lively or still, with rocks and verdant landscape elements was a catalyst for Latrobe's interest in the picturesque natural beauty of the country. The editors include two commissioned surveys, the New Castle, Delaware, survey (1805) depicting street patterns and buildings, and the monumental Susquehanna River survey of 1801–2 from Columbia, Pennsylvania, to Havre de Grace, Maryland, minutely describing navigational, natural and man-made elements.

Coverage of Pennsylvania is less extensive than one would expect of an architect chiefly located in Philadelphia. Unhappily Latrobe did not visually record the places he lived in the same detail as the places he visited. The well-known image of the Lancaster County Courthouse is supplemented in particular by a series of drawings of Pennsylvania bridges, ranging from wooden truss structures, masonry arched bridges to a suspension bridge. These spanned the Brandywine at Downingtown, Conestoga Creek near Lancaster, Perkiomen Creek in Montgomery County, and Dunlap’s Creek near Brownsville in Fayette County.

Each entry, whether genre scene, landscape, or townscape is accompanied by explanatory materials, generally extracted from Latrobe’s extensive extant notebooks. Sources for clarifications and contextual comments would have increased the value of the book for scholars consulting the work. When appropriate map references to U.S. Geological Survey quadrangles are included.

In an age when America both attracted and produced universal men, particularly in the political realm, it is important that a wider audience than art historians recognize the accomplishments and achievements of cultural figures. Latrobe's View of America is an excellent introduction to the breadth and quality of the work of such a man.

Smithsonian Institution

PAMELA SCOTT

The Davis Island Lock and Dam, 1870–1922. By Leland R. Johnson; and The Davis Island Lock and Dam Portfolio. (Pittsburgh: U. S. Army Engineer District, 1985. Pp. ix, 170, plus 13 unbound folio sheets. Book: $8.50 cloth, $5.50 paper; Portfolio: $4.50.)

Only vestiges remain of the complex and historically significant Davis Island lock and dam which once channeled an immense traffic past the treacherous shoals of the Ohio River a few miles downstream from Pittsburgh. Its inspiration, planning, and functioning intimately affected the lives of Pennsylvanians at a time when enthusiasm for economic expansion was feverish.

Leland R. Johnson, associated with the U.S. Army Engineer District at Pittsburgh, has written this commemorative study for the centennial of the Davis Island project in a concise, informative, and excellently illustrated book. He has minimized technical jargon and maintained a brisk analysis of the origins of the project, the technological challenges it posed, the drawing upon
European experience, and the know-how gained in the then recent Civil War—itself a school for American engineers.

Despite the expanding network of railroads supplying the nation with relatively swift transit of people and goods, natural waterways still remained a major resource for the shipping of bulk commodities after 1870—and often at a much lower cost. Pittsburgh, enviously located at the juncture of three rivers, relied heavily on water transportation during most of the year. Flotillas of six to ten coal barges, each 25 feet wide and 130 feet long, were guided downstream by steam-powered "sidewheelers" often 230 feet in length and 48 feet wide—all shepherded by "rivermen" of a strongly independent nature. For many of them, New Orleans was only the most distant destination.

"River improvement," therefore, remained a technological as well as political gospel through the remainder of the nineteenth century and Congress was a constant target of such demands. Pittsburgh, especially, was vulnerable to unpredictable dry seasons when shallow water could bring river traffic to a costly halt. A transport crisis occurred in 1871 when prolonged drought forced bargemen serving Pittsburgh's teeming industry to wagon coal from the Monongahela—where ten million bushels of desperately needed coal remained stranded—across the Point and Triangle, contributing unhappily to the deterioration of downtown pavements, the flow of traffic, and citizen goodwill.

Technology entered the on-going debate over river improvement in the person of Colonel William E. Merrill, West Point trained chief engineer of the Union Army of the Cumberland. Assigned to the upper sector of the Ohio in 1870, Merrill spent the following twenty-four years solving navigational, hydraulic, and political problems associated with the hoped-for canalization of the river. Visits to Europe and especially to France and its long experience in waterway engineering convinced Merrill to construct hydraulic gates or "passes" in the new Davis Island dam authorized for construction. Their function of maintaining water levels at safe navigable depths was simple in concept but unpredictable in performance on the quixotic Ohio.

When the Davis Island project was dedicated on October 7, 1884, Pittsburgh enjoyed a civic holiday with an appropriate number of dignitaries in attendance as excited crowds thronged shorelines to cheer the dam, the dignitaries, and the two dozen passenger-crowded steamboats churning by with whistles screaming. Dignitaries to the contrary, it was reported that a boat load of cabbages co-opted the honor of first passage through the dam.

While most citizens were pleased when completion of the new waterway also created a fine recreational area for boating enthusiasts, lock and dam tenders were often unhappy in light of the confusion, rudeness, and incompetence of this new traffic. Resident Engineer William Martin complained, "These boats are used principally by idle persons and for the purpose of carousing they come to Davis Island and by their orgies make the night "hideous."

The Davis Island lock and dam operated only thirty-seven years until 1922. Meanwhile, canalization of the Ohio eventually extended downstream with fifty additional locks and dams. By 1985 most were replaced by more modern facilities now thoroughly welcomed by coal shippers and rivermen.

Assisted by its helpful diagrams and on-the-scene nineteenth century photographs, Johnson's book ably links technological history with that of Pennsylvania. Lacking an index, the thorough footnoting gathered by chapter headings at
the end of the volume and also an extensive bibliography prove to be especially helpful. A portfolio of twelve sixteen-by-twenty-inch plates of engineering drawings is separately available to technically minded readers.

The Pennsylvania State University

Hugo A. Meier


The Women's Temperance Crusade of 1873-1874 was one of the major social movements in nineteenth-century America. Sparked originally by a New York physician's health and sobriety lectures, the movement spread to many states and involved thousands of women in an effort to control liquor sales. The Crusade was concentrated in Ohio, Indiana and Illinois and was the strongest and most successful in small towns where women were easiest to organize and public opinion exerted the strongest force. Despite its common border with Ohio, Pennsylvania developed a rather small movement and the state ranked seventh in reported Crusades.

Crusaders were primarily married or widowed, native-born Protestant women in their thirties and forties from above-average income families. They were neither trying to exert control over working class men nor were they a thinly-disguised nativist movement. Their goal was to control and if possible eliminate liquor consumption. While some male opponents of the Crusade saw it as the beginning of women's revolution, Blocker presents the women activists as brave and dedicated but quite traditional in their overall social beliefs. Although the Crusade attracted many newcomers into the temperance cause at the same time the movement was generally declining, many other women felt the Crusader's activism had passed well beyond women's proper sphere.

The Crusade was based on the premise that women were the greatest sufferers from liquor abuse due to their economic and social dependence on men. The movement raised two issues: the right of women to participate in public affairs, and the question of how the use of beverage liquor should be subject to public control. Crusade methods included persuasion, legal suits against liquor dealers, public praying both in and outside of saloons, and street demonstrations. Persuasion was the favored tactic and if permitted inside a saloon, Crusaders would often use flattery and feminine charm to convince the proprietor to change his business. The movement unlike abolitionism or the suffrage movement lacked central planning and organization. Public meetings, usually held in churches, stimulated local movements and newspapers spread the message to other communities. Although many Crusaders sympathized with the suffrage movement, most were not members of suffrage organizations. Suffragists often looked down on the Crusaders whose activities they felt degraded women and whose movement caused men to equate suffrage with temperance.

The Crusade led to some success in enforcement and prohibitory ordinances. Liquor sales declined during 1874 but this was due more to the depression, and even in states where the Crusade was active, there was little significant correlation between reduced sales and the existence of local Crusades. For all its militant publicity and numbers, Crusades had little effect on the November 1874 founding of the Woman's Christian Temperance Union. Local authorities
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considered Crusades more of a public nuisance than a real threat to local liquor businesses or to their male-dominated society. But clearly some Crusade women developed a sense of courage and self-respect in their participation.

“Give to the Winds Thy Fears” is based on extensive research from a wide variety of primary and secondary sources. While the writing style is a bit stiff and includes some social science jargon, generally the material is clearly presented. There are numerous figures, tables and data throughout the book to help illustrate and explain various points. The author’s contention that women living in small towns lived in closer proximity to problem drinking and its related violence than either their rural or large city counterparts seems questionable. But Blocker asks sophisticated questions about the social assumptions, motivations and alliances of both the Crusaders and their opponents and is quite judicious in his findings. “Give to thy Winds Thy Fears” makes a significant contribution to our understanding of later nineteenth-century American society and especially the roles of middle class women in social movements.

Shippensburg University

RICHARD A. MCLEOD


This is the latest and most ambitious of a recent series of book on aspects of the immigrant experience by John Bodnar who was connected with the Pennsylvania Historical and Museum Commission before taking his present position of Indiana University. His earlier work focused primarily on the “new” immigrant of southern and eastern Europeans in the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries. It has been characterized by an extensive use of oral history and a compassion for the people he studied. Finally, most of Bodnar’s primary research has been on Pennsylvania. Although The Transplanted is a broad synthesis based upon wide reading of the voluminous secondary literature, it bears the mark of his earlier research. Few questions are discussed without some reference to Pennsylvania. Yet, it would be wrong to suggest that that is this book’s primary focus.

The Transplanted is a self-consciously revisionist interpretation designed from its title page to its conclusion to challenge “the Handlin view” presented most fully three decades ago in The Uprooted. In a very general sense, Bodnar urges his readers to view the “saga of immigration” in relation to the rise of capitalism. His immigrants are pragmatic participants in their destiny rather than premodern victims caged by peasant cultures. “Their lives were not entirely of their own making, but they made sure that they had something to say about it.” As a consequence the “immigrant experience” involved many diverse experiences which reflected choices among the limited alternatives dictated “by the changing imperatives of the market place.”

Regardless of the language, Bodnar is neither a Marxist nor an economic determinist of the Progressive stripe. He is best described as an electric with all the virtues and vices that come with the title. At every twist and turn of events, he insists on the complexity of the experience. People did not emigrate in an undifferentiated fashion suggested by the statistics reported in the Appendix; rather they came from certain areas and from groups within the local class.
structure most affected by the early stages of commercial capitalism. In the
United States some rejected industrial capitalism, some embraced it, and most
struggled as best they could. Bodnar extends earlier ideas on social mobility
which appeared in his work on Pittsburgh, Lives of Their Own written with
Roger Simon and Michael Weber. He emphasizes the diversity of experiences
and argues that culture and religion are less useful in explaining these
differences than “a city’s economic structure and stage of development.” On
many other issues—unions, entrepreneurship, the church, fraternal orders and
“ghettos”—he emphasizes a varied immigrant experience.

Yet, at the same time there is a single thread woven through it all. The
“transplanted” responded to America “with an agenda of their own” generally
set by the needs of family and community. In the end, Bodnar’s calculating
immigrants focused upon those areas of life in which they had the most control
and structured their relationships to others in private terms or what he terms
“the culture of everyday life.”

It is hard to fault Bodnar on his major points. Yet, he does have a tendency to
attack straw men and to beat dead horses. He never actually confronts Handlin,
but “the Handlin view,” referred to only in a footnote. Rather than analysing
hypotheses in a systematic manner, he makes his arguments by presenting a
series of statements based on recent findings and then draws a conclusion. He
sometimes uses numbers, such as rates of mobility, but feels free to randomly
collapse categories and ignore data he presents elsewhere in the interest of his
arguments. It creates dull reading and confusions, if not contradictions. Similar-
ly, his use of central concepts such as capitalism and culture are never well
articulated and often inconsistent.

This is a very short book for the subject and overly selective in its attempt to
accentuate the positive. In their encounter with America a not insignificant
group of immigrants experienced a variety of forms of social disorganization.
Bodnar’s only mention of “crime” portrays it as a form of entrepreneurship.
Prostitution, insanity, alcoholism, family violence, the seamier side of boss
rule—one could go on and on—escape Bodnar’s notice. His target sometimes
seems to be Madison Grant rather than Oscar Handlin.

These problems aside, The Transplanted represents a useful brief synthesis of
the subject that reflects the findings of some of the best recent literature.

Lehigh University

William G. Shade

Monessen: Industrial Boomtown and Steel Community, 1898–1980. By Mat-

theW S. Magda. (Harrisburg: Pennsylvania Historical and Museum
Commission, 1985. Pp. vi, 152. $3.50 paper.)

The name Monessen at once stands for the city’s location on the Upper
Monongahela River and the hope of its late-nineteenth-century founders that it
would one day resemble industrial centers such as Essen, Germany. During the
boom years of the Progressive Era, when the community became a center of steel
production and processing, that dream must have seemed altogether reasonable.
Instead, Monessen stopped growing in the mid-1920s, and in the four decades
since 1940, as the mills closed, the city’s population has declined by almost
half.

But this is less the story of Monessen than of the diverse population of ethnic
and racial groups that labored in its mills. The books consists of six chapters of oral interviews, each chapter briefly but nicely introduced. In chapters titled “Background”; “The 1919 Steel Strike”; “The Industrial Boomtown: Family, Community, and Ethnicity”; “Great Depression and New Deal”; “The Steel-workers, the Workplace and Unions”; and “Recent and Future Monessen,” the workers tell an interesting if by now largely familiar store of low wages, unsafe working conditions, racial and ethnic discrimination, and the struggle for security through industrial unions.

Like any such collection, Monessen has strengths and weaknesses. The chapters on Monessen’s current dilemmas and on the Great Depression are too brief to shed much light on either subject, and certain topics and perspectives—women, managers and employers, the world outside the plant, the postwar years—receive less attention than they deserve. On the other hand, the collection is especially strong on how workers obtained and kept jobs, on foremen (generally pictured here as heavies), on the special experience of blacks, on occupations (including health and safety conditions), on seniority, on ethnicity, on the boarding house, and on the Progressive Era. Although the volume is informed by an understandable bias toward ordinary workers and unions, Magda has also included a revealing interview with an Italian assistant foreman who to this day insists that the 1919 strike was brought on by foreign agitators and prefers to describe it as having been “settled” rather than “broken.”

The book’s reasonable price and broad coverage should make Monessen useful as supplementary reading in Labor History and the American History survey.

State University of New York

College at Fredonia

William Graebner