
When J. Matthew Gallman's important book, *Mastering Wartime,* appeared a decade ago, it questioned the popular view that the Civil War remade America. Gallman tested that notion with a close case study of the nation's second-largest city. He found that, with its varied manufacturing, extensive transportation networks, and many voluntary associations already in place before the war, Philadelphia had the infrastructure to mobilize for war and did so with little disruption of its daily economic and social rhythms. To be sure, men going off to war and the large numbers of soldiers passing through the city brought the war home to Philadelphia. And new fortunes were made in selling governmental bonds, supplying military needs, building and outfitting
ships, or simply expanding all manner of production to meet a "national" economy that grew by war's end. Voluntary associations supplied the needs of soldiers and provided relief to widows, orphans, and others suffering from the war. But such economic and social efforts constituted adaptations and elaborations of activities and interests rather than cutting new channels of economic and social engagement. Wartime mobilization demanded no centralized effort as local institutions readily delivered the goods and services that did much to win the war. Philadelphia also escaped invasion and internal disorders, such as the draft riots that wracked New York City, in part because Philadelphia already had established a "modern" police force. As such, Philadelphia emerged from the war with a renewed confidence in its basic institutions and without any significant shifts in authority or restructuring of the economic and social order. Indeed, by Gallman's reckoning, great social change came after the war and not even because of it.

In 1990 Gallman's analysis fit the developing consensus among historians such as Phillip Paludan and Peter Parish that the war reinforced economic trends already underway rather than generating a "second American Revolution" in the economy. The North's great strength proved to be its reliance on a market and industrial capitalism already up and running; the federal government might encourage particular economic activity and growth by smoothing the path of railroad construction, protecting markets, making uniform the currency, and purchasing large amounts of goods, but it did not dictate policy, as in the Confederacy. Gallman's analysis thus furthered the argument that the war confirmed the resiliency, energy, and elasticity of northern capitalism, and with Union victory imparted to it a moral as well as practical claim that businessmen after the war used to advantage to promote unbridled expansion and beat back labor.

But the great strength of Gallman's book—his close analysis of economic data—also has proved its weakness. By investing so much in charting the continuity of economic activity, and even measuring its scale, Gallman cheated discussions of the social and psychological costs of the war and the city's continued industrialization. He ignored, for example, any examination of the ways Philadelphia's large hospital complexes, medical establishments, refreshment stations, and other relief efforts made the war more immediately "real" and terrible than perhaps for any other large northern city. Also worth considering was the way the war made Philadelphia more truly a "northern" city. Philadelphia entered the war ambivalent about its loyalties, what with many Philadelphia families and businesses having close ties to the South, but
by war's end, Philadelphia had moved firmly into the Union column. A Democratic city became a Republican one in many ways. And however limited the immediate gains for blacks, the war regalvanized their efforts to gain full citizenship for themselves, as also for the newly freed blacks of a South that Philadelphians had done much to defeat. Such matters got short shrift in Gallman's otherwise intelligent, informed, and insightful study.

One final cavil: In bringing out this reprint edition, Gallman misses a chance to seat his work in the now fuller literature on the wartime North and mid-nineteenth-century urban development, a literature his book helped to inform. Rather, Gallman and the press chose to reprint the original book without correction, addition, new introduction, or even updated bibliography. The result is a book that remains the best starting point for an understanding not only of Philadelphia at war but the ways war affected already established urban economies, but one that frustrates the reader who will want to know where the always keen-sighted Gallman might suggest we now look for new questions on war and society. But such criticisms should not detract from the immense advantage of having Gallman's book in paperback. The reissuing of Mastering Wartime now can do for our students what his book already has done for many scholars—namely, cause us to rethink the old cliches about the transforming nature of the Civil War on all of America and to look closely at the ways particular places adapted to war, and even defined it.

RANDALL M. MILLER,
Saint Joseph's University


After reading the title of Bell's compendium, I conjured the image of a useful, necessary, if perhaps dull compilation of people whose accomplishments would interest a limited number of researchers. To my surprise, the rich history of the Colonial, Delaware Valley society emerged. In this work, Whitfield Bell recounts the life accomplishments of the greats, such as Franklin, Rittenhouse, and John Dickinson, but also the activities and interconnections of Philadelphia's near greats and long forgotten members the group proposed by Benjamin Franklin in 1743.
The American character emerges in this second of a series of volumes celebrating the members and their belief in practical progress, or as noted in Volume One by Bishop Berkeley in 1750, “one who heartily wisheth the public prosperity.” Members then and now value personal association and accountability to community standards. Elected members comprised the array of occupations found among the “better sort” and “middling sort” of people connected to Philadelphia. Philosophical Society members practiced medicine, and law, were members of the clergy, and operated merchant houses, but shopkeepers, schoolmasters, mechanics, artisans, and farmers became elected members. Some became involved in multiple endeavors, professions, or occupations. The face-to-face nature of Colonial communities and their citizenry truly emerges in Bell’s well-researched biographies.

Bell uses the title term patriot in its broadest sense to describe people who believe that community dialogue through association would promote social improvement for the commonwealth. He spent less space redoing the lengthy biographies of the most famous, but allowed the common knowledge of history's icons to be enhanced by further knowledge of their less famous compatriots in community action. Rather than reading a biographical dictionary of notables, the volume becomes a fascinatingly emergent series of templates that knit together the intellectual, scientific, mechanical world of Colonial America.

Since Bell’s biographies follow members throughout their lives, the reader sees their evolving and intensifying American identity. Bell notes the significant mentorship of English institutions and British personal connections in their early lives. As might be expected, by 1770 Society members incrementally severed their overseas ties and began to identify themselves as Americans, confirming Franklin’s character journey written into his Autobiography.

Philadelphia’s “mixed multitude” of the Delaware Valley becomes apparent from this work. Society members affiliated religiously with the, Anglicans, Quakers, Presbyterians, Moravians, and even numbered one sojourner with Conrad Beissel’s Ephrata Cloister. Members lived in Pennsylvania, New Jersey, Delaware, and Maryland, and as far away as County Cork, Ireland. In the best American volunteer tradition, Philosophical Society members involved themselves in an array of interests such as The Sons of St. George, the St. Andrews Society, the Library Company, and Gloucester Fox Hunting Club. Some contributed to Pennsylvania Hospital, and served as Trustees of the Union School of Germantown, Dickinson College, and Franklin College. They took on
a variety of governmental positions as diverse as mayor, Pennsylvania State Constitution signer, and various judicial designations. A sense of civic responsibility and a belief in human progress united them. Yet Bell's sketches show very human characters some who struggled with the will to be known, a portion of greed, racism, and other failings.

James Worrell, captured my attention as a useful community member if not successful American Philosophical Society member. He never enrolled in standing committees and quickly stopped coming to the meetings, but as a house carpenter, he used his skill for the good of the city. He participated in Carpenters Company, and on the committee to fix work prices in Philadelphia. He subscribed to the building of Carpenters Hall, worked on its roof, and constructed fencing for it. During the Revolution, he kept the city pump in repair, and for a time was appointed to the Committee of Safety on whose project he paid such high wages that the Committee told him to stop — his reply, "Hands we want, and hands are scarce." He represented a time that saw less separation of the intellectual and production processes, and he could proudly say that he as an artisan represented the guiding force of the American Revolution. Perhaps he felt less comfortable at the Society's meetings with the better sort of elected members, but he continued in community service as an inspector of elections after the Revolution. He left his mark on history, both theoretically and physically since he inscribed his name on the woodwork of the Statehouse as a young journeyman carpenter.

The compilation contains other gems such as Worrell's life. Bell uses the voices of the period where possible, but gives us a lively narrative in place of the first person. The series is much more than a useful research tool, but offers a look at the macro by amassing the micro.

SUSAN CLEMENS,
Muhlenburg College


If the title of this book sounds familiar, it should. The book is based on the documentary film of the same title by Ken Burns and Paul Barnes. It is
a profusely and colorfully illustrated history of the lives of two of the most important and politically active women of the 19th century.

The stories of Elizabeth Cady Stanton and Susan B. Anthony are told in tandem. The book begins with their early lives, which were hugely dissimilar. While Stanton was born into a wealthy family and later married and became the mother of seven children, Anthony was the child of Quaker parents of modest means. She was first a schoolteacher and when she left that profession, became active in various reform movements. Anthony never married and supported herself her whole life.

The two women did not meet until 1851. Before that time both were active in the abolitionist movement and Stanton was a participant in the first women's rights meeting at Seneca Falls, New York, in 1848. There male and female delegates wrote the Declaration of Sentiments (reprinted in this volume) patterned after the Declaration of Independence and calling for a number of rights for women including the right to vote. Three years later Stanton and Anthony were introduced on a street corner in Seneca Falls after a lecture by abolitionist William Lloyd Garrison. Their friendship quickly blossomed. While the two women were quite different in background and temperament, they complemented one another well. "Stanton provided the fiery rationale" and was usually the "titular head" of organizations in which the two women worked. Anthony usually served in a secondary office and "shouldered full responsibility for both the day-to-day activities of the organization and for carrying what Stanton called 'her highest convictions of truth' into the wider—and often unsympathetic—world." (69, 72)

The two women campaigned together for a number of causes. In 1860 the New York state legislature finally passed a law for which both had worked—a married woman's property law which allowed women for the first time to own property, control their own earnings, and do business on their own without "interference from their husbands." (91) They championed abolitionism and women's suffrage together as well. When the Civil War ended, both expected that blacks of both genders and women of all colors would receive the vote. However, they were disappointed when the Republicans endorsed voting rights for black men only in the 14th and 15th Amendments. The two women even campaigned against the 15th Amendment because it gave the vote to uneducated black men but not to the black women who were equally disadvantaged and not to white women who were better educated than blacks.

After the Civil War the women's rights movement divided as Stanton and Anthony formed the National Woman Suffrage Association. Its members
(all of whom were women—men were excluded) opposed the 15th Amendment and sought a new amendment to the Constitution to give the right to vote to women, the eight-hour day for women working outside the home and reform of divorce laws to make them more equitable for women. Another group formed the American Woman Suffrage Association, which admitted both women and men as members and worked only for the right to vote for women on the state level.

In 1872 Susan B. Anthony and about 149 other women attempted to vote in the presidential election. They acted on the belief that since the 14th and 15th Amendments gave the vote to citizens, and women were already citizens, they could vote. Anthony was arrested and subsequently tried and declared guilty of violating a state voting law. In 1875 the Supreme Court would rule that "citizenship merely meant 'membership in a nation and nothing more.'" (149) The states decided who could vote.

Regardless, Anthony and Stanton continued to promote voting and other rights for women. Every year their National Woman Suffrage Association met in Washington in the winter, and Anthony directed the female delegates to lobby legislators. In 1878, a senator introduced for the first time an amendment calling for the right to vote for women, drafted by Anthony. It was not voted upon by the Senate until 1887 and then it was defeated by a large margin. In the meantime, only two states had granted women the right to vote. Neither women's suffrage association had yet accomplished its goal, and in 1890 they merged into the National American Woman Suffrage Association. Both Anthony and Stanton were nominated for president, but "Anthony begged the delegates to vote for Stanton instead of her" and they did. (183)

However, Stanton was plagued by ill health and interested in other issues besides women's suffrage. She resigned from the presidency of the National American Woman Suffrage Association (Anthony succeeded her) and in 1895 published the controversial The Woman's Bible. In it she pointed out the many ways in which the scriptures were sexist. Ultimately the suffrage organization she helped found formerly disavowed her for this controversial work.

Anthony and Stanton remained friends until their deaths (Stanton in 1902 and Anthony in 1906). Sadly, neither woman lived to see their mutual goal of suffrage for women realized. An epilogue to the book describes how women ultimately got the right to vote in the 19th Amendment.

Scattered throughout the book are profiles of other women reformers, including Amelia Bloomer, Frances Willard and Victoria Woodhull. There
are also reprinted a speech by Susan B. Anthony and one by Elizabeth Cady Stanton. Several well-known historians of women including Martha Saxton, Ann D. Gordon, and Ellen Carol DuBois have also written short pieces included in this book. There is a very short bibliography and no footnotes. This volume will be of most interest to the general reader and might very well be appropriate for students in high school and possibly introductory college history courses as well.

PRISCILLA FERGUSON CLEMENT,
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Rich Westcott’s *Century of Philadelphia Sports* is an in-depth review of virtually every sport and sporting event that occurred in Philadelphia and the surrounding region or involved Philadelphia area athletes during the twentieth century. Organized chronologically by decade, this monograph not only reviews Philadelphia’s professional sports but also examines high school and college athletics as well as club sports. Throughout the book, Westcott focuses upon the theme that he introduces as the title for Chapter 1: “Sports Play a Major Role in City Life.”

For each of the chapters, Westcott provides an overview of athletic activity during that decade. He then proceeds to explore in greater detail the progress of each of the major professional teams of the decade. College athletics receive attention after the professional teams, with both major and minor sports discussed. Participation by Philadelphia area athletes in the Olympics, from Penn’s Alvin Kraenzlein winning four track and field gold medals in the 1900 Olympics to South Jersey’s Tara Lipinsky’s figure skating gold in 1998, receives consideration as well. Other amateur events, including the Penn Relays and the Dad Vail regatta, are also discussed. Each chapter concludes with a year-by-year review of sports during the decade and a brief biographical profile of a major athlete whose performance stood out during the period under examination.

One of the strengths of Westcott’s book is its comprehensiveness in reviewing Philadelphia sports. Virtually every sport receives some attention in the book, including auto racing, baseball, basketball, boxing, cricket, field
hockey, football, golf, harness racing, horse racing, ice hockey, ice skating, lacrosse, rowing, soccer, softball, tennis, and track and field. Furthermore, oft-overlooked professional teams, such as the Philadelphia SPHAS basketball team, the Ukrainian Nationals soccer team, and the Negro League Philadelphia Stars, received mention for their contributions to the sporting culture of the city.

One particular theme of Philadelphia sports throughout the twentieth century is that the achievements of professional athletes and teams range from spectacular to disastrous. The National League Philllies experienced more disaster than success, yet they were the only professional team that spent the entire century in the city. The American League Athletics, who began the century stealing players from their National League counterparts, relocated to Kansas City in the 1950s after two decades of futility. For professional football, while the Frankford Yellow Jackets had the best winning percentage of any professional team, financial difficulties led to their disbanding in the early 1930s to be replaced by the Eagles (who assumed Frankford’s debts when they joined the National Football League). During the past half century, the Eagles have had just one league championship team and one conference championship team, hardly the success experienced by the Frankford club. Professional basketball teams fared somewhat better, as the South Philadelphia Hebrew Association (SPHAS) team, the Warriors, and later the 76ers all won league championships during the century.

Professional athletics in Philadelphia also reflect many of the changes that occurred to sports in the twentieth century. In ice hockey, the actions of the Broad Street Bullies in the 1970s characterized the increasing tendency toward violence in that sport. While the dunk did not necessarily originate in Philadelphia, two of its most famous practitioners, Wilt “the Stilt” Chamberlain and Julius “Dr. J” Erving, became legendary for their exploits on the court. Finally, in many ways Connie Mack’s dismantling of the championship A’s during the mid-1910s and again in the early 1930s foreshadowed what happened to the Florida Marlins after their World Series victory in 1997.

Westcott addresses college athletics in addition to professional sports. Championship teams received special attention, from the undefeated University of Pennsylvania football teams of the first decade, to West Chester University’s four national field hockey titles in the 1970s, to the Villanova basketball teams’ NCAA title in 1985 and NIT title in 1994. Westcott proudly noted the Widener national football championships of the 1970s and
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1980s while expressing dismay over the demise of Villanova football during the early 1980s and Temple's lack of football success throughout the last quarter of the century. Westcott also indicates that the Army-Navy game frequently was played in Philadelphia stadiums. He makes special mention of four Heisman Trophy winners from the Philadelphia area who achieved their gridiron success at universities outside the region. Of course, no study of Philadelphia sports would be complete without examining the Big Five, and Westcott does an effective job of explaining the origins, demise, and return of this basketball arrangement.

Westcott generally chose well in selecting the subjects of the biographical sketches that conclude each chapter. Each of the selections, from Eddie Plank of the A's for the 1900s to amateur and pro golfer Jay Sigel for the 1990s, seem appropriate for the period. Half of the choices, however, represent Philadelphia's professional baseball teams (three from the Phillies, two from the Athletics), while only two were from professional basketball (Wilt Chamberlain of the Warriors and 76ers for the 1960s and Julius Erving for the 1980s) and one from professional football (Steve Van Buren of the Eagles for the 1940s). The only criticism of these selections is that better balance would have been achieved if Chuck Bednarik of the Eagles rather than Robin Roberts of the Phillies had been chosen athlete of the 1950s.

Overall, A Century of Philadelphia Sports is a thorough examination of athletic contests and competitions in the twentieth century. It is a highly readable account of the topic that occasionally can overwhelm the reader with the amount of detail provided, especially because it is so comprehensive in its coverage. Rich Westcott has done a commendable job with this book, and it is highly recommended for anyone interested in exploring an often overlooked aspect of Philadelphia and Pennsylvania history in the twentieth century.

KAREN GUENTHER,
Mansfield University


Jo Ann E. Argersinger's study of the Amalgamated Clothing Workers (ACW) in Baltimore invites reference to Eldon LaMar's, The Clothing Workers in
Students of Pennsylvania labor history have been well served by LaMar's old-style work. The Amalgamated, which operated in the men's garment industry, rightfully earns the designation as a progressive union. The ACW pioneered in educational programs for workers and in providing housing for its members. As LaMar showed, the Amalgamated boosted cooperative labor-management relations and helped structure the men's garment trade. In the face of fluctuating employment, the union established an employment bureau and work-sharing procedures that effectively lifted the hiring function from employers. The union successfully persuaded major manufacturers to suspend outside contract work in an effort to eliminate sweatshops and organized small contractors into associations that reached union agreements. LaMar's useful study, however, had a major gap. Women workers, who comprised half of the work force in men's garment making, were glaringly absent. Argersinger now rights the balance in her praiseworthy study, spotlighting the role of women as workers and union builders.

By the turn of the twentieth century, Baltimore had emerged as the nation's fourth leading city in men's garment manufacture. The city housed five major firms (all owned by German Americans) and more than 400 small contract shops. Various investigative reports at the time exposed the exploitative conditions under which the 10,000 workers in the trade toiled. Strikes frequently erupted in the city, but skill and ethnic divides among workers and the labyrinth of sweatshops slowed progress in labor organization. The Knights of Labor tried, but by 1900, the only union to secure a foothold was the United Garment Workers (UGW) of the American Federation of Labor, a craft union of highly skilled male cutters, trimmers and pressmen (practically all of who were German Americans). Organizers of the Industrial Workers of the World (IWW) led strikes among new immigrant, semiskilled men and women in the trade, but the major manufacturers, collaborating with UGW, quelled greater mobilization. In December of 1914, a group of dissident leaders within the UGW, dedicated to an industrial union approach, seceded to form the Amalgamated Clothing Workers of America. Baltimore became an immediate target for the new union.

Local Amalgamated organizers chose the firm of Henry Sonneborne for a first strike, counting on shaming the socially-minded Jewish owner. A walkout ended when the Sonneborne agreed to recognize the union and abandon plans to implement scientific management practices. Other manufacturers proved more resistant and Argersinger details the challenges the
Amalgamated faced not only from them, but also from rival UGW and IWW campaigns. Physical skirmishes even occurred between cutters loyal to the ACW and the UCW in the so-called "Battle of the Scissors." Ultimately, the Amalgamated achieved the upper hand and by late 1916, 75 percent of Baltimore's men's garment workers had enrolled with the union.

Women played key roles in Amalgamated victories as staunch union members and strikers. Women workers received encouragement from middle class reformers in Baltimore's branch of the Women's Trade Union League and from such firebrand local union organizers as Dorothy Jacobs, but their own grievances and militancy contributed greatly to the growth of the Amalgamated. Women workers also made demands on the union, pushing for education programs and the establishment of a Women's Department in the national organization.

How women exactly were to achieve a forceful voice in the union, however, remained a matter of debate. Some activists called for the creation of separate women's locals (mirroring the ethnic-based locals that had been formed). Others successfully counseled against separatism. Women attained a place in the Amalgamated, but as Argersinger shows, the leadership of the union remained dominated by males at all levels.

The heyday of the Amalgamated in Baltimore was short-lived. After a peak of production during World War I, the men's garment trade entered into recession with plant closings and job losses were particularly acute in Baltimore (for reasons that are not fully articulated by the author). Large-scale manufacturers also moved production to non-union shops both inside and outside the city, further reducing Amalgamated membership to 2,000. Revitalization occurred during the 1930s, but fears of driving more businesses away placed a damper on organizing. By the 1940s, the builders of the union had died and the men's garment industry in Baltimore was in eclipse, thus spelling an effective end to the Amalgamated's presence in the city.

Argersinger's study has a few shortcomings. Greater attention to the experiences of women workers on the shop floor and after work was in order. Comparisons to Philadelphia might have allowed the author to analyze why the Amalgamated seemingly had a less enduring impact in Baltimore, both on the trade and members' lives. Still, in focusing on women and gender issues, she has made a valuable contribution to labor history studies.

WALTER LICHT,
University of Pennsylvania
Fascinating insights into New England women's domestic lives again emerge from Laurel Ulrich in this careful, detailed study of domestic arts and material culture in colonial New England. Ulrich takes us from the early seventeenth century with her examination of an Algonkian basket to an exploration of beautiful knitted stockings produced in the early nineteenth century, even as textile mills began to alter the region's economy. Throughout this journey, we gain a better understanding of women's domestic lives through an intimate, personal perspective. The carefully selected objects and the women who produced or used them reveal much about female domestic work and women's central place in both the family and the New England economy.

Each chapter in The Age of Homespun focuses on a single item. Some of the objects were useful, such as a spinning wheel; others, such as an embroidered chimney piece and a painted cupboard, were truly artistic and decorative. Ulrich looks not only at each object's owner, history, design, materials, and utility but also at the intricate details that might elude a less discerning eye; dyes used in the thread or an old newspaper lining a basket. All of the items expose us to a larger world beyond the home, a world of household consumption and production that also was sustained by national and international commerce.

In the telling, Ulrich reveals women whose lives were defined by endless chores that placed constant demands on their energy and time. Women of all ages seemed to spend every waking hour cooking and caring for children, hauling, churning, gardening, nursing, and washing, as well as engaging in the tasks associated with cloth production: carding, spinning, weaving, dyeing, mending, knitting, and sewing. It is little wonder that a woman, even in her late sixties, would pray to God for "health and strength and a disposition to work and make cloth." (407) Few households could have survived without an energetic, strong woman at the center; they were key to economic survival.

Women's daily tasks in more traditional historical studies can get lost in the telling of economic or political history; here they are front and center. In some cases, female work benefited from shared experiences as women gathered for what were called "work exchanges." They shared equipment and borrowed tools from one another in a system of neighborly cooperation. Whether
women gathered for a quilting bee, borrowed thread from neighbors to complete a sewing project, or took turns weaving at the loom, household and community cooperation were essential to every family.

In producing these goods, women often asserted their claim to a personal identity, realizing that their existence could transcend death through the clues they left on articles they made or tools they used. Among the many photographs that enhance this volume, we see Hannah Barnard’s name painted on the front of a beautifully decorated Hadley chest and Prudence Punderson’s initials carved into her silver thimble. Women’s property, unlike men’s, had to be portable. Personalized items such as furniture or linens provided not only pride of ownership but also a means of strengthening family relationships and lineage when items were passed on to female kin. As Ulrich writes, women used their property “to assert identities, build alliances, and reweave family bonds torn by marriage, death, or migration.” (133)

Detailed descriptions of women’s spinning, carding, dyeing, and weaving reveal the astonishing skills they possessed and the centrality of labor to their existence. Ulrich describes the raw materials women used and how these were crafted into clothing or household objects. Linen, silk, cotton, and women’s trained fingers could create an exquisite pair of stockings, knitted on needles measuring only one millimeter in diameter or embroider a chimney piece containing 500,000 individual stitches.

By the early nineteenth century, modernization began to affect New England. In the 1820s and 1830s, even as women still prided themselves in the garments and household linens they produced by hand, they also became increasingly dependent on purchased goods. Many young women moved from the family home into the industrializing world by taking paid jobs in textile factories. The attraction of the frontier began to pull New England couples far from their community, and women’s treasured household goods moved with them. Fortunately, many of these have found their way into museum collections and now to Ulrich’s sensitive historical interpretation.

Through Laura Ulrich’s fresh and fascinating perspective, The Age of Homespun gives readers new depth in understanding women’s household labor and greater admiration for our foremothers’ skills and labor.

SALLY G. MCMILLEN,
Davidson College
When scholars from the natural and social sciences search for a model for writing a comprehensive natural and environmental history of a locale, region, or biome, they need look no further than Halma's and Oplinger's Lehigh Valley. The book is an ecological treasure trove of important concepts and conclusions, significant natural and environmental historical details and findings, and thoroughly innovative textual features that capture the reader's attention. To understand the scientific and historical complexities of the Lehigh Valley's development over geological time neither the expert nor the novice to the field of natural and environmental history need look elsewhere. Contrary to the authors' modest definition, this book is much more than an overview of the natural history of the Lehigh Valley. (p. xviii)

The comprehensive range of topics is familiar to naturalists and environmentalists alike. They include the Valley's geological beginnings, its climatic and seasonal variations, its vegetative history encompassing wild plants, ancient and fragmented forests, cultivation and commercial agriculture, wildlife and habitat, rivers, streams, ponds, and wetlands, and the effects of environmental laws on the Valley. Lastly, a thoughtful and environmentally progressive treatment of the Valley's future serves as a fitting conclusion to this attractively designed volume. Given the highly detailed and richly illustrated character of Lehigh Valley, it is possible for the reader to become absorbed in the details losing sight of the volume's significant contributions to the fields of natural and environmental history. The importance of the author's description of patterns in the Valley's history serves as a useful guide for readers. A few examples of patterns will make the point convincingly. As the authors point out, specific communities of plants and animals are found in specific biomes created by long-term and stable climates in different regions of the planet. As a result we have biomes that are tropical rain forests, deserts, grasslands, taiga, tundra, and temperate deciduous forests. The Lehigh Valley and much of the eastern continental United States are examples of this latter biome.

The temperate deciduous forest, like all other biomes, highly influenced by the annual temperature range and the amount of precipitation loosely provides the basis for the volume's chapters on "Native Vegetation," "The Agricultural Lehigh Valley," and "Fragmented Forests, Edges, and Patches."
Here the concept of the biome is central to the author's narrative. These chapters, like others, provide tables and are profusely illustrated by figures and with sketches of vegetation (e.g. the variety of trees, leaves, pioneer plants, shrubs, vines, fruits, and flowers) central to the valley's ecology.

This is a profusely illustrated volume with figures, tables, boxes, and cameos found throughout that can't help but capture the interest of the reader. One or another appears on average every 2.5 pages and the range of topics and the breadth of coverage cannot be adequately summarized in the space of this review. The use of cameos and boxes, set off from the text to illuminate significant persons, places and events enhances Lehigh Valley's seemingly encyclopedic quality. A typical cameo, a biographical sketch, celebrates the life of one, Charles H. Nehf, Sr (1910–1996) who for 56 years wrote for the Morning Call about trout fishing in the rivers and streams of the Valley and imploring his readers to protect the habitat of wildlife in the Valley. (290) A typical box, again set off from the narrative but like the cameos integral to the text, describes additional standing water (lentic) communities of plants and animals and provides directions either on foot or by automobile to approach these natural settings. (252–253) Implicit in the author's narrative that the Valley is not simply a biome to experience vicariously through their book but a place to trek and travel to and experience firsthand.

Although some of the figures are visual reproductions of works located in historical collections, such as figure 3.7 a photograph of Bethlehem Steel from the Northampton County Historical and Genealogical Society, Easton or the facing figure 3.8 Saylor park cement kilns in Coplay from the collection of the Lehigh County Historical Collection, many are original drawings of wildlife, and sketches of historical scenes. Two appendices are also noteworthy; the first deals with the scientific and common nomenclature of flowering plants and vertebrates in the Lehigh Valley and a second should be of special interest to scholars who use the Internet for research and general information. The authors divide this appendix into two sections, one devoted specifically to the Lehigh Valley and organized by chapter and the second section provides readers with an extensive collection of environmental sites. This latter section is an exceptional addition to this impressive study.

The concluding chapter titled “Envisioning the Environmental Future of the Lehigh Valley,” raises an important question about the valley's environmental future. First, the authors describe the importance of conserving and revitalizing the valley's Delaware and Lehigh Heritage Corridor and make note of the improving air and water quality in the region aided by the demise
of its smokestack industries and cement making facilities. In addition, they ask two independent public sector experts to evaluate the environmental condition of the Lehigh Valley’s 730 sq. mi. region. Both wax enthusiastic about the valley’s future but bemoan the environmental wreckage caused by urban sprawl as abandoned farmland and open space became grist for commercial and residential speculation. The authors however are less optimistic about the valley’s environmental future. As scholars whose methodical and reflective assessment of the region is done by “reading the landscape,” Halma and Oplinger cannot ignore the impact of increasing population diffusion throughout the Lehigh Valley and the loss of wildlife habitat that accompanies mall construction, highway development, and the fragmenting of the valley’s eco-system. It is a familiar and unsettling conclusion about the effects of human sprawl on the natural world but one that needs to be told again and again until human activity with relationship to the environment changes course and begins to “read the landscape” in the sophisticated ways of Halma and Oplinger.

ANTHONY N. PENNA,
Northeastern University


According to rumors of the day, Congress planned to close the Philadelphia Navy Yard and give all new work to private firms. This news could have been reported at any time between 1960 and September 1996, when the base finally shut down. Yet the rumors in question came at a time when the possibility of war gripped the United States; it was a time in which the country was unprepared for such a possibility, yet a time in which the American people felt that their honor had been violated. Surprisingly, those rumors circulated in 1810 rather than 1980 or 1990. Even so, such rumors have formed a thread of continuity, embracing the Philadelphia Navy Yard since 1801.

The two hundred year story of the Philadelphia Navy Yard, as told by Jeffrey M. Dowart—Professor of History at Rutgers University, Camden—and Jean K. Wolf—a research historian from Ardmore, Pennsylvania—is a lavishly illustrated institutional history of the development of the U.S. Navy.
Known throughout its history by several names, most recently the Philadelphia Naval Base and Naval Shipyard, it has been called the first American navy yard as well as the birthplace of the U.S. Navy and Marine Corps. Yet the various labels obscure the role that the facility has played in the development of the Delaware Valley and in the evolution of the U.S. Navy.

Located almost one hundred miles up the Delaware River, the origins of a shipyard can be traced to April 1762, when carpenters constructed Philadelphia's first warship, named *Hero*. During the following decades Pennsylvania and the other colonies secured their independence from England, formed an unstable government under the Articles of Confederation, and revised their political system by adopting the Constitution; the city of Philadelphia played a vital role in each of these periods. The city's shipyards also played a major role by building armed naval vessels for the Continental government and outfitted privateers during the Revolutionary struggle. During the 1790s the U.S. government commissioned one of its first revenue cutters, *General Greene*, and one of its first warships, the 44-gun frigate *United States*, to be built in the city. By early 1801, the government had purchased land and established a federal navy yard on the Southwark waterfront, where it remained until 1876.

The Southwark yard played an important role in the development and design of early nineteenth century wooden sailing ships. Famed builders such as Joshua Humphreys, Josiah Fox, and William Doughty constructed a wide array of vessels, ranging from small Jeffersonian gunboats to the largest 74-gun ships-of-the-line. By the early 1840s Southwark had witnessed the birth of the steam navy; the yard was the construction site of the first side-wheel steam-powered warship, *Mississippi*, and the propeller steamer *Princeton*. The 1850s brought additional technological advances and larger, more complex steam and sail-powered warships. It also brought economic dislocation to a rapidly industrializing waterfront district.

During the Civil War Philadelphia stood as the first line of Union coastal defense as southern shipyards at Norfolk and Pensacola fell into Confederate hands. The yard built, outfitted, or converted more than one hundred warships, including the revolutionary twin-turret ironclad *Tonawanda*. Despite the contribution, the war illustrated Southwark's disadvantages as a modern navy yard and shipbuilding facility. Surrounded by residential, business, and industrial neighbors, the yard had no room for expansion and in the years to come this would be a fatal drawback.
In January 1876 the Navy Yard moved downriver to League Island, marking a new era for the Philadelphia-based yard. Some expected that the facility would become the leading American naval yard because it had enough room to lay up the entire ironclad fleet in a safe freshwater basin. But such was not the case. The base barely survived, even though many of the late nineteenth-century iron and steel steam-powered warships were built in Delaware Valley shipyards. The location was prone to flood tides that often put the entire navy yard underwater; a violent 1881 wind storm leveled the only covered shipway at the yard, and rumors, again, circulated that the yard would be closed.

Instead of being closed, League Island gained additional governmental support, as the Navy opened permanent dry docks in 1891 and 1907, and built testing centers for fuel oil burning engines, propellers, and wireless telegraphy. In the years before World War I, the Navy transferred the Atlantic Marine Corps Advance Base headquarters and school to the island. The war itself brought new shipbuilding ways, a naval aircraft factory, a submarine base, and an additional dry dock, all designed to make League Island the country's premier naval base and shipbuilding yard. But once the war ended, new rumors circulated about the base's eminent demise.

Although postwar demobilization and the budgetary cutbacks of the Depression hit the base hard, New Deal economic programs and U.S. entry into World War II revived the Philadelphia yard, bringing its greatest importance. The shipyard added two 1,000-foot dry docks, heavy machinery, several industrial shops, and constructed fifty-three warships, including three aircraft carriers and three of the country's largest battleships (New Jersey and Wisconsin). The Navy also developed research laboratories for turbine engines, propellers, aircraft, and rockets.

The base suffered additional setbacks during the Post WWII era. And although the Cold War, Korean and Vietnam conflicts brought short-lived revitalizations, the base never secured contracts to assemble or overhaul the nuclear-powered submarines and surface vessels that became the backbone of the Cold War fleet. Without those contracts the base's future was set, and a "culture of closure" (206) overwhelmed the facility, the city, and the Delaware Valley.

The Philadelphia Navy Yard remained in active operation for more than twenty-five years after launching its last ship. In 1990 the federal
government's Commission on Base Closure and Realignment recommended that the yard be closed. Although powerful Pennsylvania congressmen and senators fought to keep the facility open, President Bush sealed the yard's fate in July 1991. During the next five years local, state, and national authorities offered proposals to redevelop the base, but none of them revitalized the sagging economy and morale of the region. Finally, on September 27, 1996, the last log entry recorded that the "Philadelphia Naval Shipyard is closed, no further entries this Log" (220). More than two hundred years of naval tradition had come to an abrupt, but not unexpected end.

The authors of this study maintain that this book is an institutional and naval history of the Philadelphia Naval Shipyard and of the U.S. Navy. In reality, this book chronicles how a poorly located facility continued to survive in an age of industrial and technological transformation; its importance during the eighteenth and early nineteenth century can be explained by geography and the maritime culture that had thrived along the city's riverfront. But by the mid-nineteenth century industrialization and technology had minimized Philadelphia's geographic advantages; the twentieth century brought new challenges, including population relocation to the Sunbelt and the loss of political clout. Perhaps, as the authors maintain, the true question should have been: why had it taken so long to close the yard. If you want to know the real answer to this question, you need to read this book.

GENE A. SMITH,
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With this volume and another on the Indians of the Northeast, Columbia University Press has initiated a new regional series for Native American Studies. Subsequent volumes will cover the Indians of the Plains, Northwest, Great Basin, California, and Southwest. Each will follow a format that devotes about half of the text to a narrative history of the Indian peoples in that region and the other half to three reference tools: an alphabetical glossary of people, places, and events; a chronology; and a listing of bibliographic, museum, and internet resources.
This volume, co-written by two leading scholars of the Cherokees, bodes well for the rest of the series. Ethnohistorians such as Perdue and Green have tended to focus their research and publications on individual Indian nations. Among native peoples of the Southeast, the last fifteen years have seen noteworthy studies of the Catawbas, Creeks, Cherokees, Choctaws, and Powhatans, but with the exception of James Axtell's colonial-era study *The Indians' New South* (1997), very little has been published in the way of an overview for this region. The same might be said about any of the other regions covered in this series, as the explosion of scholarship on Native Americans since 1970 has splintered and specialized the field. Meanwhile, for those interested in reference guides, most one-volume works deal with the Indian peoples of North America as a whole, while multi-volume series, such as the highly regarded *Handbook of North American Indians*, are more likely to be found in research libraries than on the book shelves of lay readers. With this series, Columbia University Press fills an important gap, combining a regional narrative with useful reference guides.

Perdue and Green's narrative is a model of informed scholarship written for a general audience. It introduces readers to the methods and sources of archaeology, anthropology, and history and explains how the amalgamation of these three in ethnohistory has reshaped our study of the European-Indian Encounter. The narrative is evenhanded in its chronological coverage. Although specialists in the Colonial and Early National periods, Perdue and Green devote a chapter to Southeastern Indians in the trans-Mississippian West after Removal and another to those remnant populations that stayed in the Southeast after the Jacksonian Era. Nor do they shortchange lesser-known native groups. While the bulk of their post-contact narrative centers on what were once commonly called the Five Civilized Tribes—Cherokees, Choctaws, Chickasaws, Creeks, and Seminoles—it also makes room for the Caddo tribes, Apalachees, Timucuas, and Lumbees. Indeed, one of the most interesting bibliographic features is a listing of Southeastern Indian peoples according to their legal status: federally recognized tribes, state recognized tribes, and those whose petitions for recognition are pending or have been withdrawn or denied.

Of course, comprehensive coverage is not achieved without some sacrifice of detail. Specialists will be inclined to note what has been left out. This reviewer was surprised that the authors' discussion of the Revolutionary Era passed without mention of Lord Dunmore's War in Virginia or Logan's Speech, the famous example of Indian oratory that so enthralled Thomas Jefferson. Perdue and Green include Virginia in their geographic definition.
of the Southeast, but perhaps omitted these two episodes because both were associated with Indian peoples from the Kentucky and the Ohio Valley regions. A liability of regionally defined coverage, then, is the potential omission of peoples and events that straddle geographic boundaries. Another example that illustrates the problem of scale in a volume dedicated to chronological and regional breadth is the absence from both the narrative and reference guides of William Augustus Bowles, an Anglo-American adventurer who figured prominently but briefly in Creek relations with the English and Spanish in the late eighteenth century. Bowles no doubt failed to make the authors' cut as a character noteworthy enough for inclusion in the book, although his story offers an interesting international dimension on the Creeks' experience with European empires.

But these are the quibbles of a specialist, and they in no way detract from the much larger achievement of the series and this particular volume: a comprehensive work that provides both an accessible narrative and a thorough, up-to-date scholarly apparatus. Perdue and Green have provided a model worthy of emulation for the other authors in the series, and Columbia University Press is to be commended for finding a niche in Native American Studies and filling it so well.

TIMOTHY J. SHANNON, 
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This guide offers a splendid introduction to archival resources on African Americans at the Division of Archives and Manuscripts of the Pennsylvania Historical and Museum Commission. Building upon the contributions of David McBride's The Afro-American in Pennsylvania: A Critical Guide to Sources in the Pennsylvania State Archives (1979), Ruth Hodge carefully surveys a broad range of public and private records, manuscript collections, and special collections for materials on the African American experience. Although few of the record groups and manuscript collections were generated primarily by African Americans and their communities, Hodge carefully examines each record group for what it reveals about the state's black history.
The documents in this guide enable scholars to examine myriad changes in Pennsylvania’s black history from the settlement of the state during the colonial era, through subsequent transformations under the impact of the American Revolution; industrialization; and later, to some extent, post-industrialism.

*Guide to African American Resources* is divided into roughly two equal parts: “Record Groups” and “Manuscript Groups.” “Record Groups” include the official records of the state government, while “Manuscript Groups include papers of Pennsylvania Governors, records of leading Pennsylvania families, and the papers of numerous private, social, civic, religious, business, military, and political organizations. Hodge offers a succinct but telling introduction to each record group. She not only includes a description of the agency that generated the document and its bureaucratic changes over time, but pinpoints some of the most salient illustrations of African American documents preserved by the agency.

Although the guide is divided into roughly two equal parts, the documents overlap both chronologically and topically. Scholars seeking documentation on virtually every facet of the black experience will find both “Record Groups” and “Manuscript Groups” pertinent to their efforts. The lives of enslaved and later freed blacks are documented in numerous governmental, business, and family papers. Some of the most telling documents on early African American history are located in the files of the Revolutionary War and the War of 1812; the state’s land office; the Port of Philadelphia; numerous county records; and manuscript collections of private families, including the Haldeman-Wright, Edward Hand, and Heister Family papers among others.

African American labor and working class history is richly documented in “Record Groups” 4, 13, 16, 41, and in “Manuscript Groups” 2, 23, 64, 76, 81, 104, 155, and 409. Record Group 16, the Department of Labor and Industry, includes special annual and biennial reports by race, ethnicity, and gender; the Bureau of Mediation labor dispute case files; and the records of the Bureau of Rehabilitation which dealt with the employment needs of wounded veterans of war. Manuscript Group 409, Oral History Collection, includes tapes and/or transcripts from large oral history projects in Harrisburg, Chester, and Pittsburgh. The Pittsburgh Oral History Project, for example, includes 30 tapes on African American workers in McKeesport and Homestead as well as the city of Pittsburgh. Aspects of African American institutional life, culture, politic, and social struggle are also documented in a variety of public and
private records across a long period of time. Although the book does not include an index of the various record and manuscript groups themselves (a feature that future guides might incorporate), it does have a comprehensive topical index which facilitates access to a broad range of subjects covered by the collections.

Guide to African American Resources opens a new chapter in research on African American life in the state. It makes previously obscure documents and sources readily available to scholars, students, and the interested public. Yet, as Hodge points out in her introduction to the volume, “Although comprehensive in scope, this guide represents only a sampling of the many record and manuscript groups, and special collections containing information on the African American experience in Pennsylvania” (1–2). In short, Hodge invites future scholars and students of the state’s black history to build upon her contributions and further expand the boundaries of knowledge. In the meantime, we will be indebted to Ruth Hodge for many years to come.

JOE W. TROTTER, JR.,
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This is an interesting book on many levels. The authors produce a piece on entrepreneurial history, and as one might expect, they begin with a discussion of the theory of entrepreneurship from the Middle Ages, through Schumpeter, to date. The authors know their history of economic analysis and it shows early on. They want to distinguish among commonly used terms—innovation, entrepreneurship, management, etc.—to set the stage for a discussion of Sam Black’s career at Erie Insurance and his practice of entrepreneurship. They have no easy task here, in large part, because Black worked many years for Erie Insurance, primarily in the private passenger and commercial auto insurance lines of business. Property-Casualty insurance is a complex business. As Black and Rossi note, little has been written about the early history of automobile insurance, and they want to make a contribution here.
The history of automobile insurance, the largest Property-Casualty line, is inextricably linked to the history of the automobile. The development of the auto industry, its ancillary services, suppliers, and the nation's highway system, both inter and intrastate, is an exciting story well told by Black and Rossi. Their strategy is to introduce the topic in the introductory chapters and to integrate it into the first part of later chapters of the book.

Chapters 3 through 10 are segmented into Parts I and II. Part I provides the historical background and the links to entrepreneurial theory, and Part II presents Sam Black's narrative on his career at Erie Insurance. Each has its merits. Black's narrative could be read separately, but unless one knows the property casualty business and has a good grasp of the economic history from the onset of Black's career in 1921, reading them in tandem is recommended. Chapters 3 through 10 provide the heart of the story, and they are a good read. Black is repetitive in places, but he more than makes up for this with the many, many lessons he provides on how to succeed in business. He discusses his career from his earliest jobs, including a $100 a week sales position when he was not yet 25—a very high income at the time—to his rise to senior management in the Erie.

The Erie, as it is known in the industry, is a reciprocal. Black and Rossi describe this organizational structure well, as they do the stock and mutual structure. Black is partial to non-stock structure and it shows. They give background on agency business, and Sam is especially useful here with his tips on agency success. They also discuss direct writers and their growth in the auto line. Although Black is a highly experienced insurance executive, he generally avoids jargon and defines terms when he cannot.

The book is at its strongest when Black is simply being anecdotal. His story is a Horatio Alger story, but it also is a case study in economic theory. Although he is not using economic jargon, he is constantly making points about economic efficiency, cost minimization, the role of information, planning and a host of other things we strive to drive home in our university lectures. Black saw the importance of personal contact, both for sales and for the amelioration of claim severity, long before there were academic papers published on the topic. He understood the need for training, prudence, service, trust, and personal integrity. He knew what risk aversion meant. And he had a prodigious appetite for work. Anyone who has ever prepared an automobile insurance rate filing will be amazed to learn that Sam was serving in several managerial capacities, and preparing the Erie's filings at the same time.
Black retired from Erie Insurance in 1961, but he was an active member of the Board of Directors until 1997. The last chapter of the book provides an epilogue covering this time period. The authors demonstrate that The Erie was an entrepreneurial company. Sam Black was probably not the only entrepreneur there, but he clearly was an innovator and entrepreneur who was a major factor in the growth of The Erie from a successful small business to a dynamic multiple line insurer. There are a few minor problems with the book. It would have profited from a good edit and proofread, but the benefits of this book far outweigh a few typos. Although the book will be especially entertaining for those of us who know the property-casualty business, both those interested in entrepreneurship and those interested in how to succeed in business through hard work and good stewardship will profit from Black and Rossi's book.

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