BOOK REVIEWS

Religion in Colonial America. By WILLIAM WARREN SWEET (New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1942. xiii, 367 p. $3.00.)

This volume is the first of three which, the author states, will carry his subject down to the present day. Professor Sweet's Story of Religions in America, first published in 1930, at once took its place as the best single volume on American religious history. Since then a great deal of research and writing has been done, including much by Sweet himself; and now he undertakes to rewrite his story on a larger scale, incorporating in it the findings of recent as well as older writers. He has got off to a splendid start in this initial volume. It is a "must" book for every student of colonial history and institutions.

Religion in Colonial America contains about twice the wordage of the chapters on that period in the author's earlier work. The new book is fully documented, with bibliographical citations and comments in footnotes and an elaborate bibliography at the end. Without letting the narrative get out of hand, the author quotes freely from contemporary writings, and presents both sides of the numerous controversial topics which come up. In such matters Professor Sweet does not hesitate to express his own judgments, when he has them. Now and then, also, he makes a pungent passing comment on men or events. Thus of the acrimonious disputation between Roger Williams and the Quaker preachers Sweet observes (p. 155): "The only good thing that can be said of this sorry spectacle is that both sides were practicing freedom of conscience and freedom of speech, in which both equally believed, and it furnished proof that Rhode Island was living up to the great principles upon which she was established." Regarding the Old Side-New Side controversy which divided colonial Presbyterians from 1741 to 1758, Sweet comments (p. 280): "Neither side had been blameless, but the chief responsibility must be borne by the stiff-backed conservatives, who seemed more concerned about preserving the Presbyterian system than for the spiritual welfare of the new population swarming into the back country." Concerning Catholic Lord Baltimore's policy of toleration in Maryland the author writes (p. 181):

In considering religious toleration in the colonies, or anywhere else, a distinction must be made between the policies of individuals and the policies of ecclesiastical bodies. The Roman Catholic Church has never endorsed the broad principle of religious freedom; in fact the Catholic Church is committed by principle to intolerance. Therefore the statement by Shea that the broad principle of religious freedom was recognized in the colonies 'wherever Catholics had any influence' is, to put it
mildly, misleading. It must be understood that wherever there were Catholics in
the American colonies they were thinking of their own 'religious freedom'... Minorities were always in favor of toleration...

And of the Calvinists he has this to say (p. 191):

For some reason the followers of Calvin have been more prone to persecute their fellow Protestants who differ from them than have their opponents. Perhaps this is due to the complete assurance they possess that they are in the right, and that those who differ from them are not only in the wrong, but are traitors, and in the interest of public safety therefore must be punished.

From these quotations, however, it must not be assumed that this is primarily a controversial or opinionated work. On the contrary, it is a solidly factual account, from which the author's interpretations and comments emerge naturally, temperamentally, and convincingly, as end-products of years of wide reading, research, and reflection. Professor Sweet minutely examines every tree, and now and then steps back to appraise the forest as a whole and tell us how it looks to him.

The plan of Religion in Colonial America is in general that of the colonial section in the Story of Religions, with the content enlarged and brought up to date, and the European antecedents of American religious movements clearly described in each case. The first chapter, "Religious Motives in American Colonization," is followed by seven on the various denominations, all done with the author's usual insight and skill. In Chapter 7, for example, he threads his way through the maze of the Pennsylvania pietistic sects without losing either himself or the reader. The religious "awakenings" of the eighteenth century are portrayed and evaluated in Chapter 9, and the whole scene resurveyed in the concluding chapter, "America and Religious Liberty." By the time of the Revolution "the long struggle for religious freedom and the separation of Church and State in America had been virtually won." But by that time too "there had come to be more unchurched people in the American colonies than were to be found anywhere else in Christendom." We shall look forward to Professor Sweet's next volume to see how and to what extent these churchless people were again gathered into the fold of organized religion.

The present work is confined to the thirteen seaboard colonies, and in the chapter on colonial Catholicism there is nothing on the activities of the Spanish and French in the territory which later became part of the United States. It may be that these will be covered in the next volume. This reviewer would like to have seen a chapter on church discipline, describing the methods and extent of the churches' supervision of the manners and morals of their members, especially the laity. Perhaps this subject, important to the social historian, has also been assigned to volume two.

A few minor inaccuracies have escaped author and proofreader. Once in a while a verb is out of agreement with its subject, a word is misspelled
(e.g., p. 204, "Companius"), and footnote citations are not in apple-pie order. But these are mere flyspecks on the printed page, which spoil its appearance but do not impugn its authority.

University of Delaware

H. Clay Reed


Although the six volumes of Records now published comprise more than 3,000 pages, they contain only a fraction of the material—memorabilia, diaries, minutes, reports, and correspondence—on deposit in the archives of Wachovia, the Moravian settlement in North Carolina. The scholar interested in exhaustive research in Moravian history will need to examine the original manuscripts, but the extracts in the printed Records are quite satisfactory for ordinary purposes.

As one would expect, religious affairs find a large place in the Records. One item reports with regret that a member has lost interest in the church and has "fallen away"; another records a decision that children of parents who are not members of the church may be baptized in their homes, but not in the church. The Records describe beautiful Easter services and report the presence of guests who had come from Raleigh and other places to hear the singing of the Passion Liturgy. Prayers were offered for the conversion of Negroes and Indians, and active mission work among these people was a matter of great concern. The Moravians, however, did not approve the demonstrative methods of the frontier revivals. On one occasion some of them attended a Methodist meeting, but "unfortunately, all came back with a very bad impression of it." The Moravians maintained good schools. In 1806 the president of Columbia College, South Carolina, brought his three daughters to be educated in the boarding school at Salem.

As in most closely-knit communities, social control was rigid. The Salem Board recommended useful employment to replace "too much ball playing" after school hours. One brother was rebuked for buying houses merely for resale; also for securing the notes of others who might involve him in difficulties. Women were urged "to stay away from places where they did not belong, for instance, elections, musters, vendues, and the like. A request was added that they receive this advice kindly and follow it" (p. 2834). Huskings were not to be held at night, and even at daytime huskings it was not permissible for "single Brethren and Sisters to get together" (p. 2712). Some people, however, had minds of their own. When a proposal of marriage was made to one sister, she "definitely refused it. She says that she has nothing against the brother, and knows that he is a good man, but she is convinced that it is not for her. The parents were not opposed, indeed seemed as though they wished that she would accept. We can do nothing more, only regret that our people are so hard to manage" (p. 2880).
Moravians were exempt from military service because of their religious scruples against war. When a member was required to pay a fee, in lieu of service, the congregation made the payment for him. Slavery was not forbidden, but in 1805 members were strongly advised "not to buy Negroes for service in Salem." Bleeding was an accepted medical practice, one man recovering entirely from a pain in his side and chest following the application of this cure. On the other hand, vaccination for the prevention of smallpox was also accepted. In 1802 the Salem Board expressed thanks to God "for the successful inoculation with cowpox of most of our children."

The Records contain miscellaneous information on many subjects: on weather conditions, wildlife, the fur trade, forest fires, conditions and cost of travel; even on mining for gold. News of the discovery of gold seventy miles to the southwest of Salem aroused sufficient interest within the Moravian community to cause some diggings there, with the aid of a Methodist preacher's divining rod. Dr. Fries is to be congratulated for the addition of this latest volume of a valuable series.

Goshen College


The re-publication after a hundred and seventy-five years of John Bartram's Diary testifies to the continuing interest in the work of this pioneer American scientist. Re-publication is not quite the exact term, for the second, third, and fourth editions of William Stork's A Description of East Florida, etc. (1767, 1769, and 1774), contained only that part of the Diary from December 19, 1765, to February 12, 1766—the account of the exploration of the St. John's River which is by far the most interesting and important part of the Diary. The value of Dr. Harper's edition, however, lies not only in making Bartram's work more readily available, but in the extensive and thorough annotation accompanying the text. In fact, Bartram's journal occupies only forty-three of the one hundred and twenty-four pages in the present edition. The remainder represents a commentary based upon numerous field studies made by Dr. Harper and the late Arthur N. Leeds, both of whom re-traced Bartram's route, collecting and observing plants and animals in the same localities where Bartram had first noted them.

Bartram's account is important as the first record of an exploration of the upper St. John's region. This is all the more remarkable when we realize that, at the time of his journey, John Bartram was sixty-six; that he made the trip with but a single companion, his son William; that the area covered
lay well beyond the frontiers, and was inhabited by none-too-friendly Indians; that the travellers had but one horse apiece (and later a boat); that they carried boxes of specimens and notes as well as camping equipment; that their only protection against rain and mosquitoes was the clothes they wore; and that throughout much of the journey John was ill with malaria. John Bartram's day by day account (William occasionally made the entries when his father was too ill) includes observations of weather, temperatures (until he broke his thermometer while climbing a tree after honey), plants, animals, rock, springs, soil, Indian mounds and relics, an excellent description of St. Augustine, and an account of an Indian Calumet ceremony and the conference which followed. During these ceremonies John, too weak to stand, lay on the ground near enough to watch all that took place. He gives the first scientific account of giant fossil oysters, of the Ogeechee Lime, and of the Florida Wood Rat. For although Bartram was a botanist, he was interested in all the productions and phenomena of nature. In fact, some of his most original theories are in the field of geology and paleontology.

But Bartram, a man of meagre education, never handled a pen easily, and his account is much more limited than one would wish. His son William returned alone eight years later to retrace and extend the explorations. The latter's story of his own journey is the famous Travels, a work whose rich descriptive detail furnished material to Coleridge, Wordsworth, Chateaubriand, and many another writer of the Romantic school. John Bartram could not have written the Travels, but his explorations with his son laid the groundwork for it, and there is evidence that William made his later journey with his father's journal before him.

Dr. Harper's elaborate annotations and maps help to fill out the details of John's Diary. Like the Diary itself, the notes are primarily intended for the scientist: a great many of them are concerned with the identification of plants and animals mentioned by Bartram. Dr. Harper also furnishes much information about the exact route followed by the Bartrams, for at the time they made the journey, there were few place names, and many of the points mentioned are now difficult to identify. Dr. Harper's annotations are obviously a labor of love; he shows a thorough knowledge of the man and of the period. However, despite evidence to the contrary, Dr. Harper credits Bartram with the first genuine botanic garden in America. John Bartram, like Robert Fulton, has been more fortunate in his press than rivals with better claims to priority. There is scarcely a line of the Diary on which he does not shed light. Furthermore, both the Diary itself and the commentary are excellently indexed.

In editing the text of the Diary, Dr. Harper has perhaps been over-pious in his regard for Bartram's eccentricities of spelling and punctuation. As John used almost no commas and did not capitalize proper names, Dr. Harper has supplied these in brackets, leading to a text so filled with editorial punctuation as to look like corrected proof. There might be justifica-
tion for this in a literary work where the original forms represented some intention of the author's; here the elaborate apparatus has less point. These, however, are minor points. The work as a whole is a scholarly contribution to our knowledge of John Bartram and of his world.

Temple University

Ernest Earnest


Parliament faced a grim session in November, 1778. The Howe brothers had both returned to England with anything but successful records behind them; Philadelphia had been evacuated; General Burgoyne's presence as petitioner was an unwelcome reminder of Saratoga the previous December; Lord North's conciliatory measures had failed; America and France had concluded an alliance; Chatham had died in the spring; invasion was still expected; Sir Hugh Palliser's insubordination had allowed the French fleet to escape. For these and many other calamities the ministry would have to answer to a vociferous and growing opposition.

Three days before the session began there appeared in the streets of London a pamphlet, Anticipation, Containing the Substance of His Majesty's Most Gracious Speech... together With a full and authentic Account of the Debate which will take Place in the House of Commons, on the motion for the Address... It was written by a Tory scrivener, Richard Tickell, grandson of Addison's friend and colleague, a merry, roguish satirist with a rich gift of mimicry. Probably, Mr. Butterfield suggests, Lord North inspired it. The delight of Londoners at comic relief amid stern realities exhausted four printings within a week, and reprints in England, Ireland, and America followed immediately. For many years the work remained a popular tract. In 1822 King George IV remarked that though the events satirized were long gone by, "the wit and pleasantry of it could never fade." It certainly has not faded yet, and the present volume is heartily recommended to all readers who have even a passing acquaintance with the years of the Revolution.

So apt was the writer in aping the style and mannerisms of the honorable members, that Colonel Barre, one of the few who had not read the pamphlet before the debates, was greeted with laughter when he claimed acquaintance with foreign governors, or translated a French expression, "for the country." Who has not winced at vain protestations of ignorance and inadequacy on the part of new members as he pours over Hansard? Here Granby proclaims himself to be in a state of complete imbecility, and proceeds to convince the House he is not falsely modest. Wilkes' speech, the chuckling reporter announces, was easy to record because it has been in various
newspapers for many weeks. Luttrell, citing all ancient and modern instances of naval policy, supports a foolish argument with amazing learning, proving the fatal consequences of neglecting vegetables. His "Parsnips pitifully putrid" is a masterpiece. The solicitor general dissents from an amendment as "multifarious, uncertain, insufficient, and informal."

The pleasures of this volume are many. It is high comedy, which gains effect from somber surroundings. Mr. Butterfield contributes an illuminating introduction, with a sketch of Tickell's other achievements in political whimsy, and an excellent account of the history of this one. The King's Crown Press intends to make "scholarly material available at minimum cost." For this valuable reprint let us hope a wide general audience is secured.

University of Delaware

J. H. Powell

Monetary and Banking Theories of Jacksonian Democracy. By Sister M. Grace Madeleine. (Philadelphia: The Dolphin Press, 1943. xii, 163 pp., $2.50.)

There is a definite need for works of this type, compounding the results of original investigation, the information in standard authorities, the discoveries of recent researchers and arranging the whole in a new synthesis in accordance with contemporary historical method. Sister Madeleine's well-documented study purports to be the story of the tortuous fiscal policy of Jacksonian democracy. However, the book is really a comprehensive essay on the events and policies that comprise the financial history of the country from 1781 to the Civil War. The author examines policies and events prior to and after the Jacksonians; those during their ascendancy she treats exhaustively.

Sister Madeleine shows that the roots of the fiscal disorders of the period extended back into the years preceding the Revolution. During the Revolution the problem first resolved itself clearly when the Continental Congress passed the act authorizing the Bank of North America, December 31, 1781. Then the opponents of the bank and the solid and conservative policies it represented became vocal. The perennial monetary problems of new and undeveloped territories were voiced by the Western farmers, who became the principal enemies of the bank. They blamed the bank for the shortage of money and, because of the heavy foreign holdings of its stock, claimed that it would once more place the country under foreign domination. On the other hand, its friends claimed the bank to be the only agency that would provide the extensive and sound credit system on which public and private business should be based. The same arguments were used over and over again, in different situations, during the ensuing years. Indeed, with variations, they appear today.

In 1790 Hamilton's recommendation of a national bank touched off anew
a storm of debate on the question of the monetary and banking principles that should be adopted by the new government. Regardless of the arguments pro and con, the first Bank of the United States rendered great service to the country during the period of its operation, mainly because of the high character of the men responsible for its functions, men of the caliber of Thomas Willing and George Simpson. However, the Bank failed of recharter in 1811.

In July, 1816, the second Bank of the United States came into being. This Bank was less fortunate than its predecessor in regard to personnel. Immediately it became the football for a political group whose "front" was William Jones, President of the Bank, a man of considerable popular fame in the country because of his outstanding work as Secretary of the Navy during the War of 1812. This group debased the reputation of the Bank by their venality and mismanagement, but in spite of mismanagement the Bank continually gained in power.

Subsequently, under the presidency of Nicholas Biddle, the Bank flourished and the country enjoyed a period of relative financial stability. However, the ideals of Jacksonian democracy were completely in opposition to the Bank and the monetary and banking principles embodied in it. This, despite the trend toward specie par noted by Albert Gallatin during the period 1819-1829 and the grudging praise of the Bank by some of its most violent critics. However, the speculative interests and land-poor farmers of the West, the planters of the South, the stockholders of the State and independent banks, the partisans of State's rights, the opponents of the Federal judiciary, the debtor class, the growing class of city mechanics, all waited for leadership under which to overthrow the Bank and its policies. They got this leadership under Andrew Jackson.

Too many of the standard histories and biographies have made something of a hero of Jackson in his attack on the Bank. Sister Madeleine presents a documented record of the other side of the story, the record of the costly, inefficient decentralized banking encouraged or condoned by Jacksonian democracy as an alternative to the Bank.

While busily engaged in tearing down the existing monetary and banking structure of the country, the Jacksonians were equally industrious in replacing it with one of their own brand. When they distributed the Treasury surplus to the State banks they found themselves in the anomalous position of distributing a surplus with one hand and, because of the specie suspension, of being unable to collect sufficient revenue to carry on the functions of government with the other. They then attempted an independent treasury, with the aim of divorcing the monetary and banking systems of government and business. This naive plan was short-lived, but it was not replaced by any system of legal repositories of government funds until the Civil War, government funds being placed in State and "Pet" banks in the interim.

Sister Madeleine points out that neither the Bank of the United States
nor Jacksonian economic theory can be blamed for the chaotic conditions so prevalent in the country during the first half of the nineteenth century, but that the real cause of the trouble was the system of unsound banks and unsupported currency that had been allowed to grow up in a specie-starved country. On the other hand, she shows that the Democrats were in almost undisputed control of the fiscal policies of the country during the period and at no time, except during the period of the Bank which they killed, did they make any worthwhile solution of the problem. The book is one that will be of particular interest to students and teachers of economics, economic history, and American history. It is perhaps too technical in places for those who like their history and economics sugar coated, but in it the serious reader will find much of interest and importance. The intricate skein of events and the involved theories of the so-called economic experts of the period are expertly handled by Sister Madeleine. Her assessments of men and policies are forceful and fair. She does not hesitate to condemn or praise, once having examined the evidence. The gist of the book is that, as a banking or monetary policy, laissez-faire will not work. Sister Madeleine should write another book, treating the pre- and post-Jacksonian eras as comprehensively and ably as she has the years of the Jacksonian administrations.

McDonogh School

Kenneth L. Brown

Lincoln and His Party in the Secession Crisis. By David M. Potter. (New Haven: Yale University Press, 1942. xii, 408 p. $3.75.)

When the Republican party won its first national victory in 1860, it was in poor shape to secure the full fruits of its success. It was a coalition party made up of a variety of elements, none too coherent, marred by deep-seated antagonisms. There was no accepted leadership. The most prominent chieftain, Seward, had been thrown overboard in the nominating convention, and the newly-elected president, Lincoln, was largely an unknown quantity. Worse still, the Republicans could not believe that the Southern threat of secession need be taken seriously. Therefore when the break-up of the Union began to occur in December, 1860, there was little disposition among Republicans to heed the signs.

Seward, who was the leading Republican in Washington, for weeks sat idly by in Congress without lifting a hand. Lincoln engrossed in party puzzles was sure of one thing only, namely, that he would not consent to further concessions to the South. Therefore the more radical of the Republicans with Lincoln's approval proceeded to kill the hope of compromise. Lincoln justified this on the ground that concessions then would only embolden the South to demand larger inducements later. This indisposition to compromise was matched by the leaders of Southern secession whom the author believes were anxious to hurry their project lest the
conservatives in their section gain time to marshall their forces in opposition.

Then Lincoln offered Seward the first place in the cabinet and the latter regained a sense of responsibility. He forthwith undertook to widen the natural difference between the upper and lower South, to delay secession in the latter and to prevent any action by the government which might provoke the South to bloodshed. To this end, the author cites circumstantial evidence to show that Seward was instrumental in securing the peace conference at Washington which prevented any overt acts while Buchanan was President and gave cause for hope of conciliation to the upper South.

After March 4 Lincoln sought to develop this delaying action further. He announced a firm policy of asserting Federal authority, enforcing laws, collecting duties and holding the forts but he did nothing. In fact, he was encouraging Unionists in Virginia with the idea that no overt acts would be attempted. He hoped to reconstruct the government when the lower South had had time to realize that their fellows were not joining them. Seward likewise was dealing with secessionists clandestinely with the same hope. Lincoln's policy was based upon a belief that there was a real Southern Union party which only needed time to mobilize. However during the first month of his term Lincoln became convinced that he was mistaken, that this Southern Unionism was a myth. Also he was disillusioned about General Scott, upon whom he had relied. Finding the old General, as he believed, playing politics, Lincoln ordered the re-enforcement of Sumter and the war was on.

The author of this study has performed his task well and has brought to it an excellent sense of evidence and a mind which can see the implications which are found below the surface of his data. Furthermore, he has a well-tooled style. Some of his premises will not meet universal acceptance. Not all accept the conclusion that secession was hurried through by a minority against the weight of Union sentiment. Nor can all agree that the Republicans in Congress passed no measure in the short session, 1860-1861, "regarded as an aggression upon the South." The vivid comments made by Southerners and their friends regarding the tariff which the Republicans hastened to enact, disprove that. On the other hand, the author is to be commended on his judicial treatment of some of the latest hypotheses regarding Lincoln from Southern-minded scholars.

In closing it is in order to express regret that so excellent a craftsman was persuaded to go to press without consulting some major blocks of evidence. The Lincoln and probably the Seward manuscripts were unavailable but the same cannot be said of the Weed, the Chandler, the Cameron, the Sumner manuscripts and that important half of the Chase papers in The Historical Society of Pennsylvania.

University of Pennsylvania

Roy F. Nichols
The Personal Finances of Abraham Lincoln. By Harry E. Pratt. (Springfield, Ill.: The Abraham Lincoln Association, 1943. xiii, 198 p. $3.50.)

"For years," says the jacket of this book, "skeptics have been asking what new could be written about Lincoln. This book is their answer." The answer—culled from store accounts, court records, the poorly kept daybook of a law partnership, bank files, and the papers of David Davis—goes to prove that Lincoln borrowed and loaned money, bought and sold property, collected fees as a lawyer and deposited them in a bank, and drew pay as an officeholder when he held office. The volume is the product of a painstaking search for and a careful compilation of scattered bits of Lincoln data, and it probably—as the author claims—"disproves the general belief that Lincoln was indifferent to money and lax in his care of it." The author estimates that Lincoln's income averaged from $1,500 to $2,000 in the first dozen years of his practice, and increased to an annual average of $3,000 during the 1850's. At the time of his inauguration, Lincoln had about $15,000 in cash and property. During his presidency he saved most of his salary, and at the time of his death his estate amounted to $83,342.70. The fact that Justice David Davis, administrator of the estate, was able to increase this amount to $110,974.62 in thirty-one months suggests that Davis was considerably more adept than Lincoln in financial matters. The appendix of the volume contains compilations of Lincoln's salary as an Illinois legislator and as President, his accounts with several stores and with a bank, and other exhibits of comparable interest. Certainly, the aforementioned skeptics should now be still. Here, indeed, is something new about Lincoln. But, in all probability, the skeptics will soon be at it again, crying for more that is new. Then, probably, someone will find something else that is new. And then the skeptics. . . . Why, gentle reader, this sort of thing might go on forever!

University of Wisconsin

William B. Hesseltine

David Glasgow Farragut: Our First Admiral. By Charles Lee Lewis. (Annapolis: United States Naval Institute, 1943. xvi, 513 p. Illustrated. $4.50.)

In this volume Mr. Lewis presents a sequel to his David Glasgow Farragut: Admiral in the Making, which was published in 1941. Together the two volumes comprise the most extensive biography of Farragut that has been written. The author is a professor at the United States Naval Academy and the biographer of several other prominent naval officers.

The present volume takes up the life of its subject at the beginning of the Civil War and is largely devoted to the part played by Farragut in that struggle. Although a native of Tennessee, Captain Farragut remained loyal to the federal government and became its foremost naval commander. He rose to this position through his courageous and unflinching conduct of
the blockade of the Gulf ports of the Confederacy and the operations resulting in the opening of the Mississippi River and Mobile Bay and in the capture of the Confederate ironclad ram *Tennessee*. When Congress created the rank of rear admiral in 1862, and that of vice-admiral in 1864, Farragut was the first to be commissioned in these ranks. Following the passage of another act of Congress, he was appointed the first full admiral in the United States Navy in 1866. During 1867–1868, while in command of the European Squadron, Admiral Farragut visited most of the capitals and principal ports of Europe, receiving everywhere a hero’s welcome. Through the special dispensation of President Johnson Mrs. Farragut was allowed to accompany her husband on this cruise in which much sightseeing was combined with official visiting. Upon the Admiral’s return to the United States, declining health curbed his activities, and finally in 1870 he died while visiting the commandant of the Portsmouth Navy Yard.

In the preparation of this book apparently all the available manuscripts and published material have been used. The former include records of the Navy Department now in The National Archives and a number of private manuscript collections, including correspondence of Farragut. The published sources comprise the *Official Records of the Union and Confederate Navies in the War of the Rebellion*, newspapers, periodicals, and numerous books and pamphlets. Besides a bibliography, the book contains nearly eighty pages of notes and a fair index. The illustrations are numerous and well selected. In view of the separation of the notes from the text, more year dates might have been employed in the latter. This clearly written and scholarly biography will long remain the standard work on Admiral Farragut.

*The National Archives*  
HENRY P. BEERS

*Confederate Mississippi: The People and Policies of a Cotton State in Wartime.* By JOHN K. BETTERTSWORTH. (Baton Rouge: Louisiana State University Press, 1943. xi, 386 p. Illustrations. $3.00.)

The book under review is concerned not with the war in Mississippi but with the conditions in the State while the war was going on. Such a task almost inevitably demands a topical treatment. The author first disposes of politics rather summarily in a chapter called “The Agony of Government.” There was agony enough in all conscience as Governor Pettus and Governor Clark, aided by eight sessions of the legislature, wrestled with the military, social, and economic problems of the State, while the state government steadily grew more impotent and local government went its way to ruin.

The conflicts between state rights and patriotism, which were apparently as prevalent in the Mississippi “hotbed” as they were in Stephens’ Georgia or Vance’s North Carolina, receive their share of attention. Confederacy and
State clashed over conscription, control of troops, exemptions, impressment of property, suspension of habeas corpus and other questions. All this shows clearly that in Mississippi, as in other states, Southern Nationalism was still not strong enough to override local attachments. Yet these bickerings were not serious enough to account for the loss of the war. Notwithstanding the initial enthusiasm for the war, there was from the beginning a certain amount of apathy and even dissent among the poor whites of the northern hill country and the poorer ones of the southeastern piney woods. As the war went on this dissent grew into disloyalty and open opposition and these regions became the home of deserters and malcontents who defied both State and Confederate attempts to bring them to terms. Still the disloyalty had in it very little of Unionism and was rather an expression of devotion to local freedom from interference. Jones County was the center of disaffection but did not "secede" from the State, as has been alleged.

Mississippi had its full share of economic troubles, for it had to change from a cotton economy to one of grain growing, and it had to improvise textile factories and keep a despondent railroad system from sinking into utter ruin. In all these things the State had a fair measure of success but the effort brought much grumbling and distress. Not the least of the State's worries rose from the necessity of providing a currency for the people and of keeping the State treasury out of the bottomless pit. This, too, was done; and at the end of the war the kindly Fourteenth Amendment relieved Mississippi of some eight million dollars of debt.

Professor Bettersworth has painted a dark and sordid picture and authenticated it with a twenty-four-page bibliography and with heavy documentation. Yet the reviewer doubts if the picture be a true one. There was a heroic side to the war in Mississippi, just as there was a sordid side, but it is the sordid side alone that the author has chosen to emphasize. With the same sort of treatment one could paint an equally unpleasant picture of Ohio or Pennsylvania during the war. The picture might be correct in every detail but it would not be complete.

*Florida State College for Women*  
R. S. Cotterill

*The American Frontier in Hawaii, The Pioneers, 1789-1843.* By Harold W. Bradley. (Stanford University, California: Stanford University Press. 1942. xi, 488 p. $4.50.)

This volume is an important contribution to the history of American frontier expansion. The acquisition of the Hawaiian Islands by the United States too long has been treated as an incident of the imperial expansion generated by the Spanish War. Actually it was something of a climax for the earlier type of economic and institutional frontier expansion responsible for the growth of the continental United States from the days of Florida
and Louisiana down through the settlement of Texas and Oregon. One of
the chief values of Dr. Bradley's volume should be its contribution to this
new understanding of the story of the relationship of the United States to
Hawaii. While this particular book carries the story only to 1843, those
few familiar with the later history of Hawaii will agree that the record
thereafter is one of continuation and fruition of forces set in motion by
that date.

Dr. Bradley, an associate professor of history at Stanford University, has
devoted several years of study and research to his theme and the exhaustive
detail with which he has set down the story of the pioneers in Hawaii from
1789 to 1843 reveals his thoroughness. If there is any fault to be found
with the result it is simply that the account is so meticulous in its attention
to detail that it may not attract the general reader. Underneath is a stirring
story of true pioneer endeavor.

The author properly emphasizes the fact that prior to 1820 British rather
than American interests were dominant in Hawaii and that in 1794 Van-
couver actually accepted the cession of the Islands from the King. The first
American interests were economic and grew out of the fur trade of the
Pacific Northwest. In this trade the Islands were used as a way station.
Then came the halcyon days of the short-lived sandalwood trade, they were
followed by the picturesque whalers who found at Hawaii a supply center
as well as a certain relaxation from the rigors of the sea and whaling
vessels. In 1820 came the missionaries of the American Board and with
them churches, schools and a transplanted New England Puritan civiliza-
tion. The beginnings in the forties of an American frontier on the Pacific
coast gradually increased trade. Henceforth American economic and
religious influences intermingled in bringing Hawaii rapidly within the orbit
of American interest.

By 1843 the American frontier, therefore, had been carried in a most
amazing fashion by ship to this little group of Pacific islands. But it was
just as much a frontier as were the continental settlements, and it was
characterized by much the same restlessness, the same attachment to the
mother country, and the consequent basic revolutionary spirit against any
foreign control. The attitude of the government of the United States
toward this far-flung outpost of manifest destiny was put to the test at
the very close of the period covered by Dr. Bradley's study. The Hawaiian
kingdom itself sent abroad emissaries to sound out the attitude of the
United States as well as that of the French and British toward formal
diplomatic recognition as an independent power. As a result, the United
States recognized the existence of Hawaii and began formal diplomatic
relations. At the same time President Tyler laid down certain fundamental
statements of American policy which tended at least to establish Hawaii
within the sphere of American influence in the Pacific. Shortly afterward
this declaration was put to an acid test by difficulties of the Hawaiian
kingdom with both England and France, difficulties which threatened its
independence. The vigorous assertion of American interest was responsible in a large measure for preserving Hawaiian autonomy.

It is at this point that Dr. Bradley ends his account. He has written a carefully documented and thoroughly reliable as well as exhaustive story which covers the beginnings of American frontier enterprise in Hawaii. It deserves wide reading and use. A bit of added interest is provided for Pennsylvanians by the fact that the Reverend Richard Armstrong, who assumed charge of the mission in 1844, was a graduate of Dickinson College and a Pennsylvanian. Later he was minister of public instruction for Hawaii and thereby contributed greatly to the Americanization of the Islands.

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*The Flag of the United States.* By MILO MILTON QUAIFE. (New York: Grosset & Dunlap, 1942. xiv, 210 p. Illustrated. $2.00.)

Many of the conclusions about the early history of the flag of the United States reached by Dr. Quaife are likely to have an air of novelty to the majority of readers. However, these conclusions seem to have been formed only after conscientious and intelligent research, and are supported by reasonable authority.

This is a new history of our national standard, and while the nature of the subject suggests that probably no similar work will ever be regarded as definitive, Dr. Quaife's book more nearly approaches that goal than has any of its predecessors. He emphasizes the fact that in the early days of the nation little attention was paid to the flag, that is, until ensigns were demanded for our ships. Contrary to belief, he shows that our Revolutionary armies regarded a flag as a very minor accessory, and he throws doubt on statements that the standard was displayed on the various battlefields of that war. It is to be admitted that very few contemporary references to the design of our first national flag have been found. It also is shown that at the same time, bodies of troops in different sections of the country had independent flags. In other words, until the action of Congress on June 14, 1777, we had no national ensign.

The author devotes two chapters to what he describes as fictions and myths. While he justly brands as a myth the story of Betsy Ross making the first Stars and Stripes, it seems that he might have noted that Mrs. Ross did make "colors" for the Pennsylvania Navy in May, 1777, which fact is of record. It is believed that it was to these naval flags that Mrs. Ross, late in life, had reference when she told her grandson that she made the first American flag. It is more than probable that the simple and accurate statement of the aged woman was embroidered with romance when it was repeated.

Dr. Quaife's book shows adequately and interestingly the development
of the flag of the United States. His work plainly is an honest attempt to seek every fact concerning the origin of the flag and to treat it without prejudice or partiality. The author is to be commended for the way he has accomplished a most complicated undertaking. He takes the view that, despite the fact that the Stars and Stripes appear in the background of Peale's portrait of General Washington at Princeton, which was executed in 1778, no flag was displayed at that battle. And yet, Charles Willson Peale was with the Army at Princeton and Trenton.

Until comparatively recent years there was small interest shown in the history of our national flag, and this may be the reason so many myths were circulated about its origin. As an illustration of this apathy it need only be mentioned that probably the first book to be published on the American flag was the small volume issued in 1864 by a young Philadelphia lawyer, Ferdinand L. Sarmiento. Some years later we had the fat volume by Commodore Preble, which is anecdotal, but in view of later revelations not accurate. Therefore Dr. Quaife's book exactly fills in a vacancy on the bookshelf of every American.

The volume is illustrated with a number of plates in color, showing various early American flags, and exhibiting the development of our national standard. The reader probably would have been more pleased if these had been identified instead of being labeled "Fig. 1, 2," and so on.

Philadelphia

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