BOOK REVIEWS

The Economic Mind in American Civilization, 1606–1865. By JOSEPH DORFMAN. (New York: The Viking Press, 1946. 2 vols. xii, viii, 989, xxi, lvp. $7.50.)

In the larger scheme of Professor Dorfman’s scholarly plans these volumes of the writings of Americans on economic matters undoubtedly occupy the position of “work in progress.” He promises that they will be followed shortly by others continuing the compilation in the post-Civil War period, and presumably he must also intend to make some synthetic use of this vast amount of source material.

The arrangement of the two present volumes is based on paraphrasing the work of individual writers who are in turn grouped either topically under such headings as “Monetary Reformers” or “The International Commercial Mind,” or chronologically on the basis of the traditional divisions of American political history such as “The Era of Good Feeling” or “The Era of Jacksonian Democracy.” The author injects few comments or criticisms, even on such matters as the probable reliability or scholarliness of the writer whose views are being summarized, and the reader generally is left to make his own evaluations.

The scope of the study is in one sense broader than the title indicates and in another sense narrower. The “economic mind” is interpreted to include the writings of men who were not primarily interested in economics when they touched upon economic problems, but is confined to only a part of the published work of practical economic thinkers such as businessmen. This is not as serious an omission as it would be in a later period since, as Professor Dorfman points out in his Preface, many businessmen expressed themselves in print on controversial issues. Yet such men were the exception rather than the rule. It will take a generation of study of magazines and newspapers, legislative hearings, private letters and company files to learn much of the thinking of the general run of American businessmen, and until this has been done we can only study the economic thoughts of men with a flare for literature rather than the economic mind in American civilization. A further difficulty is inherent in the fact that the type of controversy that inspired the business leader to break into print was usually one connected with public opinion or politics rather than with the direct conduct of business. Hence Professor Dorfman has much on monetary problems, the tariff, the position of labor and the rights of property, but relatively little on the operation of markets, the functions of management, the economics of transportation, the conduct of commercial banking and the origins and problems of corporations.
Within the field as he has defined it, Professor Dorfman has performed a great scholarly task in reading through and digesting the ideas of a host of American thinkers. From his careful treatment of many obscure writers and the supporting bibliographical footnotes historians will discover facts and ideas leading to new interpretations. New emphasis is given to the fact that "Democracy had a terrific struggle to attain a toehold" in its battle with colonial ideas of social stature. To a degree this struggle is mirrored in the eighteenth-century decline of aristocratic and theological sanctions and the nineteenth-century rise of moralities based on the needs of industry. The selections from early nineteenth-century academicians show the extent to which all the social sciences as well as religion were encompassed under the heading of moral philosophy. Thus, in spite of their naive premises and imperfect reasoning, American theorizers had at least the virtue of trying to see life whole. By and large, however, Professor Dorfman's selections fortify the existing suppositions regarding the general characteristic of American thinking. We were a pragmatic people more inclined to use logic for its propagandistic effect than for the discovery of truth or the building of abstract systems. A surprising amount of late eighteenth and early nineteenth-century writing was subsidized by economic or political interests. Lacking the magazine market that supported later essayists, men like Thomas Paine or Joel Barlow often sold their talents to advance the natural rights of the businessman.

Two such monumental volumes cannot be reviewed in any detail. Since the author makes few observations of his own, intrinsic criticism must be based largely on the choice of material. By wise selection he has greatly improved the perspective on eighteenth-century American economic thought. The same may be said of his digests of the work of southern writers in the decades before the Civil War. On the other hand, there are some surprising omissions of well-known published materials. No discussion of the numerous writings of Nathan Appleton, the great Massachusetts entrepreneur, is included, although four pages are devoted to a single lecture by a Professor Joseph Holdich of Wesleyan. More important than the omission of the work of any single man, however, is the lack of analyses of the contents of leading economic journals such as the Banker's Magazine, or Hunt's Merchant's Magazine. In fact, neither Joseph Freeman Hunt, the editor, nor his magazine appear in the index. This failure to observe the economic mind through the medium of serious journalism comes partly from the author's approach to his research through individual writers of at least some slight literary or academic distinction, rather than by sampling all available work bearing on a particular topic. The same approach produced the same kind of omissions in Vernon F. Parrington's three volumes on Main Currents of American thought.

When Professor Dorfman has finished his forthcoming volumes he will certainly know far more about the history of American economic thinking than any other scholar. Let us hope that he will put this great knowledge
to use in preparing a synthesis of the cultural role of the economic mind that will permit quantitative evaluations of the force of its various ideas, habits, and mores in American civilization.

New York University

Thomas C. Cochran


Many biographies of Alexander Hamilton have been written. None of them, including the volume under review, deserves to be called definitive. Mr. Schachner's book, however, does merit the distinction of being called the most evenly balanced study and the most satisfactory interpretation of Hamilton's life to appear in print.

A brief survey of the main types of Hamilton biographies will support the validity of this judgment. The writings of John C. Hamilton are influenced by the family connection. Allan McLane Hamilton's Intimate Life of Alexander Hamilton, while more objective, is limited to material suggested by the title—home and family life, professional work, and personal associations. Frederick Scott Oliver (Alexander Hamilton—An Essay on the Union) is interested primarily in developing the story of Hamilton's political and economic ideas. Almost three-fourths of his book deals with the public career of his subject. William Graham Sumner uses Alexander Hamilton as a peg on which to hang a history of the times. Both he and Henry Cabot Lodge place more emphasis upon the flow of national events than upon the unfolding personality of a man. Almost the same may be said of John T. Morse's two-volume work. In all, Hamilton's public life dominates. Schmucker's biography is old and formal; Gertrude Atherton's work is intentionally subjective. In more recent times a number of Hamilton biographies have appeared, ostensibly for the general reader. Of these we may mention Claude Bowers' Jefferson and Hamilton which is limited in scope, journalistic in style, and not without a partisan slant; Ralph E. Bailey's An American Colossus: The Singular Career of Alexander Hamilton, a semi-popular treatment which is brief but well done; and David Loth's Alexander Hamilton: Portrait of a Prodigy, which is frankly popular, emphasizing the sensational and the dramatic.

It will be seen from the above that there has been room for a scholarly and detailed life of Alexander Hamilton—one which would present the cumulative picture. While Mr. Schachner has done this better than most of his predecessors, it seems to the reviewer that he has missed an opportunity to establish himself as the standard author on his subject. Mr. Schachner's previous work on Aaron Burr gave him a splendid background for his present project. A study of his bibliography indicates that he has had access to a wider variety of manuscript materials than any other Hamilton biographer. But, instead of developing his subject to the fullest extent, he
has been content to offer a dependable, readable book of normal size. The
result is that this biography becomes perhaps the best starting point for
those interested in Alexander Hamilton, but it is no more than a starting
point.

As there are no particularly startling new discoveries to be found in the
book, it becomes a story interestingly retold. Its best qualities are balance
in selection of material, and restraint in presentation. The organization is
strictly chronological with space seemingly allotted on the basis of time
rather than of subject matter. Thus we find as many pages devoted to
Hamilton the soldier as we do to Hamilton the Secretary of the Treasury.
As many pages are given to the affair with Mrs. Reynolds as to the Report
on Manufactures. In making his selection, however, Mr. Schachner holds
faithfully to his purpose of re-creating the life of a man, and skillfully
blends the ingredients of public influence and private motive. His book is
more human than Oliver's, Sumner's, or Morse's, but less complete in its
treatment of public affairs or party politics. On the other hand, it gives more
adequate analysis of these matters than modern biographies such as
Bailey's.

The book is thoroughly annotated and may fairly be called a scholarly
work. The author expresses himself with an easy command of literary
technique which is pleasing to scholar and layman alike. Some literary
devices may be questioned by the historical fraternity. One of these is Mr.
Schachner's habit of pointing out future events in embryo. He spins threads
of association between Hamilton's early statements and the specific events
of ten or twenty years later. The Treasury Reports, the Whisky Tax, the
social and political philosophy of the Federalist party, enmity for Adams
and Burr—all are ingeniously forecast (Cf. pp. 19, 33, 37, 99, 100, 232).
This makes interesting reading, but from a historian's point of view is risky.

Some judgments seem a trifle brash. At the end of the book, for example,
Mr. Schachner states: "A few days before the fatal duel, Alexander Hamil-
ton was merely a well-known lawyer, the leader of a moribund party whose
members by a large majority considered him a useless encumbrance rather
than an asset" (p. 430). But on the whole the presentation is careful and
restrained rather than assertive. This is especially true of the author's
handling of the many controversial points of Hamilton's career—his birth,
relations with Washington, private interest in the funding of the national
debt, etc. Mr. Schachner avoids the partial view, presents all the evidence,
and forms only tentative conclusions where the data are insufficient.

We may say of this biography that it is the most judicious and realistic
interpretation of Alexander Hamilton which has been written, but that it is
not extensive enough—especially on political and economic theory—to
command the field.

*The Pennsylvania State College*  
*Philip S. Klein*

Silberner commenced work on this book at the University of Geneva in 1940 after having published a preceding study under the title La guerre dans la pensée économique du 16e au 18e siècle (Paris, 1939). His work on the book was interrupted for an appreciable period and then resumed at the Institute for Advanced Study at Princeton. The product shows scholarly competence and honest workmanship. Because of its combination of these virtues, it is refreshing as an exception to the general run of flashy but shoddy books turned out by "honky-tonk" scholarship in our time. The book is divided into three parts, dealing respectively with the problem of war as discussed by the classical school of liberal economists, by Friedrich List and the German historical school of economists, and by the socialists.

In his treatment of the various writers studied, Silberner generally confines himself to analysis of their ideas without intrusion of his own views on controversial issues.

The "problem of war" with which this book is concerned may be said to resolve itself into a matter of determining whether war is preponderantly good or bad economically, and what can and should be done about it from the standpoint of economics. Silberner shows that the liberal economists were practically unanimous in believing war to be a great economic evil that would eventually be eliminated as the nations of the world became enlightened with respect to their true interest and moved to establish universal free trade. The German protectionists, on the other hand, conceived that war might benefit a particular nation, economically or otherwise, and was therefore something not likely to be eliminated at any foreseeable time. In their view, the free-trade doctrine was pre-eminently a kind of British propaganda that, if effective, would enable Great Britain to enjoy the economic advantages of world empire without footing the military and administrative expense that would otherwise be involved.

The nineteenth-century socialists, being essentially antinationalistic because of the primacy of their humanitarianism, agreed with the liberals in regarding war as a great economic evil that would eventually be eliminated with the progress of economic enlightenment. But in blaming war on their own bête noir, the institution of private property, they believed they were attributing it to a deeper cause than the trade barriers deplored by the liberals. Since they were not interested in the theory of improving the existing economic system, they were not interested in promoting free trade. Nor were they interested in promoting national welfare under the existing economic system, as were the protectionists.

Silberner is at pains to bring out any ideas he finds expressed on the subject of international organization as a means of promoting or enforcing peace. But he finds that relatively few of the writers studied by him elaborated any views on this subject in their writings. Such as did, concerned
themselves with the matter more or less incidentally and half-heartedly. Obviously the basic assumptions of all three streams of thought were such as to make world federation appear an unnecessary or inadequate device for the attainment of maximum national or international well-being.

Silberner's "Conclusions and Final Observations" are of considerable interest. Here he examines the contribution made by each stream of thought to our knowledge of the "problem of war" and attempts to synthesize a solution. Here he concludes that the only near approach to a solution would be the adoption of a form of world federation that would tolerate protectionism in order to obtain and maintain its own existence as a prerequisite to having world peace. This may be regarded as an attempt to reconcile the free-trade and protectionist positions. The socialist position Silberner finds difficult to deal with. While rejecting, as undemonstrated, the idea that socialism necessarily means peace, Silberner admits that the problem of social justice, with which only the socialists really concern themselves, is something that cannot be ignored as unrelated to the problem of war. In the end, therefore, Silberner comes to the conclusion that "The problem of war is ... too complicated to be solved by a single system or even by a single discipline." This conclusion is similar to the conclusion often reached nowadays with respect to many another big human problem and to anyone who reads about twentieth-century developments in mathematics, symbolic logic, and semiotic suggests that the difficulty is a semantic one and the philosophic discussion as vain as the debate between the realists, nominalists, and conceptuallists in the later Middle Ages.

The National Archives

The Roots of American Loyalty. By Merle Curti. (New York: Columbia University Press, 1946. x, 256 p. $3.00.)

"What then is an American, this new man?" asked Hector St. John de Crèvecoeur in 1782. And the question has never wanted for answerers. Observers of one kind or another, each according to his own set of convictions or prejudices, have been for more than two hundred years attempting to analyze and explain the strangely unpredictable American character. What has made it what it is today, and how, and why?

Among modern investigators of the elusive quality called American, Professor Curti is pre-eminent, not only for his widely heralded Pulitzer Prize history, The Growth of American Thought, but for his growing influence on even younger historians who follow confidently along wide trails which he has cleared. His latest book stems from his own announcement, made in 1938, that there was "Wanted: A History of American Patriotism." And though The Roots of American Loyalty does not pretend completely to satisfy that want, it stakes out and defines many of the limits within which
other students may explore as they press on to determine exactly what has made the patriotic American tick.

The roots of American loyalty, as Professor Curti uncovers them, are found to spread widely, to find such varied nutriment as love of land and landscape, of God's gifts and the fulfillment of God's promise to his chosen; as love of wealth, the opportunity for wealth in a new land and the power which wealth can bring; and as love of freedom, individual, social, or religious. These, or some of these, the new America had given to each man; and each man according to his response had returned some share of loyalty, in devout gratitude or simply because it was good sense to remain loyal to a benefactor. So many and so diverse have been the soils on which loyalty to America has fed, so saturated with special interests the words with which it has often been nurtured, that one wonders as he reads Professor Curti's nine sturdy and candid chapters how in such situations it could have survived, if, indeed, it has survived.

The Roots of American Loyalty is presented as "a story of human aspirations for prestige and for security and for freedom. It is a story reflecting both the selfishness and limitations of Americans, and their altruistic idealism" (p. ix). As such, it is not always a pretty story, for Professor Curti never falters over or apologizes for unpleasant facts. There has been chicanery and false-dealing in the teaching of patriotism for selfish or unworthy ends. Demagogues have made the eagle scream and waved the stars and stripes with "patriotic" fervor to distract attention from the selfish wrongness of their true intention. The fife and the drum and the deep, pulsing brass of patriotic marches have been used to rouse freemen thoughtlessly to action. Patriotism in America has been unthinking, ruthless, and cruel. Translated to mass reaction, it has turned snarling on those who served it best. It has become what H. G. Wells found it, "mere national self-assertion, a sentimentality of flag-cheering with no constructive duties."

But patriotism, which Professor Curti defines as "love of country, pride in it, and readiness to make sacrifices for what is considered its best interest," has for all its ill-use developed through crises in America until, amid the tangle of the false and the pretentious, it does show distinctive characteristics. Humanitarian, individualistic, and liberty-loving, American patriotism is neither chauvinistic nor prejudicially exclusive, though it has sometimes seemed to be both. Reading beyond Professor Curti's suggestive and implicitly prophetic last paragraph, loyalty to American ideals has ultimately no concern with race, color, or creed, and is capable of expansion beyond national boundaries to become, as so many of its earliest exponents dreamed, the basis for a new world order in which there may be through the exercise of intelligent humility "a wider patriotism, a loyalty to mankind in any and every nation."

The Roots of American Loyalty is often so jammed with fact that it does not make easy reading. It is not a soothing book which points with Olympian sureness the direction in which we may find salvation for all American men.
But it is a small book which fits easily into the hand, a tightly woven book over which we pause often to consider, in the light of what we have done in the past, what we may or might do for the future. It is a timely book which I am sure not enough people will read.

_Duke University_  
LEWIS LEARY

_The American Rhodes Scholarships, A Review of the First Forty Years._ By Frank Aydelotte. (Princeton: Princeton University Press, 1946. xvi, 208 p. Illustrated. $2.00.)

No man in America is better equipped to write the story of American Rhodes scholarships than Dr. Frank Aydelotte. He was himself one of the second group of Rhodes scholars to go to Oxford in 1905. Ever since his return he has been active in promoting the great adventure. And for nearly thirty years he has been the Secretary of the Rhodes Trust for the United States of America. In this unique position it is to be regretted that he was content to deal with the subject in a small book of six chapters, three of which have been printed before, one of them as long ago as 1923. Actually the book is something less than its subtitle promises. Except for the third, the fifth and the sixth chapters it is not primarily concerned with a review of the first forty years of Rhodes scholarships. It is rather a collection of essays about Rhodes scholars, written at different times and for different purposes.

The first essay deals with the vision of Cecil Rhodes as revealed in the seven successive versions of his last will and testament. It is a vision splendid and the official spokesman of the Rhodes Trust in America does well to emphasize it. But it is not the whole of Rhodes any more than the Carnegie Corporation is the whole of Andrew Carnegie or the Rockefeller Foundation the whole of John D. Rockefeller. Rhodes was not a good democrat, he was not even a good liberal. His latest biographer describes him as the prototype of modern fascism. He was essentially an empire builder and he believed firmly that the welfare of the world was dependent upon the supremacy of the Anglo-Saxon peoples. Dr. Aydelotte insists that "this was no theory of a master race," but, _mutatis mutandis_, it presents many close analogies to Hitler's Herrenvolk. And Rhodes demonstrated in his promotion of the Jameson Raid that he was not averse to techniques like those used later against Czechoslovakia in the Sudetenland. All that Rhodes said about his intentions in the last of his seven wills was that he wished to promote "the union of the English speaking people throughout the world." Dr. Aydelotte interprets this as a desire to propagate "Anglo-Saxon ideas of democracy, justice, and individual liberty," but Rhodes himself placed the emphasis on Anglo-Saxon hegemony, not on Anglo-Saxon democracy.

In any case however, the important thing about the Rhodes scholarships
is not so much what Rhodes actually intended as what his trustees interpret his intentions to have been. Since they are trustees, they must ascribe their own virtues to him. So the historian will do well to avert his eyes and let the legend of a liberal and democratic Rhodes develop, while the great imperialist sleeps his long sleep on the Matoppo Hills. How else can we keep our patron saints abreast with the changing standards of a rapidly changing world?

To the general reader those chapters in the book which attempt to appraise the results of forty years' experience are likely to prove most interesting. The first of these (chap. iii) undertakes to analyze the performance of American Rhodes scholars at Oxford, based upon an examination of the history of the 1126 American Rhodes scholars in Oxford between 1904 and 1939. In scholarship, as measured in terms of "firsts" in honor schools, they have had an average performance below that of English scholarship men, though well above the average of all students. This is to be explained in part by the fact that an increasing number of the ablest Americans, having already completed an undergraduate course in an American college or university, prefer to work for an advanced degree. Between 1904 and 1923, 13 1/2 per cent of the American Rhodes scholars took research degrees. During the last decade before World War II this percentage increased to 30 per cent.

In athletic prowess, upon which Rhodes himself laid great stress, their record is exceptionally good. Some 25 per cent of them have won their "blue" or "half-blue," the equivalent of a "Varsity" letter, certainly a very high percentage as compared with American analogues. Of the social side of American life at Oxford Dr. Aydelotte has less to say, but he points out that American scholars have won their fair share of undergraduate recognition in what we should call extra curricular activities.

In general, Dr. Aydelotte accepts as inevitable and perhaps as desirable the choice of American Rhodes scholars from American college graduates. But one wonders whether the age differential, plus the marked differential between undergraduate and graduate patterns of life, will not, in the long run, tend to emphasize the inevitable national differences and prevent that blending into an equal fellowship which was Rhodes' objective.

Chapter five deals with the subsequent career of American Rhodes scholars after their return to America. In this connection Dr. Aydelotte presents a large number of interesting statistics. For example, he finds that over ¼ are engaged in education, over ¼ in the law, over ¼ in business and about 7 per cent in government service. Curiously enough, out of Oxford of all places, religion comes at the very end of the list, with 3 per cent. On the whole, the proportion of those in government service is disappointingly small, though it has been steadily increasing in the last decade.

The final chapter,—on American Rhodes scholars and the vision of Cecil Rhodes,—is largely speculative and inconclusive. Actually, of course, it is extremely hard to estimate how far the after-histories of Rhodes scholars
have vindicated the declared intentions of their benefactor. It would have been difficult, and almost certainly indiscreet, to have compiled statistics on the subject. Yet we have passed through two major crises in our relations with Great Britain since the Rhodes scholarships were founded. In 1914 and again in 1939, we were as a nation faced with the alternatives of going to Britain's aid or of leaving her to almost certain disaster. In both cases we were slow in coming to a decision and in both cases the national inertia was difficult to overcome. It might have been worth while to have examined the records of Rhodes scholars in these terms. Were they prominent among those who felt in 1914 and again in 1939 that we should go to Britain's aid and who worked resolutely and successfully to bring that to pass? Though Dr. Aydelotte does not deal with the question at all, one gets the impression that there were relatively few Rhodes scholars among the belligerent interventionists. In the milder manifestations of sympathy for Britain as displayed in the English Speaking Union, Bundles for Britain, and the like, the record would probably be more impressive. Certainly there were many who followed the lead of Clarence Streit, himself a Rhodes scholar, under the banner of Union Now (with Britain).

But these empirical tests do not really prove much one way or the other. Rhodes himself never looked for spectacular or immediate results. He thought rather in terms of centuries than of decades. There can be little doubt that, as his trustees have interpreted his intentions, his scholarships have made a great contribution, not only to Anglo-American solidarity, but also to the development of international-mindedness in America. And certainly Dr. Aydelotte himself has done more than any other man in America to bring this to pass.

University of Pennsylvania


In this series of ten lectures, given under the sponsorship of the Charles R. Walgreen Foundation at the University of Chicago in 1945, Professor Swisher gives a careful analysis of the place and function of the Supreme Court within our rapidly changing social and economic structure. In addition to presenting a substantial amount of background material, he considers the problems of the Court today and in the years to come in chapters dealing with such highly controversial subjects as: democratic conceptions of the Constitution, shifting boundaries of federalism, the pendulum of checks and balances, constitutional sources of expanding power and constitutional barriers to the exercise of power, the growth of administrative justice, the travails of liberty, the Constitution and world affairs, the constitutional system today, and new horizons for the judiciary.

The author, who has a widespread reputation as an authority on Amer-
ican constitutional development, seems to deplore somewhat the preoccupa-
tion of political scientists in many specialized fields, on the basis of the
assumption that the substructure of our governmental institutions is well
established and can be taken more or less for granted. Without pretense of
covering the entire field of constitutional law, this volume, as the author
indicates in his Preface, "seeks to relate our evolving institutions one to
another and to a unified whole, with some reference back to fundamentals
as envisaged when our Constitution was adopted."

The limits of a review of ordinary length do not permit analysis of each
of the major problems considered in the series of lectures, but a selection of
two or three of the more important ones may suffice to show the method of
procedure which has been followed. In the chapter on shifting boundaries of
federalism, the author emphasizes the fact that there has been apprehension
as to the future safety of the federal system ever since the government
under the Constitution was established. This is quite true. While we like to
think of the problems of federal-state relations as an affliction of our own,
the truth is that they are peculiar neither to our country nor to our time.
They are the inescapable problems of federalism in a changing society.

Federalism, the author rightly contends, rests upon the assumption "that
political problems are likely to be solved more effectively if the task of
solving them is allocated to the people who, at once, are most affected by
the problems and know them most intimately." In a changing world, the
nature of these problems changes also, so that the defenders of the status quo
find themselves constantly in the position of being obliged to resist the
efforts of federalism to adapt itself to the solution of new problems and the
meeting of new needs. The author makes this quite clear; it is unfortunate
that there are so many who observe the fact of change without understand-
ing why the changes are necessary.

In this discussion, reference is made to such new patterns of federal-state
and interstate relations as are represented by the widespread use of federal
administrative areas, the creation of the Tennessee Valley Authority, the
Colorado River Compact, and the New York Port Authority—all of which
have been undertaken in an effort to evolve under the existing constitutional
system, suitable means of meeting the need for decentralization and of
solving problems which formerly appeared almost incapable of solution.
Dr. Swisher reviews all the recent important Court decisions involving
federal-state relations, frequently giving attention to significant dissenting
opinions, and being careful always not to claim more than the decisions will
support. For instance, he says (p. 31): "All this is not to say that problems
of federalism were on their way to solution . . ." and again (p. 33): "The
fact that decisions bearing upon federalism are confused by the obfuscation
of contending parties should not be taken to indicate that no legitimate
disagreements over jurisdictional lines remain to be solved." This cautious-
ness in the drawing of conclusions is characteristic of the book, but it is an
element of strength rather than of weakness.
The parallel chapters on the constitutional sources of expanding power and the barriers to the exercise of power shed new light on old problems, in a day when numerous decisions of the new Court have modified or swept away many long accepted principles of constitutional interpretation. The type of analysis here presented will adequately inform an interested citizen as to what is happening to his government, and it will be useful for the professional political scientist by providing a means of checking his own analysis and conclusions against those of a specialist in the field of constitutional law. The chapter on the Constitution and world affairs is highly appropriate at a time when the nation seems to be moving with some determination in the direction of assuming and attempting to discharge its full responsibility in world affairs. The book is timely and highly useful; it is very well done, and deserves a wide reading.

*Cornell University*  
W. Brooke Graves


The greatest single record of educational thought and practice in the United States and, indeed, in the world for the years 1855-1881, or perhaps for any similar span of years, is Henry Barnard's *American Journal of Education.* Barnard's other contributions to education in his own country would have assured him a place high on the list of American educational leaders of his time. His *Journal of Education,* his own personal achievement, entitles him to a place high on the list of educational leaders of all times.

There are few American historians who have not examined the thirty-one massive volumes of the *Journal,* which has long been one of the starting points of inquiry for specialists in the history of American education. And it deserves the serious attention of them all. While the historical scientist has recognized it as a rich well of information on educational and related social affairs in the United States and abroad, his knowledge of that part of the contents lying outside of his own special interest of the moment has been no doubt frequently very incomplete. And, until Thursfield's book appeared such matters as the launching and promotion of the *Journal,* as well as that of its influence upon educational thought and developments in the United States, were almost entirely unknown. The author has thus given us a much needed study and one of great merit. Research workers in the history of education will profit most by his labors.

Thursfield's was not a minor undertaking. He attempted, he says, to portray the contributions of the *Journal* "in the development of a profession, in the transmission of educational ideas from Europe, in expanding and shaping the eclectic structure of American education, in continuing and modifying the American educational tradition, and in effecting social change" (p. 7). The result deserves high praise.
The book has six chapters: (1) the establishing and financing of the Journal, (2) its editorial policy, scope, and scholarship, (3) the Journal as a record of American education, (4) the Journal as a record of European education, (5) its professional leadership and services, and (6) its place in American education. The Appendix contains (1) bibliographical information on the various issues and series, and (2) identification of the authors of anonymous articles. The latter will be especially useful to users of the Journal. There is a good index.

The study is very fully documented. The author made effective use of the Barnard manuscripts in the Monroe collection at New York University as well as of the 24,000 pages of the Journal itself. The book is remarkably free from typographical errors. Here and there some lack of smoothness in diction, particularly in the earlier chapters, is noticeable. This is, perhaps, a minor matter.

Many important things that men have done were not intended by them. Thursfield apparently set out to write a biography of Barnard and found, as that study progressed, that "a full account of the Journal within the biography would result in poor proportions" (p. 8). Thus we shall have two treatises upon Barnard instead of one. The scholarly character of the first gives promise of an equally scholarly biography.

There will inevitably be some overlapping of material in these books. In treating the Journal, the author gives us many glimpses into the life, character, and social philosophy of Barnard. However, he has succeeded well in keeping the Journal always in the foreground, although the editor lives through the pages as he labors to improve the teaching profession and, through it, the schools of the nation. Barnard's Journal knew no state lines. It was American in plan and, to a large degree, in practice. But it brought to the service of the nation and its schools the experience of the world, past and contemporary. Thursfield is of the opinion that, particularly through its numerous influential contributors and subscribers, it had a significant influence upon our educational developments, and the evidence he presents seems to justify that opinion. He has told the story of the Journal, and he has told it well.

University of Pennsylvania

JAMES MULHERN

* A History of Education. By JAMES MULHERN. (New York: Ronald Press, 1946. 647 p. $4.50.)

This book, representing the fruits of twenty years of teaching and research, is written in a style that is always clear and vigorous, and frequently entertaining. Copious references attest to the scholarly nature of the work.

Chapter One presents the author's viewpoint. "At all times, and in every society, education has been the preserver of social institutions. When fundamental changes of an economic, political, social, or religious nature occurred
in society, formal education, because of the long tradition back of it, tended to lag behind and to retain old practices which, because of social change, had lost their earlier meaning and value."

"The past has always been, and it continues to be today, a living, active, dynamic force." . . . "Every present has been and every present will be, a culmination of its past." . . . "In the building of the better world, the teachers of the future will take a prominent part. While thinking forward, they must constantly look back to the course of social and educational evolution in the past, so that they may not lose that sense of direction, without which no one can say whether or not the next step is a step forward or a step backward. What the direction has been, history reveals. What it will be tomorrow, the historian ought to be able to predict."

One might add that the school itself, especially the elementary and secondary school, cannot directly transform society. That is the task of intelligent adult leaders.

In Part I the author devoted five chapters, about 280 pages, to the following topics: pre-literate peoples, Egyptian society, ancient Indian society, Graeco-Roman society, medieval society. The inclusion of ancient Indian society and education is a valuable innovation, for while Indian civilization may not have influenced Western culture much, it presents the complete cycle of the rise, flowering, and decay of a great culture. One may well ponder what was the cause of its decline.

In Part II the author attempts the difficult task of condensing into two chapters, about 70 pages, the social changes in Western Europe between 1300 and 1800, and the educational theories and practices of five centuries. He takes his reader, as it were, on an airplane trip across the continent. If the passenger has some familiarity with the ground, he will enjoy the sweep of the panorama; if he does not have it, he is likely to be somewhat bewildered.

Part III devotes five chapters, about 200 pages, to social and educational change from the French Revolution until modern times. Since the plane is traveling more slowly, the professor's passenger is likely to carry away more definite impressions of landmarks.

Part IV comprises two chapters, about 125 pages, one dealing with social, economic, and intellectual changes in the twentieth century, the other with recent educational changes in Europe and the United States. The book closes with a report of an International Education Assembly held in 1944 which undertook to define "a free society" and to formulate educational principles for it.

While the reviewer's viewpoint is somewhat different—he does not fully accept the economic interpretation of history, and he believes that the author has slighted the Renaissance—he congratulates his colleague on his achievement, a history of education that is related chapter by chapter to the history of Western thought.

Temple University

RALPH DORNFELD OWEN
Woman as Force in History: A Study in Traditions and Realities. By Mary R. Beard. (New York: Macmillan Company, 1946. viii, 368 p. $3.50.)

The writing of history has been difficult enough at best, through the long years of recorded time, what with the incomplete scope of the source materials and the incapacity of any one historian to throw off the limitations of environment and heredity and to achieve an unbiased presentation. When to these handicaps is added a century-long blindness with respect to the functioning of women in history, as in the years following Blackstone, the record must be yet farther from reality. This book is concerned with the third of these handicaps and apparently was written with two practical objects in view: (1) to expose thoroughly the fiction endorsed by Blackstone in 1765, that women have been a subject sex throughout history, and (2) to inspire the exploitation today of woman’s talents in contributing to the building of a less destructive world. Women through the ages, Mrs. Beard observes, have been “in the main [note the qualification] on the side of civilization in the struggle with barbarism” (p. 131).

In the first of these objects the author has succeeded. She carries her readers through ancient times up to the present, glimpsing in each period numbers of its people who admittedly were outstanding and yet were women. The fiction of perpetual subjection is disproved by reference to such historical realities as economic, social, and political institutions. In law, religion, learning, and war also, the ranks of leaders included women. The fields of relative importance of members of the sex varied, of course, in different places and times. The degree of their legal recognition fluctuated also, for the true story is far from the simple “up from slavery” recital effectively popularized by some women’s-rights orators.

Perhaps the most potent single influence in fixing the dogma of age-old subjection was that of Sir William Blackstone, son of a silk-shopkeeper, who married the daughter of a landed gentleman. He failed at the practice of law but succeeded as the writer of Commentaries on the Laws of England, which became a popular text because not too learned or hedged about with qualifying statements. Blackstone was “a foe of reforming radicals” (p. 81), and was committed to the perpetuation of the old common law, having no great liking for the ways in which provisions of that law might be offset by equity and by parliamentary acts. As respects married women under common law, Blackstone taught that “the very being or legal existence of the woman is suspended during the marriage or at least is incorporated and consolidated into that of the husband” (pp. 78-79). This passage, first appearing in his first volume in 1765, was seized upon during the middle of the nineteenth century by Elizabeth Cady Stanton and other protagonists of rights for women, who issued a clarion call for female emancipation. Neither they, nor the generations of American lawyers to whom Blackstone served as a substitute for more formal legal training, were likely to note in what respects Blackstone’s assertions needed qualification or were criticized by British jurists. They did not go back to original
sources to ascertain the rights of married women under Roman and other laws. Nor did most of them investigate whether women in reality had enjoyed wide privileges technically illegal. Their call was for a rise to freedom rather than a return to it.

Mrs. Beard evidently believes that the future of mankind might be more promising if more historians would quit slighting or ignoring the fact that women have been a force in history, and if women themselves would wake to the implications of their own record, particularly in respect to the influence of the family in the state. However, does the author really expect to widen greatly the knowledge of more than a few women leaders concerning themselves, and thus to inspire much wider use of their talents? If the manner of presentation used by her be the gauge of the answer, it seems to be negative. The diction and organization are definitely those of the scholar, more than of the popular propagandist. To this reviewer it seems, therefore, that the great body of special knowledge acquired by the author is unlikely to win the wide application it merits.

Swarthmore, Pennsylvania

JEANNETTE P. NICHOLS


In this volume, the ever-growing bibliography of Pennsylvania Dutch art and culture is provided with an effective introduction. Examination of the selected bibliography included in its opening pages may suggest that with such varied discussion of its different aspects as is already available, there is no great need for a book like this. Yet it has individual merits of its own which will assure it a useful and constructive rôle in attracting still further collectors and students of the history of American art to begin and continue knowledge and understanding of Pennsylvania Dutch art.

The text pages contain a brief sketch of the historical background of the Pennsylvania Dutch; a discussion of the patterns and motifs most characteristic of this essentially functional, craftsman's art; and sections dealing with its architecture, furniture, pottery and glass, metal and textile work, and the arts of writing and illumination. Throughout, emphasis is laid on the useful nature of the objects under discussion, a point of view which is not without value in the study of a culture which is sometimes considered primarily for its plunder value to the modern interior decorator or period-minded architect rather than as a significant and important development in its own right. This the historian of American civilization will welcome in a work intended as this one is, to furnish an introduction to the material considered, though possibly not without a sigh that more is not provided in the way of chronology and at least an indication of documentary sources.
It is in the illustrations, however, that the most useful portion of the book is to be found. These are excellent half-tones for the most part, with some drawings of individual decorative motifs, and four plates in full color. The arrangement of the cuts on the plate pages is informal, but they are so disposed as to make for ease in observation and study and with juxtapositions that are well conceived to attract and intrigue. General views of ensembles are given, along with detailed studies of individual objects from many private collections as well as museums, the result being to give about as well as could be the sense of the object in its proper setting. Nearly two-hundred and seventy-five cuts in all make this selection of pictures a thorough-going overview of the material of Pennsylvania Dutch art and an unusually satisfactory visual introduction to its charm and attractiveness. The titles in the bibliography cited above would likewise constitute a modest but indispensable library for one seeking to inform himself further about the field in general. Many will undoubtedly wish to know more after the preliminary acquaintance established through the medium of this volume.

University of Pennsylvania

David M. Robb


This work by two former Presidents of Haverford College is a companion to Penn's own Fruits of Solitude and consists of three parts: maxims or reflexions on religion, morals, government, and toleration; an essay by President Sharpless on the practical character of Penn's mysticism; and special selections from the writings of Penn.

The first part, consisting of the maxims chosen by President Comfort, shows us Penn the litterateur in a form that is characteristically one with his age. These sayings reveal a writer capable of the bon mot whose ideas are decidedly not second-rate. The editor has carefully noted the writings of Penn from which these selections are drawn.

The second part, President Sharpless' essay, a short but illuminating bit on the religious writings of the Founder, is an attempt to demonstrate that in all his work Penn was ever conscious of the hand of the Lord, and that this consciousness of the Lord's direction in literary and practical affairs constitutes his "practical" mysticism.

The third part contains longer passages from letters, and several of the Founder's prayers.

This is a useful book.

Blue Bell, Pennsylvania

John Joseph Stoudt
George Alfred Townsend. One of Delaware's Outstanding Writers. By Ruth-anna Hindes. (Wilmington, Delaware: privately printed, 1946. 72 p. $2.50.)

George Alfred Townsend is a master's thesis in English which has been privately printed by the author. It reveals a definite talent for searching out the little known facts which contribute so much to the biographer or historian's treatment of his subject. Apparently most of the likely sources have been examined and a good deal has been uncovered on this lesser known contemporary of John Hay and Henry M. Stanley. To the author, Townsend is of primary interest as a Delaware poet and novelist, while from a broader viewpoint his greatest achievements may have been as a correspondent in Washington, New York, and Europe. There is much in the thesis which teases the imagination and it is hoped that the author will pursue her subject into the larger subject of Townsend's place in American journalism. Careful polishing of the style and careful editing of the manuscript would have improved the whole.

University of Pennsylvania
R. Jean Brownlee

Cultural historians will be delighted to hear that a new publication has appeared which will provide information in the field of the history of medicine. The *Journal of the History of Medicine and the Allied Sciences* was begun in January, 1946, and will be published quarterly by Henry Schuman. The *Journal* is edited by Dr. George Rosen, the well-known medical historian, who is assisted by Erwin H. Ackerknecht, Max H. Fisch, John F. Fulton and Josiah C. Trent. An impressive board of American and foreign consulting editors has been chosen to deal with contributions in their respective fields. The first issue consists of 183 pages of articles and reviews, a likely indication of what is to come. An imposing format adds to the attractiveness of the magazine.

The keynote of the new publication is sounded by Dr. Rosen in his editorial opening the series, "What is Past, is Prologue." The purpose of the *Journal* is to provide knowledge of what has been done in medicine in the past to the public, to physicians, and to historians in general. In the prospectus, the editors remind the medical profession that often successful methods have been employed in historic times, then ignored or forgotten, only to be rediscovered recently. One of the functions of the *Journal* is to recall these older methods and theories, in order to save the profession the trouble of having to do again what has already been done. Somewhere hidden in the volumes of medical literature published since ancient times may be clues to the solution of present medical problems. Unpublished manuscripts may present new outlooks on old puzzles. The *Journal of the History of Medicine*, therefore, is more than a descriptive historical bulletin. It is a magazine of applied history—providing a new purpose for historical studies.

University of Pennsylvania
Phyllis Allen
In his latest publication, Paul Wallace turns from the mature Iroquois League of Conrad Weiser's day to the period and circumstances of its birth in the mid-sixteenth century, or earlier. Although much is known of the later history of the Confederacy, the tradition of its genesis has for generations been told only within the confines of the Long House. In recent years, however, officials of the League have allowed the Deganawidah legend to be set down in writing, and the several versions have now been combined by Doctor Wallace in a narrative of great power and wisdom.

When the Dutch and French arrived in the early seventeenth century, they found the original members of the League largely confined, in territory and influence, to the limits of northern New York State. Within the space of a few generations, however, the Five Nations conquered a number of the adjacent tribes, and brought the remainder under the jurisdiction of the Confederacy. During this period and later, the Iroquois attempted repeatedly to establish amicable relations with the French but to no avail. The five confederated tribes then allied themselves with the British, thereby profoundly affecting the future history of the New World.

The power of the Iroquois Confederacy was based less upon military force, although that was considerable, than upon statesmanship and a deep understanding of the principles of peace. League leadership, in turn, was implemented by a deep-rooted will to peace among the common people. "The peace incentive," according to the author, "was a complex thing, rooted in many motives, chief of which were three: the example of the two culture heroes; a unique interpretation of the meaning of peace itself; and a set of symbols that seized the imagination and so gave interpretation and example a power to drive the human will."

The native account of the founding of the League is embodied in the legend of Deganawidah. Sent on earth by the Master of Life to bring peace to mankind, Deganawidah and his spokesman, Hiawatha, after overcoming many obstacles, induced the warring Mohawks, Oneidas, Onondagas, Cayugas and Senecas to adopt their scheme of confederation. The concept of peace taught by the two culture heroes was not a negative thing, the mere absence of war or the interval between wars. Rather peace was the law. Peace "was thought of and spoken of in terms of its component elements; as Health and Reason (soundness of body and sanity of mind), Law (justice codified to meet individual cases), and Authority (which gives confidence that justice will prevail)."

The power and permanence of the Confederacy was made real to the Iroquois through the symbol of the Great White Pine. In brief, the tree signified the law (the constitution), which expressed the terms of their union. Its branches represented the protection found in union under the shadow of the law. The roots signified the extension of the law to embrace all mankind. The eagle, perched at the top, symbolized the vigilance by
which the League must be defended. Finally, the cavern beneath the roots represented the place in which the weapons of war would be cast, and the Tree of the Great Peace replaced over it.

This beautiful little book on the scheme of union devised so long ago by preliterate statesmen in the forests of the Northeast, provides stimulating reading to all thoughtful persons of today. May they, as did the reviewer, derive from it renewed hope for the planting of another Tree of the Great Peace, beneath whose branches the nations of the modern world can gather in security and concord.

Harrisburg, Pennsylvania

C. E. Schaeffer

(Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania Press, 1946. viii, 226 p. $2.50.)

Probably within a year the two-hundred-inch telescope at Mt. Palomar, California, will be in operation, the latest stage in an evolution begun in 1783. It was then that the first real astronomical observatory in the United States was erected on a plot at the northwest corner of Seventh and Arch Streets in Philadelphia by David Rittenhouse. Yet so little is generally known of the work of this great scientist and statesman that the recent third edition of Edward Pendray’s excellent Men, Mirrors and Stars, which devotes considerable space to an instrumental history of American astronomy, still fails to mention Rittenhouse and erroneously credits the short-lived observatory at the University of North Carolina, built in 1831, as the first in the United States.

As the literature on Rittenhouse has been limited and widely scattered, many writers have neglected him. In 1932, the two hundredth anniversary of his birth was celebrated in Philadelphia under the auspices of The Historical Society of Pennsylvania and other groups. There was an exhibition of Rittenhouse material and a series of meetings at which various papers were presented. Despite the plans made to publish these papers and the availability of funds, the book has never appeared.

At last, 150 years after his death in 1796, an adequate biography of Rittenhouse has been issued as one of the admirable Pennsylvania Lives of the University of Pennsylvania Press. In writing it, Mr. Ford has gone to many sources, which are listed in a bibliographical note that gives some indication of the labor he has put upon it.

American history contains the records of many men who, self-educated, have reached positions of prominence; the career of David Rittenhouse is as remarkable as any. He was born and raised on a farm in the township of Norriton, Pennsylvania, where his parents tried to teach him the ways of farming. Perhaps the greatest influence on young David was an uncle for whom he was named and from whom, at the age of twelve, he inherited
a fine chest of tools and some books, including an English translation of the first book of Newton’s *Principia*. This seems to have aroused his interest in astronomy and science. When he was seventeen, his father wisely gave up the effort to make him into a farmer and helped set him up in his own shop as a clockmaker.

Forty of his clocks are extant, ranging from simple one-day affairs to the elaborate George W. Childs clock at Drexel Institute. An even finer example of his mechanical skill is the orrery which he built for the University of Pennsylvania and which became one of the most famous sights of colonial Philadelphia. When this was restored in the Franklin Institute in 1932, it accurately indicated the total solar eclipse of August of that year.

But Rittenhouse was much more than a mechanic and instrument maker. He surveyed the boundaries of Pennsylvania, and was called to settle the old controversy concerning the New York-Massachusetts boundary. As an astronomer, he made important observations of comets, eclipses, and the transit of Venus. Even before the birth of Fraunhofer, to whom the credit is usually given, he discovered the principle of the diffraction grating.

In the stirring times in which he lived, he served when needed. Engineer of public works during the American Revolution, an active Whig, member of the assembly, trustee of the Loan Office and state treasurer, he also became the first director of the United States Mint, professor of astronomy, vice-provost and trustee of the University of Pennsylvania, president of the American Philosophical Society (succeeding Franklin and preceding Jefferson) and a Fellow of the Royal Society. All this was accomplished in spite of a natural shyness and generally poor health.

Mr. Ford has given us a well-rounded picture of this versatile genius, who emerges from his book as a human being for all his greatness. It seems unfortunate that the edition is limited to one thousand copies, for Rittenhouse should be far better known.

Schenectady, New York

JAMES STOKLEY

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When Governor Edward Martin issued a Proclamation calling all citizens to honor the founder of the commonwealth and the city of Philadelphia on the three hundredth anniversary of his birth, when a special Tercentenary Committee was appointed to take action, and when the general assembly of the commonwealth adopted a resolution pledging its faith in carrying

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1 Copies may be had on application to The Commission.
out the plans for the Tercentenary observance, only the enthusiasts could vision the far-reaching extent to which Penn’s birthday would be celebrated.

To that committee were appointed a dozen Pennsylvanians. The chairman was the president of The Historical Society of Pennsylvania, three other members were vice-presidents, and another a councilor of The Society. Their office was established in The Society’s building. Close cooperation was maintained with and received from the Department of Public Instruction and The Pennsylvania Historical and Museum Commission. A host of volunteers sprang up to make the Tercentenary truly great and significant.

Now that it is all past and gone it is wholly good and satisfying to know that we have in print a memorial and a record entirely worthy of this historic event. Those who say "Let us now praise famous men. And our fathers who begat us" will find in these two volumes much more than idle praise. For Founder Penn is one of the giants who walked across the stage of history. A study of him yields rich rewards. If it were not so it would not have been possible to produce such historically creative works as may be found in the pages of these two excellent books.

The memorial volume is a pot-pourri delineating the man, his religion, his contributions to the struggle for freedom, his political ideas, his approach to the American Indians, his concerns most modern in import, with a plentiful selection from his voluminous writings. Not the least valuable part of the book are the seventy-three illustrations, many of them rare and all of them useful for both reader and student.

For the record it is most praiseworthy of the Tercentenary Committee to conclude its work with an account of what happened in the tercentenary year and most especially on the date of the anniversary itself. Those who attended the various events will always remember them. Here is speech-making at its best brought to life in a book that enables everyone to relive the memories of the occasion. No finer array of British and American citizens and public servants could be collected to do honor to William Penn. He himself would approve these two books and approve their being placed in prominent places in every man’s library.

Overbrook, Philadelphia

RICHMOND PEARSON MILLER

War Years with Jeb Stuart. By Lieut. Colonel W. W. BLACKFORD, C.S.A. Introduction by Douglas Southall Freeman. (New York: Charles Scribner’s Sons, 1945. xvi, 322 p. Illustrated. $3.00.)

Although it is over eighty years since the surrender at Appomattox the publication of memoirs, war letters, and biographical studies constantly attests the interest and fascination which the American Civil War has for readers throughout the country. Colonel Blackford’s fresh and interesting War Years with Jeb Stuart is no exception.
William Willis Blackford, a native Virginian, was thirty years old when the struggle began. He was then associated with his father-in-law, Governor Wyndham Robertson, in the business of mining the material for plaster of Paris. Though opposed to slavery and secession, Blackford, convinced that trouble was coming, "took active steps to raise a cavalry company" in the neighborhood in which he lived. He says that this was done "after the John Brown affair," but gives the date of his commission as a lieutenant of cavalry as April 28, 1859, six months before the raid. He voted against secession, but after the call of the Governor of Virginia for troops, he took his stand "with the South in her mad scheme, right or wrong." Soon afterward his troop marched to Richmond where it became a part of the First Virginia Cavalry commanded by Lieutenant Colonel J. E. B. Stuart.

Just before the first battle of Bull Run, Blackford became regimental adjutant and several months later was promoted to the rank of captain and assumed command of his company. In the spring of 1862, because of a reorganization of the army and because he could not "solicit votes among the private soldiers" Blackford lost his commission, but was at once commissioned a captain of Engineers and soon afterward was assigned to duty on Stuart's staff in which capacity he remained until the winter of 1863-64, when he was promoted to major and later lieutenant colonel and assigned to the newly constituted First Engineer Regiment.

Throughout his military career Blackford served in Virginia, participating in all important battles from the first Bull Run to Appomattox, with the exception of Chancellorsville, from which he was absent on account of sickness. His long service as a member of Stuart's official family gave him intimate glimpses of the near and the great who called at cavalry headquarters. As a result we have several striking portraits of Lee, Jackson, and Stuart. A. P. Hill is hardly mentioned; Longstreet, apparently not friendly, is characterized "as a man of limited capacity who acquired a reputation for wisdom by never saying anything." Jackson in his "threadbare, faded, semi-military suit, with a disreputable old V.M.I. cap drawn down over his eyes" that, however, "lit up on occasions with great expression" presented "a strong contrast to the dashing appearance and splendid mount of Stuart and his staff, all in full Confederate gray uniforms, cocked felt hats with long black plumes, and high cavalry boots."

The author had the average civilian soldier's antipathy to West Pointers, basing his attitude largely on clashes or disagreements with individual graduates and without giving any credit to the great majority who performed satisfactorily and without considering the more frequent failures of civilian soldiers. His argument against West Pointers is perhaps epitomized in his statement: "To a man of real talent such an education for war is certainly an advantage, but the trouble is that it makes many men of moderate ability so conceited that when placed in positions of responsibility nothing will convince them that they can act unwisely." He supports his argument by declaring: "Lee would have been a great general without
West Point . . . and so with Stuart, Jackson and others . . . ." The fact remains, however, that West Pointers ever since the Mexican War, where many of them served in subordinate capacities with distinction, have been in the van of American military leadership. Such training is not a \textit{sine qua non} of success, but experience has proved that the products of West Point have set a high standard of performance.

Blackford served with Stuart until the early part of 1864, when he became a full-fledged engineer officer. After that his life "was a quiet one in comparison to that (he) had previously led, but pleasant enough." It so continued until Appomattox. The book ends with an account of the author's return home after the surrender.

An introduction to this book by Dr. D. S. Freeman includes a biographical sketch of Blackford and some information on the history of the writing and preparation of the manuscript which is here printed for the first time. Dr. Freeman thinks it was written about 1896, some thirty years after the events narrated, but "the precision of statement and unpremeditated clarity of detail suggest a date of composition considerably prior." In any case this vivid, interesting, and vital account of the author's experiences and contacts during his military service in Virginia constitutes a valuable addition to the long shelf of books relating to the War between the States.

The book concludes with an appendix containing a "Roster of Stuart's Staff" and a "Roster" of the Engineer troops of the Confederacy. There is a good index, together with several illustrations and "A Pocket Map used by General Stuart."

\textit{Locust Valley, New York} \hspace{1cm} \textit{Thomas Robson Hay}