
This book concerns the course of the American Revolution from 1774 to July, 1776, as seen from the Philadelphia halls in which sat the Continental Congress. It is the effort of a successful writer of fiction to bring to the service of history her very considerable gift of style and her sense of dramatic line. For Miss Meigs the protagonists in the conflict were those seeking independence—those usually referred to by historians as the radicals, by the author as the “violent” men. “‘New Hampshire, Connecticut, Massachusetts, and Virginia... are what we call violent and suspected of independency.’ To stand as a small minority against the natural timidity, against the distrust of change, against the clinging to security which dominated the minds of the majority; to feel the new pressure of liberty and freedom as it crowded an age of selfish conservatism; to be forward-looking in a time of confusion and hopeful in the face of temptation to despair—that is what it was, in the years 1774, 1775, and 1776, to be a ‘violent’ man.” The book, therefore, is designed perhaps even more as a reappraisal of men before the test of articles of faith—the Declaration of Independence—than a chronicle of events.

Accordingly, the author has placed stress on the decisive interplay of personalities. The Galloway Plan failed in part because of the overweening vanity of its author. The early formation of the Lee-Adams alliance demonstrated the reduction of dissimilar characters beneath the white heat of the ideal of liberty. The cause of independence forced acceptance of the intellect of the shabby and inarticulate Samuel Adams.

It is a story well worth telling and one that in many respects Miss Meigs has told well. But when did the violent men start to drive for independence? The first conclusive evidence the author gives is John Adams’ outburst in the summer of 1775. Were the radicals so sure of their stand in the spring of 1774, or were they not driven more rapidly—or more violently—than their fellows by the course of events? Furthermore, the clash of opinion in those opening years did not revolve only about independence, and, while Miss Meigs brings in many another event, yet I feel there has hardly been attained the full measure of balance that would come from a fuller statement of the other issues. And I find it disturbing that the bibliography of a book on this topic should omit Merrill Jensen’s Articles of Confederation.
For many readers, Miss Meigs has probably done well to drive her theme onward with such single-minded purpose. But I fear that the specialist will be disappointed, for I learned very little from my reading.

_Beverly McAnear_  
State Teachers College  
New Paltz, N. Y.

_Captain Dauntless. The Story of Nicholas Biddle of the Continental Navy._ By _William Bell Clark._ (Baton Rouge: Louisiana State University Press, 1949. xii, 317 p. Illustrations, appendices, bibliography, index. $4.50.)

The great historical respect paid to the memory of John Paul Jones has overshadowed the careers of other able officers of the Continental Navy. It is doubtful if, even in Philadelphia, the career of Nicholas Biddle is familiar to more than a few people. Yet the career of this officer, who died in battle on March 7, 1778—at the age of 27—when the frigate _Randolph_ under his command blew up during an engagement with the British ship of the line _Yarmouth_, deserves remembrance, and William Bell Clark has performed a valuable service by reconstructing his life. Born in Philadelphia in 1750, Biddle went to sea at fifteen, and at twenty had a midshipman’s warrant in the Royal Navy. Having gone to England in hope of seeing active service, he contrived to join Captain Constantine John Phipps’ polar expedition in 1773, although he was obliged to volunteer as a seaman in order to do so. As coxswain of the gig of His Majesty’s bomb ketch _Carcass_ during slow progress through Arctic ice, Biddle served with the future Lord Nelson, then a sixteen-year-old midshipman. When the news of the Boston Tea Party reached London, Nicholas Biddle returned his midshipman’s warrant to the Admiralty, and embarked for Philadelphia; at the outbreak of the Revolution he placed his services at the disposal of the Continental Congress. As commander of the row galley _Franklin_ and the brig _Andrew Doria_, Biddle’s accomplishments won him a captain’s commission and assignment to the Continental frigate _Randolph_. In that command, while attacking a far larger adversary, he lost his life.

Mr. Clark, although a private scholar writing in the scant hours left from a successful business career, has combed the documentary sources of the Revolutionary Navy with a thoroughness that could hardly be equalled by a historian free from other obligations. During the past twenty-five years he has acquired an unrivaled knowledge of the manuscripts and newspapers bearing upon his chosen field, as can readily be seen from his biographies of Lambert Wickes (Yale University Press, 1932) and John Barry (Macmillan, 1938). In attacking a new subject, however, Mr. Clark is always indefatigable in searching for new sources, and with Nicholas Biddle he has both found and used them.

Added to his passion for precise documentation, Mr. Clark has a desire to tell his story in a readable manner. It is a problem to do this when recon-
structing the life of an active officer who left few literary remains, but Mr. Clark succeeds in holding his reader's interest without having recourse to unfounded invention. His statements are meticulously supported by chapter and verse, cited unostentatiously in numerous footnotes at the end of the volume. The general reader may stick to the narrative if he likes, but the scholarly apparatus is there for anyone who wishes to check a statement or pursue the subject further. Captain Dauntless is a first-rate book for the specialist; it is equally good for the layman who wants an evening's entertainment. The Louisiana State University Press is to be congratulated for a sound and attractive piece of bookmaking, and Mr. Clark for a scholarly job well done. Let us hope that he will have the time to continue to add to his gallery of Revolutionary naval portraits, for there is no doubt that he has the resources.

Boston, Mass. WALTER MUIR WHITEHILL

Chief Justice John Marshall and the Growth of the Republic. By DAVID LOTH.
(New York: W. W. Norton & Company, Inc., 1949. 395 p. Frontispiece, bibliography, index. $5.00.)

The first and perhaps the last question that is apt to occur to the reader of Mr. Loth's latest book, Chief Justice John Marshall, is "why?" The motives that prompt the writing of many contemporary books are obscure, but few can be as elusive as those that have moved Mr. Loth to turn out this amiable nonentity about the greatest interpreter of the American Constitution.

Albert Beveridge's biography, while not without faults, is a vast and painstaking work of scholarship. The author's love and admiration for the great Justice give animation and excitement to his lengthy, often turgid, and thoroughly partisan biography.

If Mr. Loth has any particular affection for Marshall, it fails to show through his lucid but undistinguished prose. If he intends to present a new interpretation of Marshall or a new assessment of him in light of present attitudes, he fails there, too. If his purpose is simply a discreet condensation, his effort is as successful as any such undertaking can be. Perhaps this biography is written merely on the assumption, doubtless a sound one, that people will no longer read a work in four volumes.

On the credit side, it must be acknowledged that Mr. Loth has a certain felicity of style. He tells an unaffected and palatable story with a journalist's adroit eye for touches of color and human interest, adding succinct and trenchant character sketches which give a not-to-be underrated sense of life and movement. This would hardly be cause for comment were it not for the fact that such traits are comparatively rare among professional historians, who are content to write obscurely and often badly for each other and leave the layman to the rather dubious devices of the "popularizers."
Those admirers of John Marshall, then, who desire a readable, not-too-long biography of the Chief Justice, without the definitive, scholarly detail of Senator Beveridge, will find in Mr. Loth’s volume a pleasant narrative of the high points of Marshall’s career.

Cambridge, Mass.

Page Smith


Writers of textbooks on the westward movement frequently show signs of puzzlement as to where they should begin and end, and as to what events in between should be included and what left to the general textbooks. This reviewer believes that a textbook should include far more material than can ever be treated in class, and so is delighted with the coverage of the book under discussion. Unlike several others, it begins at the beginning—1492—and ends with the agrarian crusade of 1896. In addition to the usual subject matter of histories of the westward movement, it includes the white penetration of the Atlantic coast and the precarious struggle for an English foothold against French, Spaniards, and Indians; traces the division of the West among the sections; gives more than usual attention to antebellum Kansas and Utah and their significance; follows the advance of “the sod-house frontier”; analyzes the role of wheat; and examines the causes of the agrarian revolt—surely as truly a part of the westward movement as the Whiskey Insurrection, which, curiously enough, has been omitted.

One particularly noteworthy feature is Billington’s careful attention to land speculation and its effects on settlement and politics. He goes far toward filling the need for a history of the United States from the standpoint of real-estate promotion. On the other hand he pays less attention to the merely picturesque than does, say, Riegel, but cuts to the meat of the subject; there may, indeed, be some complaint that there is too little portrayal of social life in his pages. Marginal captions would have been of great aid, but they seem to have gone out of style in recent texts. The maps are a joy to behold—it is the first time this reviewer remembers seeing a textbook with enough of them. There are a few errors on them, but these will doubtless be corrected. The bibliography is in essay form and, though not primarily critical, is the most adequate yet to appear on the subject. It covers seventy-five double-columned, closely printed pages.

Billington’s work is fundamentally of the conservative pattern, a collection of facts and of inescapable deductions. The Turner Hypothesis, of course, furnishes the approach as set forth in the first chapter, and there is a sound analysis in the last chapter of the continuing effect of the West. Nevertheless, this reviewer believes that the value of the text would have been enhanced by a bolder critique of the ideas not only of Turner, but of others like Webb, Shannon, and Malin. Perhaps not all students would or could understand this critique, but it would have aided the more serious.
The above is a personal view; perhaps the author's decision was wise. At any rate the organization, coverage, and clarity of the book are such that the statement might be risked that the job of synthesizing the history of the westward movement is done until much more evidence has been uncovered.

University of Pittsburgh

LELAND D. BALDWIN


The American renaissance of the second quarter of the nineteenth century was a crusade for the individual, his right to be free and to perfect his institutions. These years belonged to the American reformer, and his activities touched many phases of social betterment—education, temperance, universal peace, prison reform, the rights of women, and the abolition of slavery. Women as well as men felt the urge toward humanitarian reform, and they shared also the aspirations of the perfectionist era. These strong-minded women, as their contemporaries jeeringly described the pioneers, were for the most part products of New England or the one-generation remove from New England to New York, Pennsylvania, or Ohio; Quaker and Calvinist training gave them a keen sense of social responsibility.

As Mrs. Thorp points out, “the woman who wanted to help the world found that she must fight it first.” Freedom for woman, as a cause, was a by-product of woman’s interest in freedom for mankind. Catherine Beecher's Treatise on Domestic Economy reflected her belief that homemaking was woman’s profession, the divine plan for her sex. One of the first woman editors in the country, Jane G. Swisshelm, published abolition papers, first in Pennsylvania, then in Minnesota, and defied local political bosses. Amelia Bloomer, whose name is usually associated with dress reform and The Lily, won her greatest fame throughout the West as a lecturer on woman's rights and temperance. A respectable literary lady, Grace Greenwood, was devoted to no single cause, but rather wrote propaganda for every cause in the columns of The New York Times and the Saturday Evening Post. Another literary lady, Lydia Maria Child, followed her husband into the antislavery movement. In opposition to these five women stood Louisa S. McCord of South Carolina, poetess and defender of Southern institutions.

Against the background of the thirties and forties Mrs. Thorp has written a delightful account of six women who affected important issues of their time. Her subject matter lends itself to exciting narrative, for so much of the story of the female propagandist is told in her own words. Mrs. Thorp has carefully selected and skillfully blended autobiography and propaganda into a warm, glowing story of six pioneers.

Students of American history of the period from the War of 1812 to the turbulent 1850’s are well aware of the usefulness of Niles’ Weekly Register for the study of all phases of this era. They can now find in this book by Dr. Luxon, Professor of Journalism at Ohio State University, a helpful description and evaluation of the weekly periodical which for a good part of the nineteenth century registered “The Past—The Present—For the Future” of American life. Perhaps they will not be surprised, but they will be impressed with the extent (as detailed in the last chapter) to which American historians have relied on this source. The volume, based on the author’s doctoral dissertation presented at the University of California at Los Angeles, covers the entire life of the Register under its four editors, from its inception in 1811 to its end in 1849. In many ways the book may be regarded as the story of the life and editorial labor of Hezekiah Niles, editor for the greater part of the period, and the one who made the Register what it was—but what it ceased to be after his retirement from his editorial duties in 1836. Of special importance in this work are the discussions of the editorial and news policies of the editors, the importance of the periodical in the formation of contemporary opinion, and the manner in which the leading questions of the day—the tariff, banking, political affairs, relations with England and Latin America, the West, internal improvements, and slavery—were treated. The uniqueness of the Register in that day of personal journalism is consistently made clear by analyses of its comparative impartiality in the political contests of the day, the absence of advertising from its pages, its extensive coverage of the news and the inclusion of much authentic documentary material. Dr. Luxon clearly distinguishes two main periods in the Register’s editorial policy: that before 1832 when Hezekiah Niles was a strong champion of the principles of the American System and the leading journalistic opponent of the congressional caucus method of nominating presidential candidates, and that after 1832 when the periodical was noted more as an impartial reporter of the events of the day.

Professor Luxon’s analysis of the more than seventy volumes of the Register has enabled him to present a survey of use to readers with diverse interests. The social historian may learn (if not already aware of the fact) of the wealth of material available for his use. The general reader will find a story of interest which will furnish background for more ponderous volumes. The student of the growth of American nationalism will recognize clearly that the Register is a factor of real importance to his study. The neophyte to the mysteries of research in American history can spend time profitably with the chapter on “The Register and the Historian” and with the “Critical Essay on Authorities” before going on to the sources. For all readers, the book will suggest the desirability of appraising the role in American life of the weekly news magazine as such, be it the Register of
the nineteenth century or those to which Americans a century later are exposed fifty-two times a year. While not consistently readable, this book is a desirable addition both to the history of American journalism and to the general history of the United States.

Muhlenberg College

JOHN J. REED


One of the most fascinating paradoxes in American history is the coincidence of the termination of the era of quantity immigration (a conscious expression of a national attitude through Congressional action) with the last years of American isolationism (an unconscious fading-out provoked by necessities on a global scale). Already a quarter of a century separates us from the last melting-pot year, 1924; this is hardly realized. The study of the melting-pot immigrant falls now into the lap of the historian, who, in turn, has to rely heavily on sociological approach and research, e.g., on such eminent works as those of Professor Davie. This is a challenge in integrated study, far beyond the scope of an ancillary enterprise.

The attitude of historians toward the immigrants is in itself highly interesting, as Professor Saveth recently showed in his American Historians and European Immigrants, 1875–1925 (New York, 1948). Their interest in immigration was generated, developed, and explained from the bird’s-eye view of social and racial challenge and response, which led to generalizations on one side and, on the other, to the neglect of areas and years which were less interesting from a purely historical standpoint. This explains the relative scarcity of works dealing, for example, with the nonpioneering immigrants in the first half of the nineteenth century. An integrated study of the urbane immigrant in America (Boston) was made by Oscar Handlin in 1941, and now Robert Ernst has written an excellent monograph about New York. He has limited his work to immigrant life on Manhattan Island from the opening of the Erie Canal to the period of the draft riots; these limitations are explained in the preface. From a purely egoistic viewpoint, this reviewer deplores the fact that the interesting description carried him only to about half of the volume, but the researchers will undoubtedly reap the rich advantages of the other half, with nine appendices, statistical tables, notes and an admirably exhaustive bibliography.

1825–1863 was the era of Irish, British, Western and Central European immigration. Only a small number of Southern and Eastern European immigrants came before 1863; the stream of “the wretched refuse of [the] teeming shore,” recently exalted in a musical comedy, became wide, turgid, and undiluted only later on. The broad evidence of Robert Ernst’s book indicates the relative fortunes of those who came later. By that time the
country was bigger and New York City more bearable. There were better tenements; there was more public security and less suffering and desperation. This was not the result of mere filiopietism, nor was it due only to the static pressure which immigration was producing upon the body of American society, but rather to the capillary effects of a strange and mixed zeal prevalent among the leading men and women of that society: the striving for technical reform and idealistic philanthropy. Ernst describes how these altruistic efforts originated before the 1860's and contributed immeasurably not only to the technical, but also to the spiritual assimilation of the immigrant. One of the few Europeans who really know America well, “O’Leary” [Erik von Kühnelt-Lehddin, Die Urväter Amerikas (Vienna, 1949), wrote recently:

We should not forget that [the immigrants’] hard and often painful procedure of assimilation and transformation . . . interrupted by a bitter Civil War, helped us here in the Old World to get over threatening cliffs; for it is not easy even to imagine what dangers and revolutions this population surplus would have wrought, what climaxes social despair would have reached, had America not opened her Golden Door.

_Chestnut Hill College_  
 JOHN A. LUKÁCS

_Protestant Churches and Industrial America_. By Henry F. May. (New York: Harper and Brothers, 1949. x, 297 p. Bibliography, index. $3.50.)

The social attitudes of the late nineteenth-century American churches have received considerable attention from historians in recent years, but no one has provided as comprehensive and incisive an account as has Professor May in this important book. It is safe to assume that many of his conclusions will remain worthy of close examination by students for some time to come.

May finds that the full impact of industrialism upon the Protestant consciousness and conscience occurred during the years 1877–1895. It was chiefly the great labor conflicts of the time that “shocked” many Protestants out of their complacency and made them aware of the irrelevance of their traditional individualistic morality and piety under the new conditions. The consequence was the appearance during these years of three distinct schools of Social Christianity—conservatives who viewed the new conditions with alarm, progressive Social Gospellers, and radical Christian Socialists. The second of these schools rightly receives the major share of May’s attention.

The Social Gospellers were middle-class reformers who, although aroused by industrial conflict rather than by more abstract conditions, never formulated a Christian social philosophy which came to grips with class conflict. May appears to regard this as an indication of superficiality, although he makes more extensive claims than has any previous student for the pioneer role of progressive Christian thought in stimulating the social-reform move-
ments of the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries. The Christian Socialists, because of their very radicalism, exerted little influence.

The intellectual transformation accomplished by Social Christianity was the more remarkable because of the historical background from which it emerged. In a long introductory examination of Protestant social thinking during the mid-century years, 1828-1876, May indicates the complete dominance over the religious mind, in both pulpit and college, of the traditional Protestant ethic in its most doctrinaire form, reinforced by a rather rigid application of the English classical laissez-faire formulas. He assumes that American society in this period was essentially secular, that its ideals received most adequate expression in the Jeffersonian and Jacksonian movements, and that the Protestant churches allied themselves with the social conservatives in resisting the implications of this emerging secularism.

One is tempted to enter many reservations to these conclusions. Nor do they help to explain May's admission that in the post-Civil War period the churches responded as early as any other group to the industrial crisis. Certainly one of the most significant features of May's work is his conclusion that no sociology of Protestant churches can be elaborated which will correlate their social attitudes with their theological positions. Yet his repeated references to theological liberals, conservatives, and evangelicals seem to imply such correlations, and in at least one passage it is clearly assumed (p. 29 ff.). These criticisms refer only to the widest frame of reference within which Professor May places his problem. Readers who feel that the functions of theological and denominational diversity in determining social attitudes remain to be clarified will nevertheless be grateful for the exceedingly comprehensive and judicious analysis of Social Christianity which Professor May has provided.

Princeton University

Stow Persons


The publication of a group of papers such as those here offered is always awaited with a certain amount of expectation, regardless of the actual or assumed knowledge of their contents. When Robert T. Lincoln died in 1926, he left the vast collection of his father's papers to the public in the custody of the Library of Congress, with the stipulation that they were not to be opened until twenty-one years after his death. Now that the Papers have been opened and two of the planned five volumes are published, we find nothing sensational, but much of interest and value concerning the details of Lincoln's life previous to his inauguration, and of the first four months of his presidency. The Papers bring him closer and emphasize the pressure, the
vast detail, and the trivia to which a President of the United States is subjected. Of the total of 18,000 items in the collection—nearly twice as many as were anticipated—about 4,500 were examined, from which the selections in these volumes were made.

The Papers are introduced by an excellent description of their general content, of their previous use by Nicolay and Hay in the preparation of their History of Lincoln, of the comments and criticisms of students of Lincoln and of others on the earlier use of the Papers, and of the extent of Robert Lincoln’s editing.

The editor of these Papers, Dr. David C. Mearns of the Library of Congress, examines in some detail the charges that Robert Lincoln burned papers which he considered likely to cause bitterness because of their contents, and that he purged the collection of other letters which he considered desirable to keep from the public knowledge. Dr. Mearns reaches the conclusion that if any papers were burned, none of any importance were so destroyed. He states what is common knowledge—Robert Lincoln’s withdrawal and probable destruction of “President Lincoln’s letters to and from his family,” particularly those to and from Mrs. Lincoln.

Dr. Mearns does not believe that any letters of importance which constituted the Lincoln Papers were withheld, although it was known “that some documents were withdrawn by Robert Lincoln for use as gifts.” Discussing the efforts of the late Senator A. J. Beveridge to see the impounded Papers, Dr. Mearns states that Beveridge was denied use of the Papers because he planned to use the Herndon items. Because of this fact, Robert Lincoln believed that anything Beveridge might write “would be tainted, tawdry and grotesque.”

Whatever their omissions and limitations, the Papers here published will be welcomed by all students of President Lincoln and his career. They do not answer any such questions as the legitimacy of Lincoln’s mother, but they will help to fill in many obscure details and give much information regarding Lincoln’s personality.

More than half the first volume is given over to an account of how the Lincoln Papers came to be, and of Robert Lincoln’s custody and trusteeship of them. This is followed by Lincoln’s autobiography, compiled from the “original autograph M.S.,” and by the notes from which William Dean Howells in 1860 prepared his biography of President Lincoln. The first letter to Lincoln is dated May 26, 1847; the last is dated July 6, 1861. The letters here printed, with few exceptions, are addressed to Lincoln. There is no indication as to whether there are any letters, prior to May 26, 1847, that are unpublished. The criteria of selection or omission is not indicated. Occasionally, a brief introductory description of the writers of letters is included, but there are no footnote citations. The letters are printed in chronological order, but there is no calendar. There is an index.

Locust Valley, N. Y. Thomas Robson Hay


American art and artists have been gaining increasing favor as subjects for descriptive and more or less critical works in the expanding study of American life. Last fall two such books were published; their only common feature—an American artist.

James T. Flexner's *John Singleton Copley* is a delightful book to all, perhaps, but the critic or the serious student of art seeking an analysis of Copley's technique and a more careful appraisal of his position in the larger ranks of Artists. In the hand, the volume is a fine specimen of bookmaking which will find its place on the shelves of the general art and book lover. Mr. Flexner's sketch of Copley, furthermore, is good reading, nondefinitive though it is in its discussion of Copley both as a man and as an artist. It is essentially a layman's book.

John Singleton Copley was a man of his times; his life, even as an expatriate, was indissolubly a part of eighteenth-century America. As America's greatest "colonial" painter, his American portraits are unquestionably the finest of his works and were done before he left forever his own land to share in the prevailing modes of European art. Copley's genius lay not so much in the untutored technique of his American effort, but rather in the character insight which counterbalanced this want. Copley labored consciously to stifle this native genius in the interests of accepted, contemporary procedure, an endeavor in which he was ultimately successful. This is not to belittle his English painting, which is among the best of the period, but rather to point up those qualities which today mark Copley as a creative pioneer. Mr. Flexner has placed his subject in the historical context of his era, and uses the events and currents of the time to explain and substantiate Copley's own personality and attitudes.

One wishes that the illustrations to which the text continually refers were in color, for, as Flexner stresses, the use of color was one of the outstanding features of this first great American painter.

The second of these volumes on American artists, Loyd Haberly's *Pursuit of the Horizon*, is the biography of George Catlin, nineteenth-century painter of Indians. It is a peculiar book in many ways. Not well written, it nevertheless holds the reader by virtue of its strange story. Its central figure, George Catlin, was not a great painter (except, perhaps, in the realm of the somewhat bizarre and in the mind of Haberly); he was a man obsessed with an idea which became a crusade, a showman, and at times a charlatan, and yet he is appealing, as are all those who devote a lifetime to a futile dream. Catlin, unlike Copley, was not truly a man of his times.
Catlin's story is a pathetic one. His transient, though periodic, success was due largely to the unusual character of his pictures and exhibits. The very novelty of his projects is underlined by his last failure, when he was unable to compete against the allure of Barnum's greater novelty, the "Greatest Show on Earth." Then, too, the American conception of the Indian was and never has been fully realistic (with the notable exception of Parkman's), as Catlin himself was forced to concede in his own embroidered, often idealistic writings and shows. His paintings alone preserved the true nature of the American Indian; and things bizarre are seldom of long, sustained interest.

Unfortunately, Catlin's paintings were not of a sufficient quality to endure in the face of insubstantial popular interest. Few know them; critics, such as Isham and Cortissoz, do not even list them or their creator in their catalogues. Catlin's portraits are often caricatures; his landscapes seem primitive and, as Haberly remarks, are occasionally like Japanese prints. Haberly is compelled to make such reservations, himself, despite his ardent championship of this forgotten crusader.

This zeal of the author's to right history's wrong to Catlin prejudices his book to a considerable extent, and, perhaps, leads him to make statements which might well be challenged. It seems rather remarkable, for example, that in 1838, "in even the wildest tribes, Penn's name was a familiar word for truth and justice and peace. Now . . . Catlin and Penn would be named together in the guttural tongues of the Rocky Mountains and the Plains." Haberly's desire to popularize his strange hero undoubtedly explains his unhappy use of certain modern comparisons, awkward analogies, and strained descriptions. Catlin is Haberly's obsession, as the Indian was Catlin's.

For all the odd contrasts in character and situation in this volume, Haberly, largely through Catlin's writings, has presented a documentary record of the nineteenth-century American Indian, his person and his life. The chapter on the Mandans is of particular interest because they are today (and were before Catlin's death) a lost tribe. But knowing Catlin, one wonders how accurate his narrative is. As an artist, Catlin can be recognized principally as a chronicler in oils. Haberly has labored lovingly for his champion of the Indian, but this reviewer finds it difficult to accept without question Catlin's greatness in any line of his endeavor.

L. V. G.