
This small volume could be reviewed adequately only in another of equal length, and with far more numerous footnotes. It is an interpretation based on vast knowledge, which no one can confute, but all will see a little differently. The author will read my interpretation and mourn, "But that is not what I intended to say." He will, with convincing authority, say different things to men of different interests.

Mr. Wall assumes that the City on the Hill was as near to being a "democratic" and "Christian" (the definitions are mine) Utopia as the best of able humans could create. It was a state which preserved the liberties of Englishmen and provided the best known form of government, a wide autocracy of learning, ability, and wealth, and piety, administered according to the will of the less able body of Freemen, which composed as large a proportion of the eligible voters as chose to exercise their elective rights in 1972.

The Puritans were fond of pointing out that no creed or confession composed by the pen of man could be perfect, and surely they recognized that the same was true of any form of government. This book deals with the complicated series of cracks which proved that more than the feet of Massachusetts were made of clay, and with the deliberate efforts to mend and to patch them.

The first strain arose from the fact that there were geographic issues between old Norfolk and Essex counties and more centralized and suburban Middlesex and Suffolk counties. The worst crisis came over the Boston decision to support the La Tour, and the Essex demand for an independent executive and half of the Colony artillery.

The second great crack appeared with a new social and economic class, including the Hutchinsons, who found their place between the Great Aristocracy and the Freemen, or electors, and strove to widen the crack in order to serve their own interests. This becomes a very complicated struggle indeed, involving, for instance, Dr. Wall's questioning Perry Miller's thesis that the clergy supported the Great Aristocracy.

The Hingham Militia case was built up all out of proportion, and some honest differences about boundaries were built up by Samuel Gorton, a shrewd and able heretic by everyone's definition but his own, and by William Vassall, who was either a sincere Presbyterian trying to reform
the Congregational way, or an entirely selfish demagogue. Dr. Wall entirely rewrites our understanding of these differences. In the end, the rejection of the Remonstrance meant the repatching of the delegated Great Aristocracy government which was largely responsible for its incompetence when these old men faced King Philip's War.

This is a great book which those who disagree in part can ignore only at the peril of having their voices silenced for a decade. It is written with charm and clarity, and for the most part the readers are spared the pages of statistics which in some volumes destroy the narrative as a New England landslide scars the mountain side.

Shirley Center, Mass.  

Clifford K. Shipton

*Atlantic Islands: Madeira, the Azores, and the Cape Verdes in Seventeenth-Century Commerce and Navigation.* By T. Bentley Duncan. (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1972. xv, 291 p. Maps, appendixes, bibliography, index. $10.00.)

This is an important book on a little-known subject: the history and geography of the Atlantic Islands, those stepping-stones across the Western Ocean between the Old World and the New, during the colonial period (the seventeenth-century date being fortunately very loosely observed). All three groups of islands played their particular role, each in its individual fashion: for Madeira, wine; for the Cape Verdes, slaves; for the Azores, the four crossroads of the Ocean world (along with some wine and enough wheat to keep the other islands from starvation). It is difficult to say which was the most important, all were noteworthy in their own functions. But exactly why the Canary Islands, a group as consequential as all the others, should be totally omitted is by no means clear. Perhaps a second edition may rectify this oversight.

As a book the text is intensely factual. But it is well written and continues to hold the reader's interest, even though the repeated tables of statistics come to resemble a laundry list. That part which each group of islands played in the commerce between Europe, Africa, and the American colonies is well brought out at considerable length. Especially significant is the description of the trade between England and Portugal on the one hand, and the New England ports, Philadelphia, and Charleston, on the other, with Horta in the Azores as the hub of the wheel and the great entrepôt in the middle of the Atlantic Ocean. This part of the book is essential reading for any student of colonial trade and navigation.

There are several criticisms. For a slight matter dear to the reviewer's heart, perhaps not enough emphasis is given to the wonderful innovation of adding three gallons of brandy to a pipe of Madeira for the purpose of
preserving the wine during the ocean voyage, which had the further fortuitous effect of miraculously transforming an ordinary wine into one of the great wines of the world, a wine beloved by our ancestors, from George Washington down to the present reviewer's own father.

The maps are numerous and excellent, though there should be a chart of the wind systems of the North Atlantic, indicating the importance of the "Portugee Trades" which blew past the Cape Verdes to the Caribbean, and the southwesterlies blowing the homeward bound East Indiamen through the Azores.

A far more cogent criticism is the total lack of illustrations. A serious geographical work of this type must have adequate photographic illustrations of coastal profiles, of roadsteads, of towns, of varieties of architecture, and of every sort of industry and agriculture. Without a satisfactory assortment of pictures a book of this sort is only half a book. But plates cost money, and, as the present reviewer has learnt to his sorrow, the final word goes to the publisher, who is seldom a philanthropist, even though his book may suffer from his stinginess.

One final word. This book should be an essential addition to every wine-bibber's library.

Devon, Pa.

Boies Penrose


Professor Lovejoy offers much more than his title suggests. Over half the book and eleven out of the nineteen chapters narrate, as he himself asserts (p. xiii), the story of "England's American colonies in the later half of the seventeenth century." One chapter deals with the Revolution in England, two with it in New England, New York, and Maryland, two with "Resistance and Dissent" after 1689, and two with "Resettlement." Though far from "clear-cut" (p. 375), the results are summed up in the very brief "conclusion." Coverage is wide; a great deal of research has gone into it. Nowhere else can such a detailed examination of the subject be discovered.

Though the beginnings of the Carolinas and the Quaker colonies are not dwelt upon, much attention is given to the course and aftermath of Bacon's Rebellion, the struggles against proprietary pretension in Maryland, the establishment of the Dominion of New England, its extension from St. Croix to Delaware Bay, and the situation in those areas taken over from the Dutch. Professor Lovejoy manages to relate happenings in the colonies as well as in England. Sometimes the rapidity with which the
reader is whisked from one place to another is confusing. The book is easier to read quickly than to use. Jacob Leisler's ill-fated activities after the Revolution must, for example, be pieced together from parts of several chapters. A long, interesting, and learned, but, as it transpires, not very relevant account of the fortunes of Masaniello, the fisherman who led a popular uprising against the Spanish rulers of mid-seventeenth-century Naples (pp. 296–299), serves to complicate rather than to clarify the sequence of rivalry and violence in New York.

If something could have been shorn from the earlier and more familiar story, greater space could have been devoted to Professor Lovejoy's always judicious observations upon imperial theory. The rationale of Stuart absolutism in America could have been more fully discussed and compared with that behind the policies of post-Revolution administrators. In 1684, at the height of Stuart power, Lord Halifax told the Privy Council that Englishmen overseas enjoyed the same rights as those that remained at home. An absolute regime was, he thought, less likely to be stable, than one "tempered by laws" (p. 169). Such views, though not shared by Charles II and James, would have had a warm reception in the colonies. Yet they were not implemented by Whigs or Tories after 1689. Changes there were then, of course. The accession of Dutch William was welcomed as securing the Protestant religion and the rule of law. Parliament, now becoming the ultimate authority, was not apparently as anxious as the Stuarts had been to consolidate the American settlements into a unified empire, but was equally determined on economic dominion. The Admiralty Courts set up dealt with offences against the Acts of trade without recourse for offenders to common law or jury trial. Some political gains were achieved by the several colonies, largely through their own efforts, but clarification of their status along the lines of Halifax's assertion was not made. Dependency was always a potential threat. Yet by 1765 an assumption on America that the colonists were as good as the English was pretty general. Its origin, Professor Lovejoy concludes, can be found in "the struggles of the seventeenth century" (p. 378).

Bryn Mawr College  
CAROLINE ROBBINS


Not the least of Marc Bloch's contributions to history and its methodology was his insistence on a critical appraisal of the evidence. What remains for the historian to study is itself an accident of history, so it is not inappropriate in reviewing a monograph such as this to begin with some sort of analysis.
The papers under consideration comprise thirty-one personal letters and eight miscellaneous pieces. Of the latter, four are letters published in the Philosophical Transactions (London)—on Godfrey's improvement of Davis' quadrant, on lightning, on the appearance of the sun and moon near the horizon, and on experiments concerning the impregnation of the seeds of plants. The remaining four comprise two short treatises on rules for finding the foci of glasses and on spherical aberration, published in Leyden in 1739 and 1741 respectively; an essay on the generation of plants, Leyden edition in Latin 1739, London edition translated by John Fothergill, 1747; and an article on the invention of the quadrant published in Bradford's American Magazine in 1758.

James Logan came to Philadelphia in 1699 in his twenty-fifth year: he died there in 1751. The thirty-one letters are very unevenly distributed over these years: none until 1716/17; the majority, fourteen, between 1716 and 1719; four in 1727; and seven between 1736 and 1738. With regard to subject matter, fifteen deal with astronomy, one with optics, eight with mathematics, physics and Newtonian interests, and seven with botany. The majority, nineteen, are to two correspondents: twelve to Colonel Robert Hunter, Royal Governor of New York and New Jersey from 1710 to 1719, on astronomical and mathematical topics; and seven to William Jones the English mathematician, who was Vice-President of the Royal Society. The other eight correspondents are William Burnet, Royal Governor of New York from 1720 to 1728 (three); Joseph Williamson, Quaker Master of the Clockmakers Company in England (two); James' brother, William Logan in Bristol (two); Sir William Keith, Deputy Governor of Pennsylvania (one); Thomas Goldney, a Quaker botanist in Bristol (one); Alexander Arscott (one); John Bartram, the Philadelphia botanist (one); and Peter Collinson, a Quaker merchant in London (one).

Logan was an important person, so it is improbable that any major published work has gone unnoticed. The scientific correspondence, however, gives but a tantalizing glimpse of his interests and activity. The very uneven distribution in time, and, leaving aside the letters to Hunter and Jones, a letter here and a letter there to just eight other people strongly suggest we are seeing only a fragment of what once was.

From the standpoint of intellectual history in early eighteenth-century Philadelphia, these letters do little to amplify what we already know of Logan's role from his published work. In this respect they serve to illustrate and reinforce Dr. Lokken's comments in the general introduction and short statements that preface the four sections dealing with astronomy, optics, mathematics and physics, and botany. From the point of view of the history of science a study in depth evaluating Logan's work remains to be done, and the present monograph will make the task all the easier, bringing together documents from the letter books preserved in the Historical Society of Pennsylvania and reprints of the various publications.
But there were many lively and enquiring minds like Logan's in England in the latter part of the seventeenth century and throughout the eighteenth century—not professional scientists in any sense—who published a short treatise or contributed the occasional letter or paper to the Philosophical Transactions. The same is true of many of the countries on the Continent, where during the eighteenth century there was a proliferation of scientific journals. A more fundamental understanding of the nature of the Scientific Revolution and its social origins depends on tracing in detail the activities and influence of men like these.

The recent acquisition of eight hitherto unknown Logan letter books by the Historical Society of Pennsylvania, which have been used in the compilation of the forthcoming catalogue of Logan's library, raises high hopes that the tantalizing glimpse afforded by the present collection will be replaced by a more substantial record over the years of Logan's activities among his circle of scientific friends.

University of Pennsylvania

PHILIP GEORGE


To become a silversmith requires not only inherent skill but arduous training and apprenticeship as well. It is therefore surprising that over the century and two decades covered in this study there should be forty-two silversmiths known to have worked in Lancaster, Pennsylvania, a comparatively small community in that era. In addition, five more are counted from outlying areas as well as seventeen silver platers. These craftsmen are listed alphabetically in this carefully researched book with revealing details of their lives gleaned from church and tax records, wills, and inventories of their estates at death. Furthermore, six inventories are reproduced in full, indicating their way of life. They were an ingenious group for the demand for silverwork was not always enough for full-time employment; thus they are also known as lawyers, dyers, makers of clocks and even fire engines. As was true elsewhere, families often were engaged in the craft through generations, and in Lancaster such was the case with the Getzes, Halls, and Haversticks.

The author points out that the earliest work in Lancaster's silver was the fashioning of ornaments and trinkets for the Indian trade. Unfortunately, none of these are illustrated; perhaps they are all lost, although they do exist from other sources. Often, too, these items were unmarked, hence difficult to trace. But there are many illustrations accompanying the brief biographies of each smith, showing examples of his work and his
mark on a coffeepot, a tureen, creamers, bowls, and, inevitably, many spoons. In some instances certain silversmiths advertised locally but no example of their work is known.

This book is invaluable to scholars and collectors of American silver because it is so comprehensive in its treatment of the subject. In addition to its contribution to knowledge, it adds insight to life in Lancaster. Many American communities would do well to emulate the author and the Lancaster County Historical Society.

Gladwyne, Pa.                Louis C. Madeira


Tracing the partnership of Pennsylvania's two most eminent politicians during the twenty years preceding the American Revolution is a grand idea and just as large a task. In attempting to make the job manageable, Benjamin Newcomb sets out to answer several specific questions: why did Franklin and Galloway form and maintain an alliance; what methods did they use to gain and hold power; and what caused one member to become a rebel, the other a loyalist, thus dissolving the merger. The limitation of the study to "an analysis of these two men in politics," as opposed to rendering "a complete human portrait," promises to create as well as eliminate problems.

Franklin, whose every action supposedly was based on reason, believed in partnerships because a combination of talents would produce better results than separate action. The sage of Philadelphia was not above using people, and Joseph Galloway's social standing, Quaker connections, and legal knowledge would be useful. The fact that Galloway was the same age and quite friendly with William Franklin may have had some deeper (if not irrational) meaning for the father. Certainly the relationship when initiated was dependent and unequal, with Galloway (described as humorless, cold, and unbending, the victim of his temper in adversity) having much to gain from Franklin's already established reputation. It was the union of a cosmopolite and a provincial, yet the two men were united in ambition, in suitability to politics, which they viewed as a public service, in devotion to representative government—though these principles described most of their political contemporaries and probably tell us little about their friendship.

They gained power by entering politics at a propitious moment. With the provincial government immobilized by the conflict between the proprietary group and Quaker politicians (who dominated the Assembly and refused to respond to exigencies of a war-torn frontier), the partners chose the defeat of Braddock in July, 1755, as the time to put forward a moderate
defense plan coupled with an attack on the Penns' instructions to the governor. Galloway was elected to the Assembly in 1756, thanks in part to Franklin’s chicanery, where he became Franklin’s chief legislative assistant and, with Ben’s departure for England in 1757, himself the leader in a sustained battle against proprietary authority. Newcomb gives a blow-by-blow account of Pennsylvania politics over the next decade, as well as a thorough account of Franklin’s maneuvers in England (1757–1761, 1764–1775), the ironic result of their separation being that Galloway’s provincialism and single-minded devotion to antiproprietary politics attached him to royal government as a panacea, while Franklin’s long stay in England confirmed his Americanism.

Newcomb deftly charts the divergent paths of the two partners, showing (for example) how both misread the meaning of the Stamp Act but adopted moderate compromise positions on it to quell the turmoil it created; yet Franklin, with an imperial perspective, pointed to the violation of colonial rights while Galloway never doubted British authority. By 1770 Galloway’s viewpoint was so anachronistic that he had to retreat from Philadelphia to Bucks County to hold his Assembly seat; Franklin had been pursuing a course in England that was disastrous to him. The partnership could not intrude on Franklin’s defense of the American cause; indeed, there seems to be no evidence that Franklin even considered the effect of his action on Galloway. I am less surprised than Newcomb that Galloway rebuffed Franklin’s overtures for friendship when he returned in 1775 (and, again, there is a question of Franklin’s motives, since William Franklin was in Galloway’s camp on the imperial question).

At this point Newcomb frequently alludes to Galloway’s “unstable temper,” his “short temper and arrogant disposition,” where earlier he is presented as a canny politician. It is possible, even likely, that the drift of imperial affairs accentuated Galloway’s inflexibility. But Newcomb does not present convincing evidence of Galloway’s earlier virtuosity as an election strategist or legislative leader. That his last days were spent writing a religious interpretation of history, based on the book of Revelation, suggests that, despite his oratorical brilliance and the other attributes that Franklin found appealing because useful, Galloway may have been an anomaly in politics who owed his early success largely to his partner’s backing.

The strength of Newcomb’s book is in its careful delineation of the political issues which Franklin and Galloway faced and the ideological differences which resulted, thus driving them apart. It is somewhat less good in explaining the methods by which they held power in Pennsylvania. And it raises without answering provocative questions about personality development which, though possibly unanswerable on the basis of the evidence available, must have affected ideology and behavior.

The American edition of this book is subtitled "A Biography of America's Last Monarch" and appears under the rubric of the "McGraw-Hill American Revolution Bicentennial Program." As befits a biography of George III, this is a thoroughly British book. I doubt whether the idea that a royal visit to the colonies in the early 1770's would have staved off rebellion (a sentiment echoed by the Prince of Wales in his Foreword) will recur in the succeeding volumes of this series.

John Brooke is very anxious to put the record straight, and to demolish the stereotype of "mad King George." To a generation of students brought up in the post-Namierian era it might seem that it was no longer necessary to tilt at that particular windmill. But the fact that the mad King notion is still very much alive was shown in the appalling review of George III and the Mad-Business in the TLS as recently as January, 1970. The important point, as Brooke showed in his correspondence at that time, and repeats here, was that the King's illness had physical, not mental, origins. There is absolutely no case for reading mental deficiency into any of his actions outside the actual occurrence of physical sufferings.

The bulk of the sources for this work are already in print (Fortescue, Aspinall &c.) and the main thrust of the original research is into the King's family and financial difficulties. Brooke commends George III for bringing his male children out of the isolation in which he himself was raised, and attributes the fact that they turned out to be a whole flock of black sheep to the financial pressures of a large family on a limited purse. The King's six daughters led a convent existence from which only three were ever let out to marry late in life—two of them during the Regency. This is accepted as perfectly understandable, and nowhere does the tale of family woe impugn the King's abilities as a parent.

This very personal biography is careful to avoid the "life and times" approach, but since a king's life takes him through the great affairs of state the resulting juxtaposition of public and private matters is sometimes disconcerting. The chapter entitled "Rebellion in America" is a good example of how Brooke masses chronology and topic together: twenty-two pages on the Revolution from its origins to 1778; sixteen pages on George III's difficulties with a querulous Lord North; and the final sixteen pages devoted to a study of royal finances which has no bearing on the subject matter of the chapter.

Brooke employs some old throw-away lines in his judgments on the American Revolution. Noting the transitional asservations of loyalty to the King but not Parliament in 1774, he claims "The fathers of the American republic were the heirs of the Tory tradition in British politics, and perhaps the only true Tories in the world today are to be found in the
United States." The American crisis is viewed through analogies drawn from the experience of Brooke's generation. The repeal of the Stamp Act ushers in a period of appeasement; the Boston Tea Party, like Hitler's occupation of Prague, signals the end of appeasement; the state of the British government in 1779 is comparable to Neville Chamberlain's on the eve of its fall; while George III himself displayed a fortitude in the face of defeat in 1782 similar to that of Churchill in 1940. "The difference between the conduct of the King and Churchill is not obstinacy and firmness but failure and success."

Avowedly in sympathy with his subject, Brooke gives George III the benefit of the doubt time and again. His attitudes to the American rebellion were those of the country at large and even of intellectuals such as Burke. How could a constitutional monarch be in advance of his time? Had he tried to play the statesman and single-handedly sought a solution for the crisis he could have wrecked the parliamentary system. When he came close to doing just that in the destruction of the Fox-North coalition, Brooke first explains the procedure as "unusual" and only later steels himself to add that George III's conduct was "certainly unscrupulous." These are the unkindest words in the book.

George III was the most popular King who ever reigned over Britain. "In character and conviction he was the average Briton of his day or what the average Briton aspired to be. He was John Bull." This biography is aimed at a wide readership and, according to Brooke's introduction, attempts to emulate Gibbon and Macaulay "so that the average man will understand it and the learned man will not despise it." To the extent that his subject is amenable to this kind of treatment, Brooke has succeeded admirably, almost, at times, to excess. Would even the most general reader need to be cautioned that George III's secret service money was not spent on "James Bond-like creatures, licensed to kill and to indulge in indiscriminate sexual intercourse"?

University of British Columbia

L. F. S. Upton


Of the 80,000 Loyalist émigrés the perhaps 8,000 who fled to Britain have long suggested a splendid dissertation topic. True, Lewis Einstein partially covered the ground in Divided Loyalties (1933) and some general Loyalist studies contain relevant sections, but we have had to wait for Ms. Norton for a profound analysis. The wait was well worth it. Her great learning has neither clouded her prose nor clogged her lucid presentation.
She has appended a very useful essay on sources (always preferable to a formal biography) and she has chosen her illustrations with intelligence so that they nicely amplify the text. They are not the usual seemingly hasty afterthought. I finished the book with an enthusiastic "more!" rather than the groaning "enough!" I emit as I plow through most historical monographs.

Norton begins by describing the emergence of the Loyalists from 1774 onwards, noting the different pace in different colonies and stressing the key importance of British military occupation and the fortunes of war. The heart of the book concerns the exile experience. The conclusion is: "Ironically the loyalists realized how American they were only after they had abandoned America." Profound disillusionment with England (once the glamor wore off) and a declining sense of reality (they believed neither in the popularity nor the success of the rebellion) are the main themes, reminding one forcibly of the history of other émigrés. In London the Loyalists faced serious financial problems: a high cost of living and difficulties in getting suitable accommodations (plus ça change!), jobs and government grants. In an antagonistic, alien society they stuck together in various neighborhoods, cliques, and clubs that curiously mirrored colonial class, geographic and other divisions. On occasion they were capable of broader organization, but the exiles, like the Loyalists in general, were essentially fatally fragmented.

Saratoga was the great turning point. As the rebellion was not going to be crushed quickly, many Loyalists left London for the cheaper provinces. Many now sought permanent jobs. Saratoga also stimulated the Loyalist historians—chapter V is a perceptive discussion that stresses their agreement that the Revolution was the result of a plot by a few New Englanders abetted by British opposition politicians. The government at last listened to the Loyalists partly because this theory coincided with official views that ironically eventually resulted in Yorktown. The latter part of the book concerns the peace treaty and the fate of the exiles, particularly the question of compensation—a topic never treated adequately before.

I have no quarrel with Norton’s main conclusions. Indeed, I have advanced several of them myself—but not with such sagacity or subtlety. However, a list of critical comments of varying importance may tentatively be given. I think the author is too Whiggish, sometimes judging the Loyalists too harshly (e.g. did not the historians have some merit?). The book is perhaps written too much from a Massachusetts-London standpoint. Certainly, I would have liked more on life in the provinces (including Scotland and Ireland) and generally more on the interaction between the exiles and British society (would newspapers have helped here?), including the long-term results. Although women Loyalists figure quite prominently there is disappointingly little on the "inarticulate," including blacks. Is it worth-while to distinguish between American-born and British and foreign-
born Loyalists? I think that I am partially misrepresented in the prologue, but I do argue that it is legitimate to trace the roots of Loyalism back beyond 1774. I think the term "Canada" is used anachronistically (e.g. pp. 236–237). And surely the creation of New Brunswick did not create a "myriad" of new jobs (p. 240). Finally, in such superior prose it's a pity to find "Reverends" (p. 17), "escalated" (p. 160), and shouldn't "viable" be avoided?

Study of the Loyalist exiles must not end. The West Indies particularly need doing, and much remains for Canadian historians. *The British Americans* provides an inspiring model.

*University of New Brunswick*  
Wallace Brown

*Benjamin Franklin: A Biography in His Own Words.* Edited by Thomas Fleming with an Introduction by Whitfield J. Bell, Jr. (New York: Distributed by Harper & Row, Publishers, for Newsweek Book Division, 1972. 416 p. Illustrations, bibliography, index. $15.00.)

In the preface to his Pulitzer Prize-winning biography, *Benjamin Franklin*, Carl Van Doren wrote that "Franklin, the most widely read of autobiographers, is best known from his *Autobiography*, and therefore too little known." Among other deficiencies Van Doren was complaining that Franklin had completed his autobiography only through 1762, thereby omitting an account of his later personal life as well as his diplomatic activities in England and France and those in the Continental Congress and the Constitutional Convention. Fortunately the project, still in progress, to publish the definitive edition of *The Papers of Benjamin Franklin* has resulted in the collection and cataloguing of Franklin's known writings, affording scholars the opportunity to use these materials. By utilizing these resources and providing a succinct introduction to each document, editor Fleming has made a significant contribution to Franklin scholarship in a highly interesting and informative personal account of this many-sided founding father.

Franklin's early life and career is depicted primarily from his account in the *Autobiography*, but Fleming has judiciously selected many items that were omitted from the *Autobiography*. He has enhanced Franklin's version with letters, newspaper articles, and other writings to give a much more complete and personal autobiography. For example, he has included the fourth of the fourteen "little pieces" written by "Silence Dogood." These were the brief pieces which Franklin, at the age of sixteen, slipped under the office door of his half-brother's *New England Courant*. Later he was to use other pseudonyms in creating delightful characters such as
Alice Addertongue of the *Pennsylvania Gazette* or Richard Saunders of *Poor Richard*. Nor did the editor overlook Franklin’s early comments on the fair sex, and he has reproduced the “Old Mistresses Apologue” and “The Speech of Miss Polly Baker.” Fleming did not neglect Franklin’s serious side as is seen in his scientific letters to his English friend, Peter Collinson, to whom he sent the reports of his electrical experiments, and his 1751 essay on population.

Fleming devotes slightly more than half of his book to Franklin’s career from 1762, when he returned to Philadelphia from his first London Mission, until his death in 1790. He has selected his material from Franklin’s private and official letters, from newspaper articles, and from pamphlets and miscellaneous writings to portray a busy statesman who did not ignore family and other personal relationships. Franklin emerges as an unofficial ambassador from the American colonies to the British government, urging the Americans to follow a policy of moderation while adhering to their rights and privileges. In letters to his son, William, to Joseph Galloway, and to Samuel Cooper, Franklin attempted to alert America to the changing situation in British politics, at the same time revealing his own drift toward radicalism. Interwoven in these political letters are the delightful letters to his wife, his son-in-law, and other family members. Although Franklin’s responsibilities in France were different from those in England, Fleming presents the many facets of Franklin’s almost ten years in France to show his wit and wisdom in his efforts to secure American aims and goals, the intrigues of English and Spanish diplomacy, and his problems with his own fellow diplomats. A separate chapter, “The Ladies of France,” shows Franklin’s relationships with his Passy neighbors, especially Mme. Brillon de Joey and Anne-Catherine de Ligniville Helvetius.

Not only is this volume the best autobiographical study of Franklin’s life, but it is also a beautifully illustrated one. There are more than 250 reproductions of old woodcuts, contemporary cartoons, portraits, sketches, and drawings—almost one on every page. These are complemented with two sixteen-page picture portfolios in full color, “Ben Franklin’s Philadelphia” and “An American Abroad.” Franklin would have been proud of this book.

*Kansas State Teachers College, Emporia*  
*John J. Zimmerman*

*Tidewater Towns: City Planning in Colonial Virginia and Maryland.* By John W. Reps. (Williamsburg, Va.: Distributed by The University Press of Virginia, Charlottesville, Va., for The Colonial Williamsburg Foundation, 1972. xii, 345 p. Illustrations, index. $15.00.)

It is obvious from the outset that the author, a professor of city and regional planning at Cornell University, where he has labored productively
in this field over much of the last three decades, brings a high degree of expertise and understanding to his subject. It is clear, too, that he has become a specialist in the history and background ramifications of town planning. He points out that: “Many, perhaps most Americans seem to believe that our cities somehow arose more or less spontaneously and that urban planning is an invention of the present era. This misconception is nowhere more erroneous than in the tidewater region. From the first day of settlement town planning played an important role in colonization. For reasons that we shall explore . . . towns were slow to grow. Yet those that were established took the forms determined consciously by individuals or groups to whom this responsibility was delegated by colonial officials.”

In his preface Professor Reps points out that: “This book, like my earlier works, deals with the forms and designs man has used in planning American towns. It focuses on the region that saw the earliest permanent English settlements in America—the tidewater area of Virginia and Maryland around Chesapeake Bay and along its river estuaries. Although the colonial period is treated in greatest detail, the subsequent development of certain towns has been traced into the nineteenth century in an effort to discover to what extent later growth followed or diverged from colonial patterns.” In the later instance, he has reference particularly to Baltimore, Richmond, Norfolk and, of course, to Annapolis and Williamsburg.

*Tidewater Towns* opens with a detailed summary of the English and western European planning tradition to provide the background of the concepts and designs that were brought to North America. Then come two chapters that deal with the earliest communities in Virginia and Maryland followed by two that treat of town planning in the seventeenth century as expressed in a “remarkable series of laws in both colonies.” These are discussed in meticulous detail and heavily laced with quotations. This was the period when the effort was largely legislative and the intent was to found many towns all at once. This failed for the most part and in the eighteenth century attention came more to founding, or establishing, individual towns, as need or opportunity seemed to suggest. This brought a much higher degree of success. There are also two chapters that deal with the changing concepts and needs in this second century.

Professor Reps has a hero in Francis Nicholson, governor of Maryland and then of Virginia, who had the unique opportunity to begin the plan for, and development of, a new capital town in each of these colonies. “Only the Annapolis of Francis Nicholson and the first and partially abandoned plan of Williamsburg represented departures from the established tradition,” Reps writes. These departures were from the almost universal use of the gridiron, or checkerboard, street plan of most Chesapeake tidewater towns. Though far from full or even good expression in the new Maryland capital, there were in the beginning elements of baroque planning, including emphasis on radial streets, borrowed from established
European practices. The Williamsburg plan came to embody a strong axial design emphasizing open spaces and vistas toward architectural features. The author concludes that “only where streets, open spaces and buildings are conceived of, not as an abstract pattern but as a part of a three-dimensional concept, can cities be beautiful as well as functional.” And Williamsburg was an early American beginning expression of this.

The author has assembled here a formidable array of illustrations showing original, or early plans and views of the towns discussed. Altogether there are 206 figures, many full page. A number of them are manuscript drawings, some not heretofore reproduced. Professor Reps hopes the volume “can serve as a kind of town atlas for the region under examination,” and surely it will. In the main, the quality of reproduction is excellent except in a few instances. One such is the faded 1787 plan of Georgetown, Md. (Figure 161) which is all but unreadable. This could have been better redrawn in some form, as has been done in some instances. Then, too, the Fry and Jefferson map (Figure 122) is reproduced at such small scale that it has little easy value.

This is an attractively, even handsomely, designed and manufactured volume, the latest of the Williamsburg Architectural Studies. Even so it is a little ponderous to manage being oversize (12 1/4 inches long, and 9 1/4 inches high). Pages are full double-columned in the body of the work and triple-columned in rather small print in the textual notes (21 pages) grouped by chapter at the end, in the figure notes, and in the impressive bibliography.

In commenting individually on the large number of town plans, and there are many of them, it is inevitable that considerable repetitive detail does creep in. It becomes a little tiresome now and then. Perhaps this derives from the author’s striving for completeness and stems, too, from the inclusion of much detailed history, architectural comment, and allied materials. He also relies heavily on quoted material from contemporary sources all of which is soundly and well documented. The end result is an encyclopedic treatment. In last analysis, the reviewer sees this basically as a reference work, and a good one. This could very well have been the intent in the first place.

Yorktown, Va.

Charles E. Hatch, Jr.

Folk Medicine of the Delaware and Related Algonkian Indians. By Gladys Tantaquidgeon. (Harrisburg: The Pennsylvania Historical and Museum Commission, 1972. 145 p. Illustrations, appendixes, bibliography, index. $4.00.)

This is a reprint of the author’s monograph, A Study of Delaware Indian Medicine Practice and Folk Beliefs, published in 1942, to which she has
added a section, "Notes on Mohegan Medicine Practice and Folk Beliefs," abstracted from her earlier publications. From the title the reader would not know that the book covers dreams, witchcraft, natural signs, animal and vegetable foods, as well as folk medicines for the Oklahoma Delawares (descendants of Indians who once occupied Pennsylvania), and the Mohegan of Connecticut. The appendices (written, like the Delaware text, thirty years ago) describe the folklore of the Nanticoke Indians of Sussex County, Delaware, and the Delawares on the Six Nations Reserve in Ontario (also descendants of Pennsylvania Indians).

The bibliography does not include works published since 1942, such as George A. Hill, Jr.'s, paper on Delaware Indian ethnobotany, and those of August C. Mahr and William W. Newcomb, Jr., containing references to Delaware medicines. William N. Fenton's related papers on Iroquois herbalism are also omitted, as is Virgil J. Vogel's important volume on American Indian medicines. The author's statement on page 96 that the mixed-blood Indian descendants living in Cheswold, Delaware, still represent "an untouched source" of folkloristic data is no longer true (see this reviewer's study, Delaware's Forgotten Folk, University of Pennsylvania Press, 1943).

A brief addendum might have been added explaining that white acculturation has substantially changed the Delaware and Nanticoke communities since 1942 and that folk medicines belong to the past. Today these Indians patronize discount drug stores!

The editors have done their utmost to compensate for the unrevised text and outdated bibliography by making welcome changes in typography; improving the index; and adding illustrations of the author and three of her Mohegan kinfolk, as well as seven of the several hundred plants once used as medicines by Indian herbalists.

Brandywine College

C. A. WESLAGER


This study reads like a sequel to Charles S. Syndor's _Gentlemen Freeholders_. Focusing primarily on the style of political life in the Old Dominion with its accompanying effect on national alignments, Richard R. Beeman of the University of Pennsylvania shows how two political systems—the old oligarchic system based on wealth, influence, and social prestige and the new system of Federalist and Republican Party organizations—coexisted. His thesis essentially is that the "pre-revolutionary" elite in Virginia "discovered ways to use the outward mechanism of the new,
partisan mode of politics while at the same time preserving traditional patterns of elite-dominated deferential politics" (p. xi). Yet Beeman admits that by 1800, in a more complex society, the political practices of the past had become increasingly "self-indulgent" and "dysfunctional."

Beeman emphasizes that Virginia's commitment to Federalism at the time of the Ratification Convention was lukewarm. He accepts Charles Beard's thesis that the Federalist-Antifederalist alignment of 1788 continued into the 1790's but with important modifications. He maintains that by 1790 political divisions in Virginia's lower house were "firmly fixed" and that by 1791 a "republican interest," consisting of Antifederalists and former Federalists, was formed. It was, Beeman argues, such issues as constitutional amendments, funding-assumption, and Indian policies that brought about some federalist disaffection because these issues confirmed rather than dispelled earlier misgivings about federal consolidation. He does not, however, believe that the impetus behind party organization in Virginia was a simple reaction to national issues as such. Lacking any broad conception of national interest, Beeman attempts to show how the response of Virginia's political leaders to the federal government "was [also] shaped by the interests and aspirations of their own localities . . ." (p. xiii). It is misleading, therefore, to equate Federalism and Republicanism in Virginia with their national counterparts, concludes Beeman, because state leaders operated within "a frame of reference that was peculiarly Virginian."

The distinction that Beeman draws between national and local issues, though not always clearly defined, permits him also to conclude that the Democratic-Republicans in Virginia would not have found a mass following had it not been for Hamilton's national bank, the Federalists' pro-British foreign policy, and the domestic repression that culminated in the Alien and Sedition Acts. The Federalist cause, it seems, survived in Virginia in spite of the nationalistic policies of Hamilton. The Republican coalition, although built on a common desire to stem the tide of central authority, suffered from intra-party factionalism. The party's Antifederalist wing favored substantial changes in the structure of the federal government and gave support to equalitarian goals, while the Federalist deserters opposed them. In 1800 "Agrarian Republicanism" triumphed in the Old Dominion because Virginians felt Jefferson's election would lead to a return of "deferential" politics at the local level and the restoration of federalism, vintage 1788.

Awarded honorable mention in the 1971 Frederick Jackson Turner Award competition, Beeman's study provides the first adequate synthesis of political developments in Virginia during the Federal Era. Notwithstanding his detachment from nationally-oriented studies, Beeman's main conclusions are almost an epitome of "consensus" historiography. He downgrades more than do most historians economic or regional interpretations and the importance of the "first party system," yet his overall
analysis of politics in Virginia modifies only slightly the themes presented in the works of Harry Ammon, Jackson T. Main, Robert Brown, Norman K. Risjord, and Lisle Rose. David H. Fischer's "Old School-Young Federalist" distinction is rejected for Virginia. The work includes three useful appendixes, a "Bibliographical Note," and a good index. All in all, this study, which is clearly written and adequately researched, has not elevated to a new plateau the historians' perception of party politics during the 1790's because Beeman accepts too uncritically the notion of court history and fails to develop new methods and new sources of evidence.

Bowling Green State University


Professor Buel's book is something less than the title would seem to suggest. Although he defines (p. xi) an ideology as a "coherent system of ideas consciously directed towards the achievement of an ideal aim," he does not seek to formulate the fundamental attitudes which shaped the Federalist and Republican conflict during the early Republic. There is no quest in the manner of Bernard Bailyn or Gordon Wood for those basic political concepts, which constitute the climate of opinion or broad intellectual matrix in which specific political developments can be interpreted. Rather, Professor Buel presents a detailed statement of the arguments developed by the contending forces in the party rivalry which culminated in Jefferson's victory in 1800. Indeed, only thirty-two pages out of 295 pages of text extend beyond that date. The arguments are ably presented at greater length than in most works covering the politics of this decade. One sees step by step, the party positions of the Federalists and the Republicans as they reacted to the challenges of specific issues. Larger themes, however, are substantially neglected. Thus, while he devotes nearly ten pages to Hamilton's proposal to fund the debt (including a discussion of Madison's shift of position on discrimination in favor of original holders), he has no comment upon the furore generated by the publication of Thomas Paine's Rights of Man in 1791, an event of prime importance in defining American political concepts.

In writing this monograph, Professor Buel worked on the "assumption that public opinion was the single most important ingredient in the politics of the first party system" (p. x). Therefore, he has thought it proper to rely primarily upon public documentation, especially stressing Congressional debates, pamphlets, and newspapers, while relegating private correspondence to a subordinate place. While one welcomes his emphasis upon the Congressional arena, one questions his conclusion about the role of private correspondence. As he agrees, it was a political system controlled
by an elite, and hence it would seem that private correspondence is as im-
portant as public statements in defining political attitudes. The care and
attention American leaders gave to their correspondence clearly indicates
that they were seeking to influence opinion in crucial areas.

Reservations about what Professor Buel failed to do (and perhaps never
intended to do) should not obscure the merits of this study, in which, in a
sense, the parts are greater than the whole. The summaries of the political
arguments, based upon careful research, are excellent and are framed with
an unusual clarity. In his analysis of newspapers and pamphlets Professor
Buel has conducted much more intensive investigations than previous
writers. His discussion of the Federalists as the members of an insecure
elite who felt themselves threatened by the growing power of the people is
one of the most provocative sections of the book. Among the most striking
results of his investigation of obscure literature is Professor Buel’s dis-
cussion of the role of the clergy in 1798 in mounting an attack upon the
Republicans as conspiratorial Illuminati.

Southern Illinois University

Harry Ammon

guide, index. $12.50.)

In this important work, Cochran presents a pioneering synthesis of the
relationship that has developed since colonial times between American
business and a variety of institutions including law, politics, religion, child
rearing and family relationships, education, and social structure in general.
In so doing, he makes a significant contribution to American social and
intellectual history by casting fresh light upon the evolution of a cultural
milieu within which the business spirit took root and flourished.

As demonstrated in such previous books as The Inner Revolution, Cochran
has long been a keen student of social theory, and in the present case he
builds his thesis on the unifying concept of role-playing by entrepreneurs in
a society dominantly sympathetic to business values. “In the nearly four
hundred years of American history,” Cochran observes, “business would
seem to have been as continuously present and important as any social
institution other than the family and its social or religious rituals.”

Presenting his case with an impressive array of evidence drawn from
successive periods of American development, Cochran shows clearly that
one need not look for any sort of conspiracy by businessmen as a class in
order to explain their perennial power in our culture. Instead, it would be
more accurate to say that they played the role that was expected of them
in a favorable geographical, social, and political environment. During the
colonial period, for example, a variety of practical circumstances en-
couraged mobility in pursuit of gain and “careers chosen rationally in
response to economic demand.” Religion, which might have served as a countervailing force in a different cultural setting, basically supported business values; in Cochran’s words, “colonial merchants could scarcely have asked for more cooperation from the institutions of religion than they received from eighteenth-century Congregationalists and Quakers.” Landowning agriculturalists, who in a more aristocratic society might have resisted the spread of a commercial ethos, instead embraced it and changed an English legal system which had protected traditional tenures into one “aimed at achieving easy transfer of ownership, ready salability, and the promotion of equality of distribution through equal inheritance among heirs.”

This hospitable atmosphere also characterized the post-Revolutionary era, producing a type of entrepreneur who became accustomed to playing a much different role from that performed by his European counterpart. “He expected to use government rather than to fear it, to find social leaders friendly rather than hostile to his plans, and to regard his personal success as of primary value to his community.” School teachers and writers of books on child rearing lauded the spirit of acquisition and stressed the inculcation of character traits conducive to business success rather than the cultivation of intellect for its own sake. Ministers of the gospel continued to give their benediction to the quest for gain; in the words of Charles Grandison Finney, “A life of business is best for Christians as it exercises their graces and makes them strong.” Legislators and jurists alike facilitated the onward march of the entrepreneur with timely enactments and favorable opinions. It is misleading, as Cochran correctly notes, to use the term *laissez-faire* in describing the attitude which businessmen came to expect from government. Rather, they were the objects of fostering solicitude. In such an environment the entrepreneur scarcely had to conquer the existing order; instead, he learned his part and acted it out before an admiring gallery.

Thanks partly to the declining prestige of politicians and clergymen, the role of the businessman became even more exalted in the late nineteenth century. Elementary and secondary education became increasingly utilitarian, while control of colleges and universities passed out of the hands of ministers and fell into those of trustees drawn from the ranks of industry and trade. The defeated South, once a counterweight to the grosser forms of the business spirit, itself succumbed to the psychology of boosterism. The general public, responding partly to the growing power of advertising, accepted business values even less critically than it had in the ante-bellum years.

Despite a temporary setback to business prestige during the Age of the Great Depression, a similar situation has prevailed throughout most of the twentieth century, in which leading businessmen have learned successfully to play the roles appropriate to the rise of “Big Management.” The alacrity with which American schools adopted curricula congruent with
managerial attitudes indicated that entrepreneurs did not have to exert themselves unduly to gain what friendly educators were only too willing to grant. As Cochran puts it, "the influence of business on general public education was more the effect of a business-like culture than of planned business pressures." Such powerful media as radio and television, with their incalculable potential for molding and sustaining public opinion, gave consistent support to business values, for they were businesses themselves. Religion continued to do likewise, despite the fame of a relatively few clergymen who took a critical view of commercialism. The New Deal, however bitterly resisted by some business spokesmen, was never anti-capitalist either in motivation or effect, and many of its programs actually strengthened business interests over the long run; here Cochran is especially perceptive in noting how federal agricultural programs had precisely this tendency. Whatever damage was done to the reputation of business by the Depression was repaired during World War II and the postwar era, in which financial and industrial leaders cemented a profitable alliance with an increasingly powerful military elite. The regulatory activity of federal agencies remained essentially sympathetic and supportive. Even "Big Labor," the rise of which had been so vigorously opposed by the N.A.M. and other business groups, became a bulwark of the "system" as it gained an ever greater stake in it. By 1970, however worrisome the emergence of youthful dissent and radical social criticism might be to many citizens, the country was still dominated by a pro-business culture that viewed the entrepreneurial role with approbation.

It is impossible in a brief review to do justice to all the themes contained in as rich a texture of developments as Cochran presents. Contrary to what one might conclude from the generalized summary given above, the author never depicts businessmen as forming an undifferentiated bloc in American society. On the contrary, he is careful to indicate that the climate of opinion from which the most successful entrepreneurs have benefited so greatly has been sustained in good part by small-time operators who have shared only marginally in the system's rewards. Similarly, he skillfully probes the nuances that distinguish the behavior of "nomadic corporate executives" from that of "local owners" in the contemporary business environment. Nor does he ever contend that the power which businessmen have enjoyed in American society has resulted from the mere passive acceptance of a role that has been thrust upon them by an admiring public, for he is well aware that men of enterprise have waged epic struggles to extend and perpetuate their dominance. Nevertheless, his analysis goes far to indicate that the battles they fought were assured of a helpful supporting cast before they began.

Critics of the "consensusarian" approach to American history may be alternately irked or oppressed by the conclusions which Cochran has drawn, and may argue that he has greatly underplayed the existence of fundamental ideological conflict in our culture. Nevertheless, his case is
well presented, and the course and results alike of the national election campaign through which we have just passed would seem to corroborate many of his insights.

Auburn University

W. David Lewis


The evolution of this book is interesting and worth telling. In 1929 Waldo Lincoln prepared a checklist of 490 cookery books published in this country between 1742 and 1860. His own collection, later transferred to the American Antiquarian Society, of which he was a sometime president, comprised the bulk of the listings. In the introduction he decried the fact that libraries, collectors, and dealers virtually ignored cookery books. He hoped that his publication would lead to the discovery of other titles.

Twenty-five years later Eleanor Lowenstein, proprietor of the Corner Book Shop in New York, published a revised and enlarged edition of the Lincoln bibliography, which by then was long out of print. She was able to add about 250 titles to Lincoln’s list.

The present edition represents a still further refinement of the previous lists. Some books have been eliminated because they were books of housewivery, not cookery. Others were dropped because they have never been proved to exist. (Lincoln listed some titles apparently advertised by eighteenth-century booksellers as “trial balloons” in the hope there would be enough orders to justify publication.) Despite this culling, Miss Lowenstein has ferreted out enough additional titles and editions to bring the grand total to 835, observing Lincoln’s ground rule of including only books published in America.

Entries are arranged chronologically with the complete title, name of author and facts of publication, along with the name of the library or libraries where the book can be found. The American Antiquarian Society continues to be the main repository of titles listed. Holdings of the Historical Society of Pennsylvania and of the Library Company of Philadelphia appear. Other Pennsylvania libraries listed include those of Muhlenberg College, the Pennsylvania Farm Museum, and the University of Pennsylvania. More than twice as many libraries are represented in this edition as in the last, although Miss Lowenstein early states that the list is by no means all-inclusive. The book is indexed by author and title.

Lincoln’s introduction pointed out the striking absence of cookbooks from the first 150 years of the colonial period. The earliest title extant is a 1742 “pirating” of E. Smith’s The Compleat Housewife, first published in England in 1727. The American printer and seller was William Parks of Williamsburg. The first cookbook by an American author published in the
United States was *American Cookery* (1796), by Amelia Simmons, "an American Orphan."

In perusing the listings, one cannot fail to be impressed by the many imprints of Philadelphia publishers. The author with the largest number of titles by far is the "Lady of Philadelphia," Eliza Leslie.

This publication should be of interest to those seeking source materials for social history as well as to collectors of cookbooks. Lincoln chose 1860 as his cutoff date because he felt that later cookery books "decreased in bibliographical value in the matter of printing, paper and binding." Since a bibliography of later cookbooks would nevertheless have other historical uses, it is hoped that Miss Lowenstein will consider the admittedly monumental task of bringing the list closer to the present. For a start, 1876, latest date of American Antiquarian Society cookery book holdings, might be a manageable goal.

*Philadelphia*  
*Emma Seifrit Weigley*


This volume might very well be entitled *A Political History of the Colonial and United States Post Office.* It traces from 1639 to 1971 the almost continual battle occasioned by public demand for expanding mail service and the restrictions of tight government purse strings on accomplishing the public desire. On one hand there was the belief that because the postal service served to inform and bring together the various sections of the country it deserved a subsidy from the general funds. The contrary view was that rates and efficiency of operation should make it possible to give all the desired and ordered service within the income derived from users. The conflict of these two viewpoints served to hamstring many efforts of Postmasters General to improve the service.

Many of the early American political philosophers recognized the importance of using the mail service to spread information about the government. They urged that the Post Office carry newspapers and books at low rates for this purpose and generally to increase the opportunity for education.

Throughout much of our history the power to appoint men at all levels of postal service was held by the executive department of the government. This authority was utilized to control political parties, secure workers for them and insure as far as possible the retention of office by the party in power. Local postmasters were the political leaders of their towns and were expected to deliver the vote.

Another conflict that arose was the government claim to postal monopoly versus private mail services. This was finally resolved in 1860 in favor of
the government. An interesting chapter of the book deals with the Post Office Department as the guardian of the nation's morals. The Postal Inspector indeed had many unusual tasks, not the least of which was trying to capture mail train robbers as well as circulators of filthy letters. The story of these matters, together with the details of the expansion of postal services, is well told in the volume. Since for a large part of the period communication was virtually a monopoly of the Post Office, the importance of the American mail, with its associated political debates and regulations, constitutes a most important segment of American history.

Philadelphia

Earl P. L. Apfelbaum

Anne Royall's U. S. A. By Bessie Rowland James. (New Brunswick, N. J.: Rutgers University Press, 1972. vii, 447 p. Illustrations, index. $15.00.)

"Godless Anne Royall" her enemies called her in her own day, as from 1824 to 1854 she waged a personal war against the militant Protestant evangelists who manned the anti-Catholic crusade and sought control of American political life through the organization of a Christian Party. "Grandma of Muckrakers" was the American Mercury's name for her in 1927, in tribute to her formidable campaigns against corruption in government, anti-Catholicism, the anti-Masonic movement, the prohibition of Sunday transportation of the mail, the practice of whipping in the Navy, and numerous other causes in mid-nineteenth century America. Today Anne Royall emerges from Mrs. Bessie Rowland James's study as an extraordinarily "Liberated Woman." She makes today's crusading females look tame indeed.

Born in 1769 and raised on the wild frontier of Pennsylvania and Virginia, widowed in 1812, Mrs. Royall joyously burst from the "closet" of her restricted life and rushed into the world at the age of forty-four, soon after her husband's death. In 1819, defrauded of practically all her financial assets when her husband's relatives succeeded in breaking his will, she conceived the project of living by writing and publishing her reactions to life as she saw it. With no capital but her own fertile imagination and boundless energy, her subsequent travels took her to every state in the Union between the Atlantic Ocean and the Mississippi River, by stagecoach, steamboat, on horseback, and on foot. She published her first book, Sketches of History, Life and Manners in the United States, in 1826, at the age of fifty-seven. Within the next five years, nine similar volumes followed, as well as a novel. Included were sketches of nearly 2,000 public figures.

No one was safe from Mrs. Royall's inquisition. She interviewed every incumbent President from John Quincy Adams to Franklin Pierce, and
journeyed to Massachusetts to talk with former President John Adams. The Adams family were staunch friends. "A virago errant in enchanted armor," John Quincy affectionately dubbed her. But she also made many enemies. The Protestant evangelists felt her full wrath, as she physically attacked their distribution of tracts, tossing the offending publications out of windows, off steamboats, out of stagecoaches, screaming "Treason" as she tossed. In 1827 one Vermont "Christian," stung beyond bearing, threw her out of his shop, down a ten-foot flight of steps, leaving her lying in the street with "a contusion, a dislocated ankle, a fracture of the larger bone of the leg, a smaller bone broken above the ankle, knee badly sprained and the flesh much bruised." Mobs of "Christians" organized to harry her from towns she visited. She was denied seats in stagecoaches, lodgings in towns. In 1829 she was convicted in court and fined as a common scold. As incredible as her physical and economic hardships, however, were her resources in friends, who ever came to her rescue, with the last-minute timing of sheer melodrama.

After 1831 Mrs. Royall left the road, set up a precarious household in Washington, D. C., and for the remainder of her life confined herself to crusading journalism in two newspapers which she wrote, edited, published, sold, and distributed: Paul Pry, from December, 1831, to November, 1836, and The Huntress, from December, 1836, to July, 1854. An uncommon Jacksonian, she at first ardently supported her fellow frontiersman, sharing his hatred of the Bank and nullification, but her allegiance wavered as her investigations revealed cynical tolerance of graft in high places. Today's reader finds startling the ease with which she walked into the offices of Presidents, Cabinet officers, and members of Congress. She practiced a not always genteel form of blackmail with her pen, which could flay recalcitrant interviewees. Strong men fled from her presence when they could; many feigned illness when she trapped them in their homes. Indefatigable and invincible, she got her stories, no matter what the odds. She survived, to the age of eighty-five. She died undefeated.

Mrs. James has done justice to her subject. With devotion equal to Mrs. Royall's own, she has studied the career of her heroine for twenty-five years. S. H. Porter's The Life and Times of Anne Royall, published in 1909, had left Mrs. Royall qualified for inclusion in R. L. Wright's Forgotten Ladies in 1928. Mrs. James, a formidable researcher and journalist, tracked down primary data to fill in the little-known story of the first half of Mrs. Royall's life and to enrich the telling of the second half as well. (The specialist will regret that the book offers no bibliography beyond that included in the notes.) With great narrative skill she presents a suspenseful story of vivid characters in dramatic action. Anne Royall's emotional intensity, unchecked by formal training, led her into excesses of both praise and blame. Her heroes were often too good, her villains too bad. Mrs. James commits no such sin. She gives us Mrs. Royall as she must have been in life, often crude and violent like the age in which she lived,
but always vital, creative, avid for life in all its richness and diversity. Mrs. James has captured the essence of both Anne Royall and her U. S. A. Her book will interest both the specialist and the general reader.

*Lebanon Valley College*  
Elizabeth M. Geffen

*Fanny Kemble and the Lovely Land.* By Constance Wright. (New York: Dodd, Mead and Company, 1972. viii, 242 p. Illustrations, bibliography, index. $7.95.)

From her birth in 1809 to her death in 1893, Frances Anne (Fanny) Kemble had about as many careers as can be fitted into one lifetime. She was, at various times, a romantic star of the British and American stage, a Philadelphia lady of society, an indefatigable diarist, a moderately good poetess of the Felicia Hemans persuasion, a poor playwright and novelist, a Lady Bountiful who ministered to her Darker Brethren on the Old Plantation, a liberated woman whose independence led to her divorce in 1849, a successful platform reader of Shakespeare, and an imperious grande dame who held court and correspondence with the intellectuals of her age.

Of the many previously published works on Fanny Kemble, this is by far the best researched and documented. No startlingly new sources are indicated in the extensive bibliography, but Ms. Wright has used her material with great care and one feels confidence in her ability to get at the facts surrounding a particular event. The writing, after an initial adjustment to the prose rhythm, is quite readable, although possible overuse of the thesaurus has resulted in such odd phrasings as “On the summit of this economic ziggurat,” “Debate of this issue acidulated,” and “deracinated trees.”

The title of the book is deceptive, suggesting an emphasis upon Fanny’s American experience (“Lovely Land” = United States), but the years spent on the Continent and in England are recounted with the same completeness as her life in America. Fanny’s relations with other liberated women of the period, figures such as Charlotte Cushman, the Sedgwicks, Harriet Hosmer, Mrs. Anna Jameson, Lydia Maria Child, Harriet Martineau and others, are discussed at some length. Her plantation experience and the celebrated divorce from Pierce Butler are also covered with admirable thoroughness—but to what purpose? The reader is left to pick his way from event to event, not always sure of their significance: if the book has a major focus, it can most likely be said to be the liberated aspects of Mrs. Kemble’s life.

Even with a wealth of historical material, the period fails to come alive and the book gives little feeling for the milieu in which Fanny existed. And, in spite of the voluminous personal records that are available, the character of the subject can only be glimpsed here and there. The first
twenty-three years of the young girl’s life are dealt with in a brief nine
pages, and her whole theatrical career passes almost unnoticed in the book.
Having spent so little time on the formative years, there is no base upon
which to build. One misses the many changes that took place over the
years; the moody young girl overindulged by an adoring father, the ins-
sufferably proud actress whom many Americans found as irritating as
Mrs. Trollope, the loving mother who left her children for long periods,
the plantation mistress who fluctuated between genuine compassion and
a theatrical noblesse oblige. It is not until the latter half of the book, after
circumstances have transformed Fanny into a cranky, imperious, and
somewhat bitter old lady, that a definite personality emerges.

Such a diverse figure as this offers unusual problems to the biographer:
he must either face the monumental task of coping with all of Fanny’s
various existences, or concentrate attention upon only one aspect or
another. The latter approach has invariably prevailed with Kemble
chroniclers: their works resemble the reports of the fabled blind men who
groped around various portions of the elephant’s anatomy, each perceiving
a limited portion of the truth but no one comprehending the entirety.
John Anthony Scott, in his 1960 edition of Fanny’s plantation journal,
remarked that the definitive biography had yet to be written; that judg-
ment is still true today.

For those interested in the Abolition Movement, Women’s Liberation,
or the relationship of Mrs. Kemble to her wide circle of acquaintances,
this book can be recommended. Those interested in making the acquaint-
ance of Fanny Kemble would do better to read the recently published
Fanny: The American Kemble, by Fanny Kemble Wister [Stokes]. Mrs.
Stokes, although somewhat deficient in scholarship, has wisely allowed her
voluble and articulate great-grandmother to speak for herself, and this is
one thing which that lady could do with great effect.

Texas Tech University

Clifford Ashby

Doctor Kane of the Arctic Seas. By GEORGE W. CORNER. (Philadelphia:
Temple University Press, 1972. xiii, 306 p. Illustrations, index. $10.00.)

Few today, other than students of Arctic exploration or those who
travel the Arctic regions, have heard the name of the Philadelphia doctor
Elisha Kent Kane. Yet in the fifties of the last century his fame was like
that of our first astronauts, and for similar reasons. Interest in North
American Arctic exploration is as old as the search for the North West
Passage, and in Kane’s early years it had been greatly stimulated by the
mystery of the lost Franklin expedition, yet the geography of northern
Greenland, most of the Canadian archipelago, and the entire Arctic basin
was less well known than the near surface of the moon. Man could at least see
the moon, and study it with high-powered telescopes, but what lay in the
frozen Arctic deserts beyond his furthest penetration by sail and sledge was completely unknown. Though the purpose of both Kane’s Arctic journeys was to search for the vanished Franklin party, it is clear that his real motivation was that of the explorer, driven, like Captain Scott after him at the other end of the world, to give his life in the unwearying endeavor to push ever backwards the boundaries of the unknown. Kane could not have read T. H. Huxley, but if he had he would, like Scott, have recognized their common goal.

So it was that Elisha Kane, his frail body already weakened by the extraordinary hardships and privations of his earlier Arctic voyage and the worldwide adventures that had preceded it, was all too willing, when in command himself, to be lured northward. Though the rumored Open Polar Sea, which would lead to the Pole, and where Kane stated his belief that the Franklin party might be found, has since been proved a myth, the arguments for it had convinced others besides him, distinguished scientists among them, and he can not be faulted for wanting to find it. How seriously Kane believed that Franklin might have preceded him there we can not know; certainly it must have appeared more likely that he would have pushed to the west, as in fact he had. But others had sought him there, and continued to do so; the road into the unknown north was untraveled, unless by Franklin, beyond Smith Sound, and there Kane must go.

There he went, farther than civilized man had ever gone, discovering the great basin which now bears his name, and, though blocked at its end by the inexorable ice, blazing the trail which ultimately led others to the Pole. There he earned the respect and friendship of the Etah Eskimos, a tribe so remote that their existence had been unknown even to others of their race, and whose cheerful assistance saved him and his party from disaster and who, because of this relationship, provided invaluable help to later explorers. Thence, after two terrible winters, surviving scurvy, starvation, and mutinous behavior by ill-chosen companions, and after the terrible hardships of the escape journey by open boat over Arctic seas, he returned to civilization with the loss of only three of the original nineteen-man party, to receive a welcome such as has been accorded few returning heroes. They were back like the astronauts with wonders and great achievements to report, but, unlike the astronauts whose few days absence is thoroughly observed and reported through every moment, Kane and his men had disappeared without trace for two and a half years, and now, suddenly and unexpectedly had returned.

Kane was one of the great polar explorers, perhaps unexcelled, at least among Americans, but he was followed by others who extended his discoveries until his own accomplishments have become largely submerged in the assault on the polar regions which continues still. It is high time that he be given his due, as is done in this scholarly and readable biography, which is the best and probably will remain the definitive study of a great
Philadelphian and a great American. Kane's extraordinary early career is covered as thoroughly as the sources will permit, his family and private life described objectively yet with understanding, and the feverish ambition which drove him from the first boyish exploits to the triumphs of his final adventure, despite his frail physique and failing health is shown vividly and comprehensibly. The spectacle of the disease-wrecked little doctor physically beating into submission a tough and unruly seaman sounds like dime-novel stuff, but this and many other extraordinary feats Dr. Corner has documented and made credible.

This book seems to me an extraordinarily thorough and well-written account of a long neglected figure. Although no bibliography is given, the notes are exhaustive, and it appears unlikely that any significant source material was overlooked. One of the book's values is the author's collating of Kane's journal kept during his voyage with the published account based on that journal, for this reveals many significant episodes which were omitted later from publication. Kane's published account, *Arctic Explorations, '53, '54, '55*, the preparation of which occupied the months between his triumphal return and his death, is one of the most readable and articulate records of polar travel in the English language. It is hoped that readers of Dr. Corner's biography will seek it out, but they will learn much from the biography which they will not find in *Arctic Explorations*.

*Blue Bell, Pa.*  

**John Cadwalader**


One hundred years ago the United States was recovering from a civil war of major proportions; it was also growing—in population, in number of states, in technology and industries. Inevitably this growth brought change in many forms. As his theme, Jackson uses the changing appearance of American space—that is, what Americans did with their farms, forests, villages, parks and cities, especially in terms of landscape and architecture. The approach is through analysis of spatial use, first in the United States as a whole, and then of various regions: the Northwest (Minnesota, Nebraska, and Dakota); the Midwest (the Old Northwest Territory); New England; the South; the Plains; and California. There is a separate chapter on New York City and a brief concluding chapter on the Centennial Exposition.

Many factors, the author believes, influenced the use of space after the war. First of all, there was much available space, even if Americans always wanted more. Too, with realization of growing cities and the resulting flight to the suburbs, there were suggestions of early high-rise buildings and roof gardens, made possible by steam-powered elevators. Besides,
steam-powered factories, mechanized farming equipment and the railroads enabled Americans to make a different use of the environment, while new building practices, like the balloon frame and ready-cut houses, facilitated the rapid construction of housing and farm buildings. Moreover, these years brought forward men like Major John Wesley Powell who identified the grid system for land division as impracticable for newer arid regions. Finally, of course, there were numerous thoughtful men like Olmsted, Downing, Copeland and Cleveland concerned with landscapes and land use, especially in the cities.

The author emphasizes that changes in city appearance, as in Chicago and Boston, were often the results of disasters, isolating business areas from dwelling areas. Further, he explains that the fires in these cities meant, at least to some architects and those of scientific mind, a new interest in discovering why the fires spread and thus in ensuring safety laws in new buildings. Whereas, too, earlier reform movements had concentrated on the need for changing the outlook of the individual through education, in New York in the sixties and seventies the approach to slum elimination was that of improving health and sanitation.

The material on post-war Philadelphia is scanty. Most of the final chapter is devoted to Fairmount Park and the Centennial Exposition, both of which the author approves. He criticizes the Exposition for its indifference to history, but neglects the many other aspects of the Centennial in numerous pageants and speeches, not at the Exposition grounds but nevertheless commemorating the founding of the republic. Perhaps with justification, he is less than kind to the Exposition art exhibits. Obviously, the Centennial was too large and too overwhelming to be treated so cavalierly in ten pages; after all, the United States Centennial Commission Report occupies nine large volumes!

Despite some careless editing—Ward for Wade (p. 145), and four months of the Exposition, instead of six months (p. 239), and the use throughout the last chapter of Fairmont instead of Fairmount Park—this is a stimulating book, because it looks at the problems of a century ago from a viewpoint other than political or economic; it shows us in part at least how the United States came to look as it does today. No doubt, the use of footnotes and a standard bibliography would make historians happier.

The American University

Dorothy D. Gondos


Does a galloping horse ever have all four feet off the ground? Most people know the answer to this question today, but exactly 100 years ago it was hotly debated and by no less a person than former Governor of
California Leland Stanford, who owned 200 blood horses and a private racetrack.

In 1872 the Englishman Edward James Muggeridge who, proud of his Anglo-Saxon heritage, had changed the spelling of his first name to Eadward and altered his surname to the more euphonious Muybridge, was on his second visit to the United States. Working first with, and then independently of the photographer Carleton E. Watkins (misquoted as "Watson" on page 12 of this book), he took pictures of Yosemite under the name of "Helios," and he displayed his inventive genius by getting "moonlight" and clouds into his photographs through the superimposition of one or more negatives. During the next three years he enhanced his reputation by making photographic surveys for the federal government, and by producing some magnificent 20" x 24" pictures of the Yosemite Valley. It was at this point that Leland Stanford sent for him to try his hand at settling the problem of the galloping horse by photography. But wet plates and shutter speeds were inadequate and five years were to elapse, years of strenuous travels as a journalist photographer, before another attempt was made. By this time he had invented a much more efficient shutter and had increased the speed of his wet collodion plates, but it was the use of twelve specially designed English cameras in which exposures were made instantaneously as horses trotted or galloped by that not only proved the point at issue, but opened up a vast new field for the study of animal locomotion. As a most significant by-product however, Muybridge, by first of all mounting his successive pictures inside a revolving drum with vertical slits, a so-called zoetrope, and then by devising a method of projecting the same photographs successively on a screen, produced the first movie.

Fame came to this indefatigable photographer. He lectured across the country and in Europe, but it was on his return in 1882 that his greatest pioneer work was to be undertaken. He aroused the interest of J. B. Lippincott, a benefactor of the University of Pennsylvania, and the Provost of the University agreed to sponsor Muybridge's work to discover the way in which human beings and animals really moved, provided it was supervised by a scientific committee. Over the next two years 100,000 pictures were taken of a wide range of human and animal activities, starting with an extraordinary series of nude male and female figures walking, running, jumping, climbing stairs, rowing, boxing, etc., etc. The males were students and members of the faculty of the University, but the females were taken from all classes of society, according to the descriptive booklet accompanying the vast publication in 1887 of 781 reproductions in photogravure. It was issued in 11 volumes, and, in addition to the human studies, many of the animals in the Philadelphia Zoo were included.

Kevin MacDonnell tells Muybridge's story adequately and adds an interesting appendix on his technique. But he is not well served by the illustrations. The human figures and animals in motion are satisfactory and some are enlarged, but the original sizes of these and of the landscapes and
other scenes should have been given. Some are obvious enlargements, and
the practice of picking out certain figures and blowing them up to an
inordinate size does not help the subject of the book, and only irritates the
reader. The reproduction of the Yosemite Valley picture on page 49 is in
reverse, and the captions to the illustrations on pages 84-85 and 140-141
are hopelessly mixed.

Pasadena, Calif.  

ROBERT O. DOUGAN

Selected Essays. By F. Lyman Windolph. (Lancaster, Pa.: Franklin and
Marshall College, 1972. xv, 278 p. $7.50.)

For a city trial lawyer to review the Selected Essays of a self-styled
country lawyer is not an easy undertaking, especially for one, like me,
whose roots also stretch deeply into the same historical soil of Lancaster
County, Pennsylvania. First, there is the humility with which a reach-
for-the-jugular advocate approaches the literary product of one who has
given much of his own life to putting the law into the perspective of what
is the law’s history, its literature and its essential poetry. And what is
more to the point, trying to put it all into perspective from a later genera-
tion. Much, I suspect, in Dr. Butterfield’s mild regret in his Foreword, is
that both he and I would have relished some of Mr. Windolph’s views in a
sharply more contemporary setting.

Judging from what Mr. Windolph has said in his commentary on
“Defending a Bad Cause,” in his description of the life of “The Country
Lawyer,” and in “A Letter to My Father,” we would have profited from
his philosophy of the lawyer’s role in this new scene of public interest law—
or what some of my younger contemporaries describe as “underdog law.”

Windolph says very cogently that “a measure of compensation for small
fees and for the lack of great cases is to be found in that sense of legal
totality which comes from a general practice.” But even as he says this,
he avows that in representing the individual client, he is representing the
interests that are embodied in our elemental values; and although some of
the procedural techniques of the law have changed, its essentials have not.

As I read these essays, for all of Mr. Windolph’s dedication to “Leviathan
and Natural Law,” and what many of his colleagues would conceive as
conservatism and “strict constructionism”—to borrow a currently fashion-
able phrase—I see him as a lawyer in the forefront of those who would use
the law as an instrument to fashion the quality of the social order in which
he lives. There lies in these Selected Essays something for the historian,
something for the philosopher, something for the litterateur, and some-
ting for the legal innovator. This great composite of a career of scholar-
ship and professional competence and judgment that demonstrates what a
lawyer’s life is all about represents much more than how a lawyer works
and what he thinks about.

It synthesizes an ideal, an aspiration, a complex of the concerns of a
self-professed country lawyer, who is far more sophisticated and far more erudite than most computerized city lawyers could ever hope to be. These essays are both a country lawyer's invaluable historical account of the legal practice as it used to be decades ago and his own profound philosophy of what a great profession is all about.

The abiding value of Mr. Windolph's essays are that they rest firmly in a philosophy of pursuing perceived, if not assured ends, and that they are inspired through advocating the modest causes of human beings, whose interests have to be realized in the law, however tortuous and protracted its processes may be.

Real life causes, advocated by a real life advocate, whose modesty impels him to costume himself in a country lawyer's guise, deserve recognition of more than his peers, who can understand him for what he is. These essays disclose Lyman Windolph as a philosopher, a scholar, and a consummate advocate of the individual causes that have built up the abiding institution of our judicial system.

Philadelphia

ROBERT M. LANDIS

Population History of New York City. By IRA ROSENWAYKE. (Syracuse, N. Y.: Syracuse University Press, 1972. xvii, 224 p. Appendixes, tables, bibliography, index. $12.00.)

This volume deals with the population changes and composition of New York City over virtually its entire history, from 1625 up to 1970. The author, a demographer, has assembled and discussed data pertaining to the successive racial and ethnic components of the population, their births and mortality, religious affiliations, and geographical distribution. He has attempted, as he went along, to identify the so-called "typical" New Yorker of the various eras.

The work, particularly in its many pages of statistical tables, is a convenient and useful reference volume which draws together data from many scattered sources, principally official census and registration reports. It is unique in that few if any other compilations of this nature and comprehensiveness have been prepared for American cities. As an authoritative collection of historical population data, it will doubtless be much used by students of urban history, immigration history, and New York history, though advanced scholars will want to go back to the unabridged original documents.

While readers with demographic training may wish to argue with some of the author's selections or analyses of data, historians generally should not find much fault with the technical contents of the book. Unfortunately, the same cannot be said about the historical character of the volume. One particularly conspicuous shortcoming is the serious disparity between
Rosenwaike's treatment of New York's population before 1800 and that of the period after 1800. The abundance of increasingly reliable statistical data for the latter period ensured full coverage of the nineteenth and twentieth centuries. However, the paucity of easily accessible earlier published data proved damaging to the author's discussion of the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries. For this long period he drew what little was available from a few standard document collections, such as those of Jameson and O'Callaghan, and then fell back heavily upon information in secondary sources. He appears to have made no effort to bolster the meager record provided in these few sources by ferreting out further demographic data of these earlier centuries from colonial newspapers, reports of Royal governors and customs officials, tax lists, muster rolls, or other potentially fruitful sources.

In several other respects the work is equally weak historically. The author relies on a very sketchy fund of historical knowledge to provide a setting for his masses of demographic facts. He shows no awareness of current interpretations of American history and draws his background information predominantly from older secondary works; only a handful of the histories listed in his bibliography were published within the past ten years. While Rosenwaike has organized his material well and presented it clearly, the tone of his treatise seldom rises above the dull flatness of the many census tracts from which it was drawn. More seriously, his work gives little sense of the people who were involved in this large demographic drama, and it lacks the breadth or the suggestive generalizations which would make it more than a technical analysis.

In short, the author's objectives are disappointingly unambitious. He misses the opportunity to examine in detail the mechanics and personnel of population enumeration and vital statistics registration across three centuries. He has no interest in the population theories of New York economists, politicians, or physicians. His account remains arid and unprovocative because he is little concerned with relating the population growth of New York to the vast consequences of that growth at any historical point in time, to the complex problems of housing, sanitation, welfare, crime, transportation, and the rest. I, for one, hope that Mr. Rosenwaike will apply his technical expertise to some of these matters in a future study, but I recommend that he consider taking on a historian as collaborator.

National Library of Medicine

It is usually understood that the great problem of the Quaker community was its difficulty in reconciling its doctrine of nonviolence, formulated from the vantage point of the seventeenth-century dissenting subject in Britain, with the necessity of exercising authority in Penn's colony where Quakers found themselves in a leading position. Wellenreuther focuses his attention on the somewhat narrower question of how the Quakers could combine this responsibility with their "Peace Testimony" that apparently forbade military action. He does a good job in pointing out the subtle subterfuges and distinctions in which Quaker politicians took refuge when confronted with the necessity of living up to their imperial duties. The basic alternative—money grants or loss of political rights—surfaced clearly as early as King William's War. The formula then found, *i.e.* allotments to be made "for the support of government," was improved during the 1740's. The declaration of June 10, 1748, which spelled out the willingness of the Assembly to bear expenses "for the good of the province" actually became the basis upon which the future grants during the Seven Years War could be arranged.

The value of Wellenreuther's work lies in the extensive archival studies he has undertaken to develop the intricate ways Quaker thought and action took in the political as well as the religious spheres during these crucial decades. Approaching the task in a more scrutinizing fashion than Sharpless had done in his venerable study, Wellenreuther is able to point out the origin of the various factions that opposed each other, and combine his and other newer findings into interesting conclusions. Political and religious leadership apparently parted ways in the 1750's. The latter, at least for a time, became strongly influenced by the activities of the rather apolitical, orthodox branch of Quakerism which found some substantial justification for its opposition in the critique of the elitism of the politically and economically leading group. Only when the Paxton Boys showed up in 1764, *i.e.* when a genuine danger to the entire community became apparent, was the idea of established authority accepted again universally. The Revolution that was to come a good decade later saw the Quakers in the Loyalist camp.

It is unfortunate that the author could not take care of the opinions presented in R. Bauman's *For the Reputation of Truth* (Baltimore, 1971), which came out when the presently discussed work received its finishing touches. The apparent differences in interpretation will hopefully engender a fruitful debate.

Wellenreuther's study, at any rate, is marked by its clear concept and good documentation. Some tables depicting the lifespan and affiliations of the Assembly members have been prepared with loving care.

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