BOOK REVIEWS

On Records: Delaware Indians, Colonists, and the Media of History and Memory. By Andrew Newman. (Lincoln: University of Nebraska Press, 2012. 328 pp. Illustrations, notes, bibliography, index. \$45.)

The 1881 edition of John Heckewelder's History, Manners, and Customs of the Indian Nations Who Once Inhabited Pennsylvania and the Neighboring States provides Andrew Newman, an associate professor of English at Stony Brook, with four "stories" that serve as the basis for the chapters in this volume (1–2). Newman's use of the term "Delaware," a European name synthetically applied to a varying number of Native American tribes, telegraphs the contents of this work. Newman admits that "Heckewelder's account appears to be a composite from different sources, or perhaps the different strands of oral tradition had already comingled before his coming" (63). The same can be said of the contradictory elements within Newman's narrative. The long introduction announces that "missing records figure prominently in this book" (20). The author's approach to the documents and the way he uses Heckewelder's recalled narrative suggest that Newman may be heir to Francis Jennings' approach to history: integrating hearsay and opinion with evidence from supposedly absent documents.

The first chapter reprises what is known of the Walam Olum, but without the focus and clarity of David Oestreicher's works, on which Newman draws. He then devotes the second chapter to recounting the legend of the Phoenician Queen Dido and her supposed defrauding of a native people of lands on which to found Carthage. This common tale, with its own number in Stith Thompson's Motif-Index of Folk-Literature, is not used to demonstrate culture contact, but to imply that the Lenape were defrauded of their lands. That descendants of the Lenape had borrowed this fiction, along with various Christian concepts, would not surprise anyone with training in folklore. But Newman's essay has a different intent. In chapter 3, juxtaposition of the Dido legend with a fictional Penn treaty clearly is meant to suggest that the non-treaty was a fraud.

Chapter 4 links the Walum Olum to the fantasy of Penn's supposed "Treaty" (singular) with the Indians, a fiction that is largely a creation of Benjamin West's famous painting (1771–72). Newman ignores the dozens of treaties over twenty-one years at which Penn negotiated with each of the Lenape bands to purchase all of their lands (see Donald H. Kent, ed., Early American Indian Documents: 1607–1789, vol. 1, Pennsylvania and Delaware Treaties, 1629–1737

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[Washington, DC, 1979]). These real treaties are essential for understanding the 1737 meeting at which four natives from New Jersey, recent immigrants to Pennsylvania, signed off on a tract of land that included the forks of the Delaware. Even Newman acknowledges that these immigrants had, at best, squatters' rights to this no-man's-land (shared resource zone) and had no idea of its boundaries. As usual, both sides knew what they were doing. The forty pages of notes, thirty-one pages of references, and thirty-seven-page index suggest massive scholarship, but each reveals problematical procedures. Uncritically mixing popular ideas with historical documents and loaded commentary, Newman's essay fails to satisfy my minimal requirements for scholarship in history, folklore, or anthropology.

West Chester University

MARSHALL JOSEPH BECKER

The True Image: Gravestone Art and the Culture of Scotch Irish Settlers in the Pennsylvania and Carolina Backcountry. By DANIEL W. PATTERSON. (Chapel Hill: University of North Carolina Press, 2012. 496 pp. Illustrations, notes, bibliography, index. \$49.95.)

The Scotch Irish, as numerous scholars have shown, are a difficult group to pin down. In *The True Image*, Daniel Patterson presents a new perspective from which to view these complex immigrants from Ulster by examining over one thousand gravestones carved in the early Pennsylvania and Carolina backcountry.

The book follows the lives and work of a group of stone carvers led by Samuel and William Bigham in southeastern Pennsylvania during the 1750s and western North Carolina from 1760 to the early 1800s. Connecting these works of funerary art to the values of the people who commissioned, created, and viewed them, Patterson interprets the emblems and inscriptions on the gravestones as a means of viewing Scotch Irish culture. The emblems document the growing importance of family heraldry and freemasonry among the wealthier Scotch Irish settlers. The inscriptions not only reveal the importance of Presbyterianism to the Scotch Irish but also document the growth of evangelicalism within the church.

Patterson, however, moves well beyond these monuments to document the diversity of individual experiences within Scotch Irish culture. His analysis of the gravestones and the people around them reveals the splintering of the Scotch Irish along class and religious lines after the Revolution. One group of Scotch Irish families, notably the Polks and Alexanders, adopted the eastern planter elite's way of life, gained wealth by purchasing slaves and speculating in lands in Tennessee, commissioned gravestones made in Charleston, and placed secular

inscriptions on them. Other families, such as the Bighams and Kelseys, clung to the worldview of yeoman farmers and artisans—sometimes even to the point of opposing slavery—moved north and west, and abandoned Presbyterianism to join the Baptists and Disciples of Christ.

The True Image, unfortunately, suffers from a split personality. At times, it is a wonderful coffee-table book filled with photos of gravestones, family stories of frontier conditions in the backcountry, and local legends of heroic Scotch Irish resistance to the British during the Revolution. At other times, it is a trenchant analysis of the splintering of Scotch Irish culture in western North Carolina after the Revolution. Unfortunately, the author does not always sew these two threads into a seamless narrative. Patterson's interpretation of the emblems and inscriptions appears in two lavishly illustrated chapters that are not directly connected to the other sections detailing the diversity of life among the Scotch Irish. The legends and stories, while interesting, are of questionable reliability as historical sources and contribute little to the analysis of the gravestones and Scotch Irish culture. In the end, the book's dual focus prevents Patterson from realizing the full ramifications of his evidence, which clearly demonstrates the decline of a cohesive Scotch Irish identity in nineteenth-century western Carolina.

Despite these drawbacks, Patterson has made a signal contribution to the study of the Scotch Irish, the colonial backcountry, and the early South. He has reminded historians of the value of material culture in interpreting past peoples and cultures and has suggested new avenues for studying the identity of the Scotch Irish and other ethnic groups in early America.

Oldfields School Kevin Yeager

The Unfinished Life of Benjamin Franklin. By DOUGLAS ANDERSON. (Baltimore: Johns Hopkins University Press, 2012. 228 pp. Illustrations, notes, index. \$55.)

Douglas Anderson's new work, *The Unfinished Life of Benjamin Franklin*, is an alternatively fascinating and frustrating meditation on Franklin's famous autobiography. A specialist in early American literature and author of *The Radical Enlightenments of Benjamin Franklin* (1997)—one of the best treatments of the founder's worldview in the last twenty years—Anderson here seeks to restore the complexity of Franklin's legacy "by substituting his memoir for his life," stressing that he is writing "about a book, not a man" (ix, 1). Anderson's design, however, does not necessarily serve his ends well.

Space does not permit a description of the circuitous route to publication of what came to be known as *The Autobiography*. Anderson provides important insights into its composition, particularly regarding the importance of both a

1775 letter by Franklin to his soon-to-be-alienated son and of an unpublished book of ethics, the "Art of Virtue," in Franklin's plans to complete his memoir. Anderson sets out his interpretation in an introduction, five chapters, and a conclusion—an arrangement that roughly adheres to the structure of the *Autobiography* itself and mirrors what he calls Franklin's "process of assembly and of disassembly": one of numerous point-counterpoints that mark Anderson's prose (11). Anderson is a gifted writer, and his new work is admirably, even elegantly, concise. His crisp reference notes, in which he rescues Franklin from literary and historical reductionists, form an important subtext to the work.

At the same time, The Unfinished Life serves as an object lesson in the differences between literary and historical criticism. Anderson's eagerness to convert Franklin's life into a form of composition leads him down some bumpy paths. Two examples will suffice. In chapter 1, the author treats Franklin's rediscovery of John Bunyan's Pilgrim's Progress at a critical juncture in his life's journey as significant and providential (18–30). Yet Franklin's own words make clear that his attraction to the book was aesthetic—he appreciated it as a printer and an aspiring writer—rather than religious. Likewise, the famous cartoon of the American colonies on the eve of the French and Indian War, represented as a segmented snake in need of uniting—published in the Pennsylvania Gazette in 1754 and featured at the end of Anderson's book—appeals to us for its providential implications, so easily grafted onto the events of the Revolution more than ten years later. But there is no evidence that Franklin had the image in mind, as Anderson somewhat magically proposes, when he attempted to conclude his memoir thirty years later (182–91).

In short, the author treats Franklin's recorded memories as if they had been composed with a novelist's imaginative intent—complete with controlling narrative scheme, invented characters, and sustained metaphorical meaning—rather than as a historical text, using the tools of fictional narrative but contingent on memory, claiming to be true to the historical record, and presenting its elements as fact rather than invention. In this way, Anderson misses some opportunities, since in both novelistic and autobiographical texts, the matter of writing style is preeminent—a subject about which contemporary historians are too frequently tone-deaf. Franklin was among the influential stylists of his period, through his work as a printer in Philadelphia, as a scientist, and as a polemicist during the Revolution. As Carl Van Doren wrote in his 1938 biography, Franklin "seldom wrote a line without some characteristic touch of wit or grace." The first part of the autobiography is classically Franklinesque: filled with tales of family quarrels, filial love, boyish pranks, hard work and study, betrayals revealed, mistakes admitted—and, yes, some sex and violence—relayed in remarkably modern prose. The latter sections, begun in 1784 in response to two acquaintances' entreaties that the founder finish his work as yet another monument to his accomplishments,

are far less engaging—not surprisingly so, given the new weight that the stifling condition called "legacy" imposed on Franklin's authorial gifts.

How Franklin honed his writerly skills, and why the autobiography itself is compositionally both a success and a failure (point-counterpoint), are subjects that deserve greater attention in Anderson's intriguing work.

California State University, East Bay

DEE E. ANDREWS

From Liberty to Liberality: The Transformation of the Pennsylvania Legislature, 1776–1820. By ANTHONY M. JOSEPH. (Lanham, MD: Lexington Books, 2012. 201 pp. Notes, tables, appendices, index. \$65.)

In From Liberty to Liberality, Anthony M. Joseph highlights the role of the legislature in Pennsylvania government in the early republic—a subject that has received little attention from historians. Joseph argues that the Pennsylvania legislature "from 1776 to 1820 expanded its range of republican values to include 'liberality,' and in that expanded range liberality came to hold the central place" (4).

In five chapters Joseph demonstrates how the General Assembly "reconceptualized itself as an institution of liberality, built to dispense public authority and public funds to private citizens in furtherance of the public good" (181). In chapter 1, Joseph analyzes the role of petitioning as means of creating legislation. The number of petitions rose dramatically over the period—from less than one hundred to more than six hundred per year. Eventually, however, the use of bills to introduce legislation replaced the petition process.

As petitioning grew, the public's critical view of the legislature led it to expand its agenda from a singular approach to lawmaking to a broad approach through statutory lawmaking (chapter 2). The legislature also began oversight of the judiciary through impeachment in the first decade of the nineteenth century. Noted newspaper editor William John Duane wanted the legislature to play a larger, more productive role in providing for the general good. This movement for improvements is studied in the book's final three chapters.

Chapter 3 treats the various types of taxation introduced in early republic—era Pennsylvania. Interestingly, the state's ability to make a profit from the federal government's assumption of Pennsylvania's war debt in the 1790s—as well as the sale of western lands—led to surpluses for the state that resulted in a no-taxation policy over most of the period.

In chapter 4, Joseph outlines how the creation of the first banks in Philadelphia from 1791 to 1813 led to the passage of a general banking act of 1814. This legislation established banking districts and led to the creation of forty-one banks throughout the state; in this way, a monopoly would be eliminated and money would be available to everyone outside of Philadelphia.

Finally, chapter 5 shows how the legislature's movement to liberality not only led to its expansion of internal improvements to ameliorate economic and social conditions within Pennsylvania but also put it in competition with states such as New York and Maryland. The legislature moved from investment in banks to direct aid and investments in improvement projects such as turnpikes. It also tried to introduce lotteries as sources of income, but was not successful beyond the first decade of this venture.

Joseph has written a penetrating, important study of the General Assembly in the early republic that helps readers further understand how political, constitutional, and economic developments came about in the midcentury.

Duquesne University Center for Legal Information/
Allegheny County Law Library JOEL FISHMAN

Mortals with Tremendous Responsibilities: A History of the United States District Court for the Eastern District of Pennsylvania. By HARVEY BARTLE III. (Philadelphia: Saint Joseph's University Press, 2011. 285 pp. Notes, appendices, index. \$35.)

Historical research on the federal courts has, of course, centered on the United States Supreme Court; the lower federal courts have received less attention. In recent decades, however, there has been a growing interest in the US circuit and district courts. In *Mortals with Tremendous Responsibilities*, Harvey Bartle III, chief justice of the District Court for the Eastern District of Pennsylvania from 2006 through 2011, has written an informative history of this judicial body, located in Philadelphia. The first part of the title comes from fellow judge C. William Kraft Jr.'s characterization of the importance of what judges do (xiii).

In nine chapters, Bartle provides a chronological history of the court—and biographical sketches of its judges—from 1789 to the first decade of the twenty-first century. Under article 3, section 1 of the Constitution, the US Congress is responsible for the creation of the "inferior Courts as the Congress from time to time ordain and establish." The district court served as the sole trial court for the eastern half of the state from 1789 until 1901, when a middle district was created and the eastern district was reduced to only ten counties in southeastern Pennsylvania (93).

Of the ninety-three judges, there were only nine appointees through the end of the nineteenth century; nineteen from 1901 to 1960; forty-seven from 1961 to 2008; and seventeen from 2000 to 2008. George W. Bush appointed thirteen; Nixon and Reagan, twelve; George H. W. Bush, eight; Johnson and Clinton, six; Eisenhower, five; FDR and Truman, four; Washington, three; and thirteen pres-

idents appointed only one. President Johnson appointed A. Leon Higginbotham Jr. as the first African American judge in 1964, while President Carter appointed Norma Shapiro as the first woman judge in 1978. Between 1912 and 2004, twelve judges became federal circuit court judges. The court today has twenty-two judges and eleven senior judges.

The scope of the cases heard by the district court expanded over the two centuries based on new statutory law passed by Congress. During the first eight decades, the court primarily heard criminal and admiralty cases. After the Civil War, Congress for the first time gave courts general jurisdiction over cases arising under the Judiciary Act of 1875. Beginning with the Sherman Antitrust Act of 1890, the growth of statutory and administrative law has resulted in expanded categories of cases such as commerce, bankruptcy, organized labor, communications law, civil rights and civil liberties, political corruption, multidistrict litigation, and intellectual property.

Throughout each chapter, Bartle highlights important cases, especially those that were eventually decided by the United States Supreme Court, such as Minersville School District v. Gobitus (1940) (civil rights); US v. Ginzburg (1960) (obscenity); Abington School District v. Schempp (1963) (First Amendment); Lemon v. Kurtzman (1971) (First Amendment); Matsushita Electrical Industrial Co., Ltd. v. Zenith Radio Corp. (1986) (antitrust law); Planned Parenthood of Southeastern PA v. Casey (1992) (abortion); and Markman v. Westview Instruments (1996) (patent law).

The author provides a useful appendix of the judicial appointments of each judge, as well as other appendices listing the chief judges, magistrate judges, bankruptcy judges, and clerks of court; indices of subjects and cited cases are also provided.

Judge Bartle, with his colleagues' support and that of the court's historical society, has written an important introduction to this district court that has an impressive 220-year history. This work will serve as the basis of future work on the court and its personnel and will serve as a model for the history of other district courts.

Duquesne University Center for Legal Information/
Allegheny County Law Library JOEL FISHMAN

Freedom's Cap: The United States Capitol and the Coming of the Civil War. By GUY GUGLIOTTA. (New York: Hill and Wang, 2012. 494 pp. Illustrations, notes, bibliography, index. \$35.)

The United States Capitol has often served not only as a symbol of American democracy but as a metaphor for American history. George Washington laid the cornerstone in 1793. Its location on Jenkins Hill ensured that the edifice would

dominate the landscape of the nation's capital. The building's layout reflected the constitutionally mandated two-house legislature, separated by a dome—at first a low, wooden dome, clad in copper, and later, as the nation grew and the Capitol expanded, a magnificent iron dome-within-a-dome topped with a colossal statue.

Guy Gugliotta's fascinating, well-written book picks up the story of the Capitol in the tumultuous decade leading up to the Civil War. The author weaves the architectural history of the building with the politics and culture of Washington, DC. It may surprise some readers to learn that it was Jefferson Davis who led the effort for a major expansion of the Capitol in the 1850s. By the end of that decade, he would resign his seat in the US Senate when Mississippi seceded from the Union and he was elected president of the Confederate States of America.

Gugliotta, a longtime writer for the Washington Post whose beat was Capitol Hill, thoroughly researched this work, drawing on the extensive records of the Office of the Architect of the Capitol and the Library of Congress as well as congressional reports and the work of architectural historians—especially William C. Allen, the distinguished architectural historian of the Capitol. He documents the story from several perspectives, including that of Captain Montgomery C. Meigs, an army engineer who was placed in charge of the Capitol's expansion when Franklin Pierce became president and transferred the construction to the War Department. Gugliotta makes excellent use of the extensive and candid diaries that Meigs kept about his work on the Capitol. He recorded his journal in shorthand, and these notes were only translated, transcribed, and published for the first time in 2001. Thomas U. Walter, the architect of the Capitol in the 1850s, clashed frequently with Meigs over many aspects of the construction. Meigs wanted the president of the United States to fire Walter, but when James Buchanan took office in 1859, it was Meigs who was dismissed and reassigned to Fort Jefferson in the Dry Tortugas. He returned again to direct work on the Capitol in February 1861, a vindication of his important role.

Work on the Capitol was well underway when the Civil War began. The building was coming together just as the nation was about to be torn apart. When Lincoln took the oath of office on March 4, 1861, the new dome was covered in scaffolding and less than halfway completed. Once again Meigs was called away from his work on the Capitol, this time to assume the duties of quartermaster general of the Union army.

The crowning glory of the dome was a magnificent new statue by American artist Thomas Crawford, Freedom Triumphant in War and Peace: an allegorical figure of a woman holding a sheathed sword, a laurel wreath (a symbol of victory), and the shield of the United States. At the time, it was the largest sculpture in the nation—over nineteen feet tall and weighing fifteen thousand pounds. An early design of the statue had her wearing a freedom cap, a symbol from Roman

antiquity. Jefferson Davis, when still in the Senate, rejected this design, arguing that it too closely referenced the caps worn by freed Roman slaves. Crawford changed the headdress to an elaborate helmet with the head and feathers of an eagle.

On December 2, 1863, with the nation in the midst of war, the final piece of the statue, Freedom's head, was hoisted into place. Thomas U. Walter did not want a big fuss made because it seemed inappropriate to celebrate while the war was ongoing. Lincoln was too ill to attend. But thousands came to see the completion of the dome. Workers on the scaffolding raised an American flag, and cannons were fired to mark the event. It was Walter's moment of triumph. His old rival Captain Meigs, now Brigadier General Meigs, one of President Lincoln's closest advisers, was hundreds of miles away that day, coordinating supply lines for General Ulysses Grant's army in Tennessee and unaware of the ceremony that marked the mounting of Freedom's Cap and the completion of the Capitol's dome

Robert C. Byrd Center for Legislative Studies,
Shepherd University RAYMOND W. SMOCK

Lincoln and Leadership: Military, Political, and Religious Decision Making. Edited by RANDALL M. MILLER. (New York: Fordham University Press, 2012. 156 pp. Illustrations, notes, bibliographical essay, index. Cloth, \$55; paper, \$18.)

Some scholars consider Abraham Lincoln's leadership to be one of American democracy's greatest gifts to the world. This book exploring that leadership results from a conference held on April 19, 2009, sponsored by the Abraham Lincoln Foundation of the Union League of Philadelphia—a fitting location, since the Great Emancipator always argued that his political philosophy grew out of the Declaration of Independence.

The book's subtitle reflects the topics of the three papers presented at the conference. Gregory J. W. Urwin (Temple University) emphasizes Lincoln's lack of military experience as an unintended factor in prolonging the suffering in the conflict. Matthew Pinsker (Dickinson College) explores the possible rationale behind the puzzling "Blind Memorandum" Lincoln had his cabinet members sign; he further suggests that Lincoln was not just a self-made person but also a self-made politician. Harry S. Stout (Yale University) discusses the Second Inaugural Address as "America's Sermon to the World." The text of the speech is included as an appendix.

The opening and closing essays do a fine job of putting the three provocative conference papers into perspective. An introduction by Randall M. Miller (St.

Joseph's University) presents a tour de force on Lincoln's leadership, agreeing with David Donald's characterization that it reflects Lincoln's "essential ambiguity." Allen C. Guelzo's afterword emphasizes Lincoln's persistence, resilience, humility, knowledge, loving drudgery, and persuasion. Yet he also notes three deficiencies: workaholic tendencies, unconscious arrogance, and military inexperience.

If there is an underdeveloped aspect in the essays that might have contributed to a greater clarification of Lincoln's leadership, it may be an international dimension. In the twentieth century, Franklin Roosevelt, Jawaharlal Nehru, Willy Brandt, and Nelson Mandela were all deeply influenced by Lincoln. Like him, they were able to resolve their "outsider" issues positively by self-actualizing through the political arena. In brief, they were "rational-democrats" who enjoyed working on public policy issues. These types of leaders sometimes get too far ahead of public opinion, assuming that everyone is rational.

Overall, this volume will appeal to scholars, Lincoln enthusiasts, and students. It offers readers a real bargain in a brief volume—perhaps the best bang for the buck of any Lincoln book on the market. The editor, contributors, and publisher deserve major credit for producing this thoughtful, readable, and enjoyable book.

Louisiana State University in Shreveport

WILLIAM D. PEDERSON

The Struggle for Equality: Essays on Sectional Conflict, the Civil War, and the Long Reconstruction. Edited by ORVILLE BURTON, JERALD PODAIR, and JENNIFER L. WEBER. (Charlottesville: University of Virginia, 2012. 320 pp. Notes, index. \$45.)

Most scholars agree that no historian has contributed more to the study of the American Civil War than James McPherson. Not only through his own scholarship but—even more influentially—as an instructor, McPherson has helped pioneer new studies on a broad spectrum of topics ranging from the antebellum period to the civil rights era. The Struggle for Equality, a collection of seventeen essays authored by his former students, showcases McPherson's achievements as a professor and mentor. Like Battle Cry of Freedom, McPherson's most celebrated work, The Struggle for Equality incorporates numerous subfields of history—political, military, women's, African American, religious, and environmental—into one volume, thereby serving as a valuable resource for a variety of readers.

The first section, titled "Sectional Conflict," contains three essays. Ryan P. Jordan's article proves that although the Society of Friends was recognized for its antislavery initiative, Quaker rhetoric and church practices could not escape the

racism prevalent in nineteenth-century America. Chapters 2 and 3 provide brief biographies of two influential men of the Civil War period. Judith A. Hunter's essay on the career of James S. Wadsworth captures the general's transformation from a soldier solely defending the Union to a wartime politician campaigning as an abolitionist. Philip M. Katz's essay addresses "the tension between democracy and aristocracy in American political culture" by analyzing the life of John Meredith Read Jr., who served as a Republican politician, Union soldier, and American diplomat in Paris (42).

Joseph T. Glatthaar's essay regarding discipline in the Confederate army begins the second section of the book, which is dedicated to the four years of conflict. Glatthaar argues that critics are incorrect in attributing the collapse of the Confederacy to a lack of military discipline. Rather, he agrees with Peter Carmichael's Last Generation, which suggests that Confederate officers obtained "extraordinary service and courage from poorly fed and clad troops . . . by easing the reins of discipline" (72). Jennifer L. Weber's chapter describes how Union soldiers secured the reelection of Abraham Lincoln in 1864 by obtaining key battlefield victories, casting absentee votes, and writing letters home in support of Lincoln. Civil War scholars are familiar with Lincoln's inaugural speeches and the Gettysburg Address; Ronald C. White Jr.'s contribution, however, makes readers aware of Lincoln's last "stump speech," a public address read in September 1863 at a Union rally in Springfield, Illinois. Chapter 7, authored by Bruce Dain, focuses on Lincoln and race. Positing that "there remains no consensus" on the subject, Dain provides a brief analysis of Lincoln's relationship with race from his early life to the conclusion of the war (100). The final essay in this section focuses on the experiences of "public women"—"females who supported themselves solely through supplying multiple partners with sex for money" (119-20). Author Catherine Clinton provides three specific examples of events that involved "public women," featuring both Union and Confederate encounters.

The final section, titled "The Long Reconstruction," accounts for the majority of essays in *The Struggle for Equality*. Brian Greenberg's article highlights the efforts of Wendell Phillips in the postwar labor reform movement. James Longstreet's position as commander of the Louisiana state militia during Reconstruction is discussed in James K. Hogue's essay. Hogue traces the "strange career" of Longstreet from Confederate commander at Gettysburg in 1863 to leader of African American troops at the Battle of Canal Street in 1874. Thomas C. Cox's chapter examines the relief efforts provided during the Grasshopper Plague of 1874–78, thereby offering "important insights into the history of American social welfare" (173). The prevalence of racial injustice during the postwar period constitutes the topic of Tom Carhart's essay, as the author details the harsh treatment and court-martial of the first African American to graduate from West Point. In his essay "For God and Lodge," John M. Giggie explores the relationship between African American fraternal organizations and the church.

Michele Gillespie's piece on the career of author Mary Ann Harris Gay reminds readers that the Lost Cause movement flourished in large part due to the efforts of Southern women. Peyton McCrary describes how local politics served as a form of race control in his essay on the adoption of at-large elections in Norfolk, Virginia. Monroe H. Little, like Carhart, writes about an African American soldier during the postwar period. Little's article, however, documents an African American's account of World War II, something the author claims to be a rare source. The final section of the book closes with an article by Jerald Podair, who narrates the life of Bayard Rustin, an African American socialist who chose to support a largely white teachers' union during the height of the civil rights wars of the 1960s.

Murray State University

CARL C. CREASON

Capital of the World: The Race to Host the United Nations. By CHARLENE MIRES. (New York: New York University Press, 2013. 320 pp. Illustrations, appendix, notes, index. \$29.99.)

In Capital of the World, Charlene Mires provides a gripping account of the United Nation's search for a headquarters at the end of World War II. Of course, we all know how this story ends; the book opens with a photo of the Le Corbusier and Oscar Niemeyer–designed Secretariat building rising over Manhattan in 1949. Yet Mires—an assistant professor of history at Rutgers University–Camden and co-recipient of the Pulitzer Prize for journalism—studiously recounts every stage of the process, examining how "people in cities and towns across the United States imagined themselves on the world stage" (227). Along the way, she gleans insights into the contested nature of America's emergent internationalism—tensions between the public and the private, the modern and the archaic, and the local and the global.

Americans by no means agreed on where the putative "Capital of the World" should be built; in the course of the UN's search, nearly 250 localities were considered. (Mires has compiled a handy list of all of the contenders in the appendix.) The stakes were high. The site would become the axis of a recalibrated postwar balance of power, an acknowledged "center' of the world" at a pivotal moment of "political power struggles and changing ideas of distance, space, and time" (82). The headquarters' design also bore symbolic weight. Would the UN choose a suburban-style complex of freestanding structures connected by roadways? Or would this beacon of peace and freedom rise in the midst of an established city?

According to Mires, at the dawn of the so-called American Century, many in the United States remained ambivalent toward the forces of globalized modernity. In the field of contenders, she identifies two competing paradigms. On one side were local boosters—relics of a frontier area just emerging from a century of isolationism—who proclaimed the merits of their midwestern backwaters. Paul E. Bellamy urged delegates to consider his native Black Hills of South Dakota, where, he promised, they would enjoy "beefsteak[s] about *that* long . . . and *that* thick" (113). On the other hand, marketers from cities such as San Francisco, Detroit, and Boston delivered polished multimedia presentations. Philadelphia (which was among the finalists) took a similarly measured approach, playing up its historic association with American ideals of liberty and democracy.

Not everyone wanted the headquarters built in his or her hometown. Mires describes how residents of the posh suburb of Greenwich, CT, fought the UN's plan; they thought it would disrupt the "character of [their] community" through an "un-American" encroachment on their rights of private property and "self government" (167–68). Mires might have explored this episode even further, explaining how citizens marshaled conceptions of domesticity and localism to thwart the United Nations' proposal. She also could have spent more time detailing the implications of the final compromise—brokered by the Rockefeller family—that gave the UN its home along the East River. As recent scholarship by Samuel Zipp has shown, the selection, clearance, and construction of this site has much to tell us about midcentury planners' understandings of modernity and the "slum."

Those reservations aside, Capital of the World is a deeply researched, engagingly written journey through a neglected episode in American history. Academic and amateur historians alike will want to revisit this moment, when the United States was transitioning away from a century of folksy boosterism toward a modern age of global power.

Princeton University

Dylan Gottlieb

In the Crossfire: Marcus Foster and the Troubled History of American School Reform. By JOHN P. SPENCER. (Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania Press, 2012. 352 pp. Illustrations, notes, index. \$34.95.)

John Spencer has written a historical corrective about America's biggest educational problem: persistent and seemingly intractable achievement gaps that help sustain our two-tiered, racially biased society. In this book, he aims to complicate a common narrative in which preoccupation with equity and inclusion are abandoned in the Reagan era and replaced by improvements to educational quality and school accountability. Spencer acknowledges this periodization has historical usefulness but argues that it does not reflect the black experience. Marcus Foster is his archetype. Among such African American educators, excellence and

accountability were just as important as equity and inclusion from as early as the 1950s. Spencer's counternarrative, uncomplicated by the disparate experiences of Asians, Hispanics, or other minority groups, concentrates on improvement to the educational outcomes and life chances of African American boys attending urban schools after the Great Migration. This sharp focus offers a contrast to history textbooks that pursue universal themes.

We learn that Marcus Foster grew up in Philadelphia after his family migrated from Georgia in the 1920s, when schools and most other institutions were segregated and unequal. Life prospects for African American men were circumscribed by a lack of decently paid work. Disinvestment bequeathed diminished resources to black schools even as children became poorer and more socially isolated. Foster was convinced that educational achievement offered the most reliable path to overcoming such obstacles. Benefitting from an extended family, New Deal programs, and middle-class cultural capital, he was successful in elementary school, which gave him uncommon access to predominately white junior and senior high schools. After graduating from a historically black college, Foster taught elementary school. He was rapidly promoted to head a black elementary school and then to successively more difficult assignments within Philadelphia's black schools. In 1970 he accepted an offer to be Superintendent of the Oakland Public Schools. Three years later, the rising star was assassinated in a parking lot by three members of the Symbionese Liberation Army (SLA), gunned down with cyanide-packed bullets.

Throughout, Foster saw accountability—defined as schools, parents, communities, and young men themselves all taking responsibility for high academic performance—as a crucial part of the civil rights struggle. Excellence was not just expected of and modeled for his students; parents, teachers, principals, politicians, community groups, and the larger taxpaying public all became actors he would hold accountable, at least rhetorically. Closing achievement gaps was his ultimate measure of success. His views engendered support; he was the frequent recipient of Ford and Rockefeller Foundation funding and pioneered several waves of federal compensatory education experiments.

In distinguishing Foster's legacy, Spencer decries modern accountability policy in which "urgency has trumped complexity" (237). He recognizes but one obvious successor: The Harlem Children's Zone, with its strict accountability among families and teachers for academic performance and—as importantly—among politicians and philanthropists for local community services. School improvements are an insufficient response to achievement gaps and inequality of opportunity—still less to poverty. Even so, Foster's legacy suggests that achievement gaps can be narrowed if schools function as community resources and if education mobilizes collective responsibility.

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Allegheny City: A History of Pittsburgh's North Side. By DAN ROONEY and CAROL PETERSON. (Pittsburgh: University of Pittsburgh Press, 2013. 264 pp. Illustrations, bibliography, index. \$24.95.)

How many viewers of *Monday Night Football* featuring the Pittsburgh Steelers at Heinz Field realize that the stadium—like nearby PNC Park, the Pittsburgh Science Center, and the Warhol Museum—sits on the city's North Side, once a thriving Allegheny City? Lest we forget, two North Side authors—Steelers owner Dan Rooney and architectural historian Carol Peterson—have filled the void in a volume that is both intimate and informative. Structured chronologically, the book focuses largely on the city's physical growth and development from its founding in the late eighteenth century through its annexation by Pittsburgh in 1907 and its demise and resurrection in the twentieth and early twenty-first centuries. Throughout this strongly anecdotal work, the authors ooze nostalgia for Allegheny City's glorious past and the illustrious figures that once inhabited its urban space. For example, in discussing Woodlawn, hardware tycoon John T. Logan's mansion, the authors muse blissfully that Andrew Carnegie would have regularly walked by the stately edifice during his childhood.

Rooney and Peterson chronicle Allegheny's increasingly industrial past: its many cotton mills, its German breweries, its rolling mills, and the landmark Heinz pickle factory. We see the birth in 1847 of the Mexican War streets and the accumulation of wealth that this booming industrialism and development produced. In fact, the book is liberally punctuated with biographical sketches of the town's rich and famous—luminaries whose mills, businesses, and fine homes helped shape the image of Allegheny City as a prosperous place.

As a prominent industrial town, a satellite of the bigger and even more heavily industrialized Pittsburgh, Allegheny City harbored a proletariat of Germans, Italians, Slovaks, Croats, and Lithuanians. They appear in this book, but far less conspicuously than the denizens of "Millionaire Row." Of course, the city faced challenges—more and more as the town aged. It endured floods, labor conflicts, annexation by Pittsburgh, the Great Depression, two wars, and an ugly bout with deindustrialization and urban renewal that all but effaced its distinguished architectural legacy of Italianate, Second French Empire, and Richardson Romanesque piles. Postwar modernist planners waged a vendetta against the perceived obsolescence of the existing cityscape. In the 1960s and '70s, renewal destroyed the city's famed Allegheny Diamond, including the city's grand indoor market, and many prominent homes. Likewise, highway construction dealt similar blows until the Pittsburgh History and Landmarks Foundation (PHLF) and civic groups made preservation, not demolition, the new mandate. As part of resilient Pittsburgh—whose universities, medical complexes and high-tech prowess enabled it to adapt to a postindustrial, global economy—the North

Side—now home to stadiums, museums, and institutions of higher education—has become again a desirable place to live.

Allegheny City can make for enjoyable reading. But, alas, this book—which revels in the who, where, and when—fails to provide a distinguishable argument about the why and how of the once-vibrant town's growth, decline, and renewal. Although it contains a cornucopia of factual content, the narrative too often flows unevenly and bounces around chronologically. Without foot- or endnotes, many readers will beg for some indication of the sources of detail. While there are many useful images, a map would have been very helpful. Nevertheless, as a joyful paean to a once-important and thriving industrial city that still retains a prideful sense of place, the book fully succeeds in its purpose.

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