Lacking formal musical training, many historians are reluctant to explore musical genres and the insights that such research might reveal regarding issues of race, gender, and class within the historical and cultural context of the music. Yet music is often the fabric of our students’ lives, and historians are overlooking a major vein that could be mined in the classroom. These rich possibilities are well developed in *Birds of Fire* by Kevin Fellezs, Assistant Professor of Music at Columbia University. Basing his conclusions upon a close reading of musical recordings and critical commentary from the 1960s and 1970s, Fellezs argues that the fusion of jazz, rock, and funk provides a useful lens through which to view the cultural and political conflicts of a turbulent time in American history.

Conventional genre expectations were challenged in the 1970s by numerous artists, but Fellezs concentrates upon the music of Tony Williams, John McLaughlin, Joni Mitchell, and Herbie Hancock, who constitute his “Birds of Fire.” Fellezs defines fusion as “a merging of jazz, rock, and funk music aesthetics and practices and the subsequent (or, better, the further) blurring of these large-scale genre boundaries in articulation with other musical traditions that each musician enjoys in a more limited fashion” (p. 17). Primarily interested in what he terms the “broken middle,” Fellezs focuses upon the unstable space between art and commerce where musicians, especially from the rock and jazz genres, engage such issues as race, gender, class, and culture. For example, during the 1970s, many in the jazz community perceived their music as high art in contrast with more commercial and less sophisticated rock music. Racial identity was also an essential component of genre conventions, and jazz critics often censured black musicians who deserted the purity of the jazz experience for the white world of rock music.

Although he was denounced by purists, Fellezs credits Miles Davis and such seminal recordings as *Bitches Brew* (1970) with paving the way for the fusion movement. Tony Williams, a young African-American percussionist with Davis, was trained in classical jazz, but he enjoyed the music of rock artists such as the Beatles. Along with white guitarist John McLaughlin, Williams founded the fusion group Lifetime. Featuring a rock beat, Lifetime challenged musical hierarchies and rigid racial barriers. Lifetime, however, failed to find an audience, and a disappointed Williams dissolved the band. McLaughlin, on the other hand, found commercial success with the instrumental sound of the Mahavishnu Orchestra. Emphasizing the spiritual search for enlightenment, McLaughlin looked to India and world music for inspiration, broadening the possibilities of the broken middle.
While McLaughlin’s contributions to fusion are well known, Fellezs concedes that his focus upon Joni Mitchell, usually perceived as a folk-rock musician, may surprise some readers. Nevertheless, Fellezs concludes, “Mitchell’s positioning as a female folk-rock musician; her responses to music industry inducements, coercions, and demands; and, most important, her creative work, which not only fused musical genres but also synthesized music, painting, and poetry, uniquely illuminated fusion’s negotiations in the broken middles between artistic media, as well as musical genres” (p. 149). Furthermore, Fellezs suggests that Mitchell’s Canadian origins, representing a nation caught between the boundaries of post-colonialism and imperialism, predisposes her to question rigid definitions of identity. Although her collaboration with jazz great Charles Mingus, completed shortly before his death, was panned by critics and failed to attract an audience, Fellezs asserts that Mitchell’s efforts at fusion demonstrate an artistic vision that allowed her to negotiate the broken middle between genres, hierarchies, and racialized and gendered identities, while seeing both sides now, as one of her most popular songs suggests.

The final Bird of Fire examined by Fellezs is jazz pianist Herbie Hancock, whose variations of his hit “Watermelon Man” allowed the musician to explore rock and world music with his Afrofuturism, re-imagining black identity and representation. Fellezs argues that “Hancock’s multiple subject positions—fusion musician, acoustic jazz pianist, synthesizer designer, computer programmer, ‘hit song’ writer, and social critic—reveal, like the chameleon, his ability to make each distinct context a part of himself, blending into or standing out from the contextual background as necessary” (p. 219).

In the final analysis, Fellezs concedes that his Birds of Fire failed to create fusion as a developed genre within the music industry. Instead, fusion remains a set of musical practices and attitudes concerned with merging distinct musical genres, identities, and traditions of the broken middle, always challenging and pushing the boundaries of convention. In the hands of Fellezs, music is employed to provide insights into history and culture—a model and approach that historians should emulate in the classroom. Fellezs is a trained musician, but he writes in a manner that is understandable for the intellectually curious general reader. It may be a bit too abstract for most undergraduates, but Birds of Fire could be a provocative supplementary text in a history seminar dealing with American culture. Birds of Fire is also a volume that history professors seeking to engage musically engaged students might do well to consult. Finding the right note and beat to stimulate students in the modern classroom is never a bad move, and this reviewer has added a little Williams, McLaughlin, Mitchell, and Hancock to his iPod playlist.

Sandia Preparatory School, Albuquerque, New Mexico

Ron Briley


Raised in a traditional Southern Baptist family, Elizabeth H. Flowers only knew what she saw: women within her own congregation with an overwhelming presence, while men seemed peripheral. Southern Baptist history is written vice versa, with men in the foreground, and women on sidelines. An American religion historian, Elizabeth H. Flowers attempts to correct this inversion in Into the Pulpit, succeeding in illuminating the neglected story of Southern Baptist women.
After World War II, the Southern Baptist church proclaimed itself as a corporate entity, beginning its journey to becoming the most profitable Protestant denomination in the United States. Men then dominated both religious and business positions within the organization, while women prevailed in smaller, more interactive roles within the congregation—participating heavily in missionary work, Sunday school, and family and youth programming. The struggle for self-determination for women’s groups within the organization ultimately sparked controversy. Overriding racial controversies of the 1960s, the traditional roles of women have been used by male-dominated governing bodies as a means of determining “otherness” (p. 24). Flowers strives to give voice to those mostly stifled, and reveal the experience of women within the Southern Baptist Convention throughout the interdenominational struggles for power.

Flowers dives deeper into the culture of women in the Southern Baptist Convention (SBC) to reduce the gap of narratives. Through a decade of field research that led her throughout the southern United States and various camps of the SBC, Flowers reveals the experience of women throughout decades of struggle within the church, and how they fought to be heard. With persistence and determination, the Southern Baptist Women in Ministry group (SBWIM) and the Woman’s Missionary Union (WMU) gained recognition and increased autonomy within the church, only to be undermined by forced retention of patriarchal supremacy over important decisions. Both the moderate and conservative denominational camps have struggled for power, and women’s roles—specifically that of ordination—held precedence in power struggles. While Flowers’ story illuminates the defining of women’s roles as pivotal to power battles between the moderate and conservative camps of Southern Baptists, she lacks a clear definition of what women have actually achieved from these struggles. The story Flowers reveals is periodically successful, only to be revoked by the same male-dominated governing bodies facilitating success for women’s groups seeking identity.

Flowers’ explication of women’s experiences within the Southern Baptist Convention since World War II is imperative to the historical examination of the church and its doctrine, as well as in women’s studies. Her presentation of twenty-three women’s narratives she collected herself, combined with archival research of conferences and church-produced journals, empowers woman’s experiences and provides depth into the culture. Understanding the Southern Baptist convention from the eyes of the women who facilitated community and ensured that the church functions smoothly is important. College-level women’s studies and religious studies courses could benefit from Flowers’ work, as it is rare narrative that would greatly supplement examination of the church. However enlightened the reader may be regarding the experience of women, the overall conclusion from the book is that woman have not actually gained authoritative power within the SBC since World War II, but the role of women has remained a focal point. The book’s subtitle, *Women and Power since World War II*, leads the reader to question if it is women’s power or women’s relationship to power since the war that is the primary focus. Upon finishing the book, it feels as though the title should have reflected women without power. Either way, with minimal historical fumbles, Elizabeth H. Flowers thoroughly explicates the journey of women within the Southern Baptist Convention, and aids bystanders towards better understanding of the culture and doctrines of the convention.

*Austin Peay State University*  
Naomi Rendina

In this revised and updated edition of his earlier work, Mark Gilbert traces the political and institutional history of European integration from the years after World War II to the present day. The story of integration, Gilbert contends, is not one of unimpeded progress. Rather, it is a series of crises, each of which could have set European development on a different course. While the idea of European unity has been around for centuries, Gilbert argues that the story of integration really begins in 1945. It became possible only as a result of the Great Depression, fascism, and the Second World War.

Throughout this account, Gilbert engages in a number of historiographical debates. Starting the story in the postwar period, Gilbert discusses the European players who made integration possible and examines the significant role played by the United States in promoting intra-European cooperation. He provides a more nuanced interpretation of the role played by Charles de Gaulle, arguing that the general was working in support of a stronger Europe. This Europe would be led by national leaders rather than supranational institutions and the influence of the United States within this Europe would be greatly reduced. Gilbert also provides his interpretation of the events of 1990s. The push towards integration in that decade, which resulted in the Maastricht Treaty, was driven not by idealism, but by the fears of the enlarged Germany. Throughout the entire period, Gilbert demonstrates, political unity lagged behind economic integration, especially if such unity was accompanied by the loss of national sovereignty.

In this short work, Gilbert manages to provide a wealth of information on political history of the European integration. He particularly succeeds in tracing the numerous changes in the institutional framework of the European Union. The focus on political history, however, overshadows the social and cultural aspects of the story. The common people hardly appear in Gilbert’s account, except for an occasional poll result. Moreover, similar to many scholars, Gilbert pays disproportionate attention to France, Germany, and the United Kingdom, while a number of smaller countries are neglected. Despite of these shortcomings, this book should serve as an excellent reference for the instructors of the history of the European Union. While it is too technical to appeal to high school and introductory college levels, sections of it, unquestionably, are appropriate for graduate students and upper-level undergraduates. Moreover, for any student of European Union, this book is an excellent starting point.

Saint Louis University

Aleksey Kazakevich


Historian and journalist Jack Hurst, who has written a previous book on Nathan Bedford Forrest, returns to a man he has celebrated as a brilliant, if also sometimes difficult, leader who was underappreciated and misused by the Confederacy. In Born to Battle, Hurst adds an assessment of Ulysses S. Grant to suggest that the two generals proved adaptable and aggressive because of their humble backgrounds, prewar experiences and failings, and needs to prove themselves. In this study of Civil War military leadership, Hurst scores the West Point-trained generals as too often disdainful of volunteer soldiers and, unlike Forrest and Grant, thus unable to understand the best ways to motivate and manage soldiers to military success. Hurst emphasizes the importance of personality in explaining how men such as Forrest and Grant overcame what famed military historian T. Harry Williams once referred to as the “inertia of war,” in which leaders can thus seize the moment in campaigns.
Reviews

and battles when both sides are exhausted and action will win the day. Hurst writes in the tradition of battles-and-leaders, with a sure hand in describing the various engagements and a journalist’s eye for the telling detail. He also creates a “you-are-there” sensibility by juxtaposing detailed chapters of Grant and Forrest through the years, showing the parallel development of the two men. The result is a book at once readable and revealing.

Although Hurst came to the subject through Forrest, he does his best work in making the case for Grant as an innovator. Hurst’s Grant will not surprise students about the man and the war, but it will reinforce recent assessments of Grant as tough-minded and self-confident. More importantly, in contrast to some scholars, Hurst shows Grant as being more sensitive to, and sensible about, the needs of black troops, including his command that they be respected as soldiers. He also makes a very plausible argument about Grant’s savvy as a political general in the ways he maneuvered to get the incompetent, egocentric John McCleland removed from his command and, more importantly, in winning over Henry Halleck to become one of his supporters in Washington. In the end, though, Hurst counts Grant’s greatness in winning battles. Despite sometimes stumbling, especially at Shiloh, Grant managed his campaigns in the western theater with ingenuity and tenacity, and even celerity of movement. This is not the “butcher” Grant of popular belief.

Hurst is less successful in making the case for Forrest. He argues that if the Confederate command had gotten off its aristocratic high horse and respected Forrest for his genius, the Confederacy could have won the war. For sure, more attention to western needs would have changed the dynamics and direction of the war and favored southern fortunes, but there is no way to know how well Forrest might have done with more resources, more leeway, or more authority. Counterfactual historians—many of them working the Civil War—too often assume that all the other elements but their particular subject will continue to act and react as they did in fact, but, truth be told, new circumstances create new conditions and likely new thinking and behavior. Change one element, and all elements also go into motion. Similarly, it is more book marketing than evidence that the campaigns in the West necessarily “doomed the Confederacy.” As Gary Gallagher, among others, have argued so well, the resiliency of Confederate soldiers and resolve of southerners, derived in large part from their faith in Robert E. Lee and his army in the East, gave the Confederacy a staying power that might well have worn down northern support for the war if generals such as Grant, William Tecumseh Sherman, and Philip Sheridan had not delivered hard blows to Lee in the field and brought “hard war” to the South in 1864 and 1865.

Teachers will find much good material in Hurst’s book for lectures, and they can offer his “what if” arguments for discussion, with caution, but they will not find a major new reading of the war, the generals, or the fate of the Confederacy. What they will find in Born to Battle is an attention to issues of class and character that repays consideration and an instructive reminder that men make war in ways that reflect their personality as much as their principles. These are lessons for any age.

Saint Joseph’s University

Randall M. Miller


Recent economic trends encourage historians to revisit circumstances surrounding past downturns. This backward gaze is particularly focused on the events and primary figures involved in the Great Depression. Decades of harsh criticism for Herbert Hoover and plaudits for Franklin Roosevelt gave way recently to a more balanced narrative. The Herbert
Hoover Presidential Library Association led the way by publishing multiple volumes assessing the pre-presidential career of Hoover. Previous volumes written by George H. Nash and Kendrick Clements constructed an image of Hoover as a compassionate, earnest figure committed to public service. Glen Jeansonne takes up the challenge of assessing Hoover’s presidential years in *The Life of Herbert Hoover: Fighting Quaker, 1928-1933*.

Jeansonne spends considerable time depicting a fully realized Herbert Hoover, offering a glimpse into a private life rarely touched by other historians. Hoover’s wife, Lou, and their two sons are interwoven throughout the book as three-dimensional figures rather than background characters. A loving relationship between Herbert and Lou shows an emotional side often forgotten by historians. The beleaguered president did not sacrifice his Quaker values in the White House, remaining committed to boys groups and supporting the communities near his Camp Rapidan retreat. Jeansonne’s discussion of Hoover as an outdoorsperson in chapter 16 shows an angler looking for relaxation rather than a safe haven. These glimpses into Hoover’s private life reveal a public figure capable of balancing power with humanity.

*Fighting Quaker* features several chapters highlighting Hoover’s struggles to reform federal bureaucracy in the face of extreme partisanship. The Seventy-First and Seventy-Second Congresses spanning Hoover’s lone term were fractured by regional interests. Jeansonne depicts Republican and Democratic caucuses beset by internal power struggles that delayed passage of meaningful reforms. President Hoover acted carefully to work with party leaders behind the scenes without trampling on the sovereignty of Congressional power. These consultations included discussions of banking reforms, new revenue sources like sales taxes, and public works programs that would come to fruition after Hoover left office. Jeansonne exhibits an excellent command of the historical trends stymieing these reforms, including remnants of the Progressive movement in the Republican Party and a languishing global economy.

Every biography of Herbert Hoover requires at least a basic discussion of the president’s role in confronting economic crisis after October 1929. The author contributes significantly to the historiography of the Great Depression by balancing his examination between domestic and international issues. Jeansonne notes Hoover’s persistence in promoting government reform and fiscal modesty even as Democrats and Republicans thwarted these efforts. Hoover frequently met with outside advisers including bankers, governors, and economists to assess the national economic situation. Jeansonne’s work in *Fighting Quaker* is particularly strong during a detailed description of the lame duck period after Hoover’s defeat in 1932. The author contrasts Hoover’s efforts to reach out to Franklin Roosevelt with the future president’s reticence to even correspond with his political opponent. *Fighting Quaker* also details extensive efforts by the Hoover administration to work out debt issues with European powers to no avail.

The author tiptoes close to becoming too enamored of his subject, an occupational hazard for any biographer. Jeansonne often defends Herbert Hoover from readers inclined to side with Franklin Roosevelt or intransigent members of the Republican Party. This defense of Hoover no doubt stems from familiarity bred after extensive research at the Presidential Library in West Branch, Iowa. At times, *Fighting Quaker* paints Franklin Roosevelt and George Norris as cunning villains solely interested in acquiring power and Hoover as a public figure untainted by outside influence. Jeansonne concedes frequently that Hoover is human, though his lesser attributes are rarely discussed. Readers should be able to forgive the occasional reductive comparison thanks to Jeansonne’s otherwise impeccable narrative.

This fifth entry in the Herbert Hoover Presidential Library Association’s series seems ideal as a reader for undergraduate courses. Jeansonne’s narrative structure allows for
separation of each chapter into a self-contained article. Teachers looking for approachable articles on Hoover's foreign policy, dealings with Congress, and personal life would struggle to find a better text. *Fighting Quaker* taken as a whole only works for high-level undergraduate courses and graduate seminars dealing with presidential history. Jeansonne's years of research and writing on Herbert Hoover provide a blueprint for aspiring biographers preparing for careers in academia.

*Carroll University*  
Nicholas Katers

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The subtitle of Erik Larson’s excellent book covering William E. Dodd’s term as U.S. Ambassador to Germany from 1933 to 1937—*Love, Terror, and an American Family in Hitler’s Berlin*—appropriately suggests the juxtaposition of human emotions, political horrors, and domestic existence that characterized life in Nazi Germany in the years leading up to the Second World War. Larson holds a degree in Russian history and has written several other bestselling narrative histories.

William E. Dodd, Professor of History at the University of Chicago, was far from President Roosevelt’s first choice as Ambassador to Germany in 1933, but he was fluent in German, knowledgeable about the country, and willing to take the post that others turned down. Dodd sailed for Germany with his wife and two adult children, determined to represent American values as he saw them. Even before clashing with the Nazis, Dodd faced opposition at home by other diplomats and those around Roosevelt who were critical of Dodd’s belief that he should live on his salary and entertain within such restrictions rather than at the expense of the government or family wealth (the lack of which makes Dodd an outsider in the world of diplomacy). Nevertheless, despite his democratic aspirations, Dodd secured lavish lodgings fit for an Ambassador, because, as Larson points out, there was an availability of affordable furnished mansions that were, until recently, occupied by Jews who fled the country. The power of this book lies in observations such as these. Using a multitude of sources, Larson reveals, through Dodd’s eyes, the historical change that occurred on a daily basis as Hitler amassed more power and Jews faced increasing restrictions.

To capture the milieu, Larson focuses not only on the Ambassador, but on his daughter, Martha. In her twenties, she was as prolific as her father in her records and letters that detailed her life in Berlin. Her multiple affairs included a Nazi official and a Soviet spy, as well as American intellectuals. Larson vividly describes the city of Berlin and the official state functions and parties the Dodds must give and attend. He reveals the social and political changes the family observed. Martha was initially infatuated by the Nazis, while her father saw them as a temporary aberration; in 1934, he compiled a list of who he thought would take charge after Hitler fell. As the brutality of the regime increased, Dodd changed his opinion of the Nazis to the point where his opposition to them rankled his own opponents at home and eventually led to his resignation. Upon his return to the United States, Dodd went on a speaking tour of the country, quite vocal about events in Germany and his fear that the Nazis would lead the world to war; Dodd was dubbed “the Cassandra of American diplomats.” Dodd died in 1940, before his country’s entry into the war he had predicted.

History teachers should welcome this book as a companion to a study of Europe or World War II. Written as narrative nonfiction, it reads more like a novel than a monograph, but the
exhaustive endnotes attest to its scholarly nature. It features an extensive bibliography as well as a chapter, “Sources and Acknowledgments,” that further situates the diplomatic documents, memoirs, letters, etc., that bolster this unique perspective on this period of history.

California State University, Long Beach
Linda Kelly Alkana


Throughout America’s history, both the form and function of public schools has changed in accordance with the flow of the cultural, political, and economic trends of the nation. In School, Society, and State: A New Education to Govern Modern America, 1890-1940, the author explores the challenges of transitioning education from parental authority to state authority at both urban and rural levels, while simultaneously examining the goals and motives of education reformers at all levels of government. The book’s most compelling points are found within this discussion of reform, as the author suggests the evolving education system was not just a plank of the progressive movement, but rather a central focus in protecting democracy and promoting social equality.

In 1899, John Dewey claimed that the radical and sweeping changes in America’s social life must be mirrored in America’s education system, stating, “If our education is to have any meaning for life, it must pass through an equally complete transformation” (p. 8). The author immediately establishes the gravity of this transformation in the opening paragraph of the book’s introduction by relating the story of a young mother whose arm was broken by a truancy officer who had come into her home with state authority to forcibly remove her son and take him to school. In this story, the reader is instantly inserted into the battle between parents and government during the age of education reform. Regardless of where one’s sympathies lie, this story uncovers the difficult personal transitions involved in building a state-controlled education system.

The evolution of state authority in education was very different in urban and rural settings. Urban educators were facing difficulties that stemmed from the massive influx of diverse people groups, the rapid growth of industry that continuously widened the gap between wealthy and poor, and the corrupt practices of the patronage system. It was against this backdrop that multiple interest groups, ranging from middle-class reformers to professional educators to labor groups, began to enact education reform. Teachers began to be seen as “makers of society” (p. 21), a shift that necessitated reforms in both pedagogy and curriculum to meet the goals of preparing students to be responsible and democratic American workers. In many ways, the author contends, urban schools became the laboratory in which progressive education policies were crafted and perfected. While urban schools struggled with large-scale growth, rural schools faced the opposite problem as depopulation led to reduced tax bases and inferior education infrastructures. The challenge for rural schools was more complicated because rural systems represented a “federalist system with diffuse, fragmented authority and strong tradition of deference to local control, [and] rural school reform was a slow, uneven, messy process” (p. 81). Furthermore, shrinking populations due to urbanization led to curricular reform movements that promoted the teaching of agriculture so as to “keep the boy on the farm” (p. 53). The author’s treatment of the challenges, goals, and key actors in each environment shows the importance of reforms made both in cities and in the countryside and reveals the complex forces of change that were shaping education policy at the local, state, and national levels.
School, Society, and State: A New Education to Govern Modern America, 1890-1940 is an outstanding exploration of the causes and effects of the American Progressive Era through the lens of education reform. Because the book is comprehensive in addressing the social, political, and economic landscape of the period, it is an essential read for both faculty and students of United States history. Additionally, those pursuing a graduate degree in education should read this work to better understand the history of their profession. In an age of modern education reform, it is vital for future teachers and school administrators to recognize that the forces that shaped school models during the late 19th and early 20th centuries are very similar to the powers driving today’s debate on education reform. While the book is more appropriate for the college-level reader, high school teachers of United States history will also find great benefit in using this book as a resource, since the author uses historic narratives to provide a behind-the-scenes view of education reform that will enhance lectures and engage learners in a topic that is of the utmost relevance in students’ lives.

West High School, Knoxville, Tennessee

Rich McKinney


In Understanding the Victorians, Susie L. Steinbach’s purpose is to provide a systematic overview in the form of a twenty-one page chronological “timeline,” an up-to-date introduction, and twelve topical chapters. The chapters encompass the rural and urban landscape, the politics, the British Empire, and the ups and downs of the economy; and go on to deal with social class, gender, the monarchy, the law, arts and entertainment, sexuality, religion, and science. Although the work would seem to be primarily intended for college undergraduates, the author takes for granted that her readers will know where major British and Irish cities and many counties are located and that they will understand her historiographical references to, say, Marxist and Foucauldian approaches to history. The book includes endnote references to generalizations that may require substantiation, fifteen pages of prints taken from nineteenth-century journals, and lists of contemporary novels that may illuminate the era. It also includes a good index, but lacks both maps and a general bibliography.

The chief strengths of the book involve chapters meant to clarify the roles of women in public and in private life—in books and in shops, in theaters and in music halls, in parlors and in kitchens, in factories and in bedrooms. Ten of the thirteen chapters include references to prostitutes or prostitution, and nine of the pages on “Sexuality” are devoted to “Same Sex Desire.” The chief weakness of the book lies in its general organization. It is appropriate for a historian to write in topical fashion about a single decade or about two decades or even three—but not about an entire century (c. 1820 to c. 1920), especially when those hundred years involved the most dramatic changes in two millennia. The population of England and Wales alone tripled during that century. A still largely rural land became predominantly urban. The age of the stagecoach gave way to that of the railroad and increasingly that of the automobile and the airplane. Whereas back in 1820, horses on land and sailing vessels at sea determined the speed of communication, a century later, the telegraph and undersea cables spread instantaneous information through six continents and neighboring islands. Whereas many of the lands that constituted the British Empire in 1920 had become self-governing dominions (e.g. Canada, Australia, New Zealand), a century earlier, many colonies were still minuscule in population or were yet to be acquired. Whereas back in
1820, one adult male in seven had the right to vote for his Member in Parliament, a century later, close to universal adult suffrage for both sexes had been granted.

In the process of attempting to explicate all of these alterations in a relative handful of pages—and in seeking to incorporate information that distinguishes the Irish and the Scots from the English and the Welsh that made up the United Kingdom—Professor Steinbach resorts to all too many dubious generalizations about Victorian politics and imperialism and the ups and downs of the economy, such as “The Irish…were Catholic” (p. 116), a generalization that omits the twenty-five percent who were Episcopalian, Presbyterian, or Methodist. In a single page (p. 149), one also encounters four factual errors: In 1819, the Prince Regent, “gave the order that resulted in the death of 11 political protesters” (in fact, he commended the local magistrates who had ordered the yeomanry to charge). King William IV “was 69 years old when he was crowned” (he was 65). “Victoria became queen in 1837 when she was only nineteen” (she was eighteen). At the time of the Bedchamber Crisis, Lord Melbourne “lost his majority in the House of Commons and was forced to resign” (he ended up with a much-reduced majority, but he [temporarily] chose to resign).

Yet other generalizations in the book are both wise and witty: “Victorian Britain was defined by class, but not by class conflict” (p. 116). “Overall, Queen Victoria’s powerlessness should not be overstated” (p. 153). “Victorian culture was awash with law” (p. 160). Readers are alerted to the “Victorian impulse to enumerate, organize, centralize, and rationalize” (p. 161). In Victorian Britain, “evangelicalism is best understood as a way of life rather than as a theological doctrine” (p. 223). Yet whatever the virtues of individual paragraphs and even chapters, many readers may well find the work puzzling. They are provided with numerous colorful and sometimes provocative jigsaw puzzles and often eccentric timeline tidbits, but they will be compelled to fit those puzzle pieces together themselves if they wish to obtain a comprehensible portrait of a society that truly enables us to understand the Victorians.

University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign

Walter L. Arnstein


Students of all ages are intrigued by the seemingly exotic culture of ancient Egypt, with its mummies, pyramids, and supposed curses. No ancient Egyptian has received more press coverage and “brand recognition” than the young, short-lived King Tutankhamen, who—in one of the great twists of historical fate—was almost forgotten from history for thousands of years before Howard Carter discovered his tomb in 1922. In Tutankhamen: The Search for an Egyptian King, Joyce Tyldesley tells the story of the life, death, and rediscovery of this most well-known of ancient Egyptian kings for a general audience. After short explanatory notes, she divides the story into two parts: “Tutankhamen: Life and Death” and “Tutankhamen: Life after Death.” The first section, which fills the majority of the volume with seven chapters, explains our current knowledge about the king from the investigation of his tomb and other research. This information is integrated throughout a story of the modern discoveries that led to our current understanding. Tyldesley artfully weaves the ancient in with the not-so-old story of Howard Carter’s years of searching for and then excavating Tutankhamen’s tomb.

In part two, Tyldesley attempts to tackle the modern proliferation of alternative theories, rumors, and supposed curses applied to Tutankhamen, explaining how many of these
stories came about solely as a way to sell newspapers or books. The second chapter deals with the stories, rumors, and truths of misconduct (some instances of which were standard behavior for the time) surrounding Carter and his contemporaries.

Tyldesley succeeds in skillfully providing the varying scholarly theories and opinions about the life of Tutankhamen and his family within an engaging and accessible narrative. Because of the lack of ancient evidence available to definitively answer many of the questions about this royal family, most of these questions are likely to remain unanswerable with any certainty—a fact which Tyldesley usually acknowledges, though on some subjects, she gives the impression of certainty where it may not exist. Although the book does not take the form of a textbook that could be easily divided up into reading assignments by chronology or theme, Tyldesley does succeed in summarizing the current state of our knowledge about Tutankhamen and the time in which he lived in an engaging way for a general audience. Because of its accessibility, the book may lend itself well to the classrooms of high school students and some undergraduates, or as background research for the non-specialist teacher. In addition to telling Tutankhamen’s story, Tyldesley also paints a picture of the development from the early days of archaeology—essentially treasure hunting—to the modern scholarship and science of excavation. This aspect of the book provides an opportunity for instructors to introduce to the classroom the topics of modern excavation and the history of archaeology.

Tyldesley’s book is solid, and the following points are minor—nevertheless, they should be kept in mind when using this book in the classroom. While the volume is generally accessible for a variety of audiences, young American readers may have difficulty with the use of the British vernacular (e.g., “trebled” for “tripled”) as well as the use of metric measurements in chapter 5. Occasional errors may also cause some confusion (e.g., the incorrect footnote numbers in chapter 4 or the conflicting descriptions of Akhenaten as either Tutankhamen’s father or grandfather on pages 203 and 205, respectively).

While a quality book overall, it may on occasion give some readers the wrong impression about ancient Egypt and the study of its culture. For example, Tyldesley refers to ancient Egyptian religion as “paganism” (p. 28) rather than the currently accepted, culturally neutral term “polytheism,” a word choice that has the potential to lead readers to view ancient Egypt as inferior to other cultures. In other instances, she refers in passing to the development of Egyptology as a science (i.e., better archaeological methods and new technologies), often contrasting these advances with the study of ancient Egyptian language, giving the impression that the latter type of study is an outdated and unsound method. The reader should be aware that, while scientific advances have been invaluable, the study of ancient Egyptian documents is by no means an outdated mode of research and even today, it continues to evolve and shed new light on many aspects of ancient Egyptian history and culture.

Tulane University

Melinda G. Nelson-Hurst


Supreme Decisions is a collection of short essays by legal scholar Melvin Urofsky focusing on major U.S. Supreme Court cases chosen to illuminate both separation of powers and civil rights/liberties issues. Divided into two volumes (To 1896 and Since 1896) or available in one combined book, it offers readable prose, clear descriptions of cases, cogent
analysis situating those cases in specific times and places, and supplementary material. It is a good candidate for undergraduate U.S. history survey courses, or upper-division courses in U.S. constitutional law or legal history. Law professors seeking to supplement a constitutional law casebook would also find the book useful. Given its affordability, its scope, and its flexibility for inclusion in a variety of courses, *Supreme Decisions* is a welcome addition.

In the introduction, Urofsky laments the limitations of his own experience as a student of constitutional history, when he asked “Who were these people?” and “What were the larger social, economic, and political developments that lay behind their cases?” (p. xv). This book seeks to fill this void in available texts, and is an effort to “understand not just the jurisprudence of a case, but [also] the social conditions that surrounded it” (p. xvi). Given a vast number of options, Urofsky justifies his choices of cases using a few simple criteria—he not only focuses on cases favored as a teacher, but also those that “were important in the past but still resonate today” (p. xvi). While some readers may quarrel with his choices and/or omissions, the book nevertheless covers a respectable swath of important U.S. Supreme Court cases for students to consider. Included are ones you would expect to find in such a collection, including *Marbury v. Madison* (1804), *Dred Scott v. Sanford* (1857), *Brown v. Board of Education* I and II (1954, 1955), and *Roe v. Wade* (1973). Others are less expected, but nevertheless welcome: *Bradwell v. Illinois* (1873), focusing on access by women in the professions, and *Olmstead v. United States* (1928), an early case impacting questions of privacy. Moreover, Urofsky includes several chapters that bundle a series of cases worth discussing as a group—including what he calls “The New Deal Cases,” “The Gay Rights Cases,” and the “War on Terror Cases.” The latter chapters are especially notable, reflecting a goal of updating these kinds of texts to include more contemporary social and political issues being addressed by the Supreme Court today.

A notable strength of this collection is the relatively short length of the chapters—ranging from fourteen to twenty pages each—making this a useable companion to the actual text of Supreme Court opinions that faculty may already be assigning. Each chapter is generally organized in a similar way: including a brief discussion of the social and political context for the case (or cases), summarizing constitutional arguments offered by the various parties involved, providing an overview of the Court’s decision and rationale(s) of the justices, and assessing the wider impact of that case or cases in its time, frequently drawing parallels to contemporary issues facing the Court. At the end of each chapter is a list of readings that, while not exhaustive, provide students with a good starting place for further inquiry. Finally, the book includes a copy of the U.S. Constitution and a helpful glossary of terms, especially useful for students new to the study of constitutional law.

In his discussion of the “social conditions” surrounding each case, Urofsky draws mostly on legal and political history rather than social or cultural history, an approach some readers may find too narrow. For example, the chapter focusing on gay rights cases focuses primarily on the history of how such cases came before the Court rather than the long struggle by the lesbian, gay, bisexual, and transgender (LGBT) communities since the 1950s, much of which focused on civil rights and liberties and whether to pursue legal remedies as part of organizing strategies. However, including a chapter on how sexual orientation intersected with U.S. Supreme Court opinions is important and welcome.

Overall, *Supreme Decisions* is a helpful book for teachers and students of U.S. constitutional law and history. It covers a select—but useful—range of cases, can be ordered as separate volumes or bundled as one, provides useful historical context for the cases discussed, and draws connections between the cases of the past and those in recent memory.

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