
Catherine Allgor, author of the influential Parlor Politics: In Which the Ladies of Washington Help Build a City and a Government (2000) and Perfect Union: Dolley Madison and the Creation of the American Nation (2006) has established herself as one of the leading scholars of women and politics in the early Republic. Here, she turns her attention to writing a concise biography about Dolley Madison that echoes some of the same arguments as her earlier books, but is also designed for use in the classroom. Like other biographies in the Lives of American Women Series, Allgor focuses her story around a central theme that demonstrates how Madison represented or influenced the era in which she lived. In Dolley Madison’s case, the central theme is her pivotal role in creating and modeling a civil political culture that promoted national unity during the politically contentious period surrounding her husband’s presidency.

Most Americans probably remember Dolley Madison primarily for saving Gilbert Stuart’s portrait of George Washington during the British invasion of Washington City during the War of 1812. Allgor argues that this episode is important because, like so many others during her tenure as First Lady between 1809 and 1817, it reveals Madison’s deep awareness of the psychological importance of preserving symbols that fostered a sense of unity in an otherwise fragile nation and divisive political culture. Madison embraced her prominence as First Lady and used it to create and practice social rituals that encouraged negotiation and civil discourse. Her habit of making the first personal visit to the homes of local elites and government officials offered a less aristocratic, more democratic style to the Washington social world. Her uniquely Republican dress and manner captivated the Washington circle and set fashion. James and Dolley Madison’s weekly drawing rooms or receptions provided a congenial place for men and women from varying backgrounds and with opposing political views to meet personally and mix politically. Allgor argues that visitors may have come to the Madisons for access to political power, but what they often found was an opportunity to engage in bipartisanship. These social engagements stand in stark contrast to those of previous administrations—for instance, Thomas Jefferson preferred all-male dinners for politicians of the same political party.

This diminutive volume has the potential to make a large contribution to students’ understanding of women and politics in the early Republic. The story the author tells demonstrates that political roles for white women in the new Republic could be much more complex than that of the concept of Republican Motherhood students generally read...
about in their textbooks. Dolley Madison’s story makes a strong case for the argument that historians must look beyond the typical definitions of politics to find women’s political actions and influence, especially in an era like the early Republic when women enjoyed few political rights. Madison supported her husband’s political goal of national unity, but she practiced her own strategies for combining the social with political to accomplish that goal. In the process, she wielded considerable political power in her own right. Allgor contends that Dolley Madison was acutely aware that her public persona was vital to her political power and that she strived to protect it. The book concludes with a selection of primary sources from the Dolley Madison Digital Archives and an invitation from the author for readers to investigate the sources for themselves to determine whether they agree with her.

Whether scholars and students agree with the particulars of Allgor’s interpretation of Dolley Madison or not, it is hard to disagree with the author that James and Dolley Madison’s commitment to civil political discourse is a model for political behavior as valuable today as it was in the early 1800s. That alone makes *Dolley Madison: The Problem of National Unity* useful for the classroom.

*University of Central Missouri*

Sara Brooks Sundberg

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“Since the written constitution does not come with a complete set of instructions about how it should be construed, we must go beyond the text to make sense of the text” (p. x). So writes Yale Law School professor Akhil Reed Amar in his engaging, thoughtful, and provocative history of what he calls the “unwritten” U.S. Constitution. Amar organizes the book around what he calls methods used to discover that “unwritten Constitution,” including many well-chosen examples to illustrate. These methods include learning to read “between the lines,” examining the how the U.S. Constitution has been “enacted” in practice, and close reading of judicial precedent. Additionally, Amar looks at the U.S. Constitution through other kinds of lenses—including symbolism, feminism, and partisanship—revealing the politicized nature not only of the document’s construction, but also of its interpretation and application. While none of these methods are really new, putting them together in a single monograph makes the book unique. Most chapters include ample evidence for the various approaches suggested, as well as case studies and hypotheticals that are designed, Amar notes, to clarify the analysis and to “sharpen” the reader’s mind. In the final analysis, Amar suggests a need to understand a “single constitutional system.”

A few examples illustrate his approach. In a discussion of how the U.S. Supreme Court has interpreted the Constitution, Amar describes how judicial precedent shapes the meaning of the original text for future jurists, as well as how the Justices have sometimes flaunted or massaged precedent in new ways to achieve their goals. In some cases, he urges that the Court moved in directions not anticipated by the drafters of the original text nor within its historical spirit, such as with his extended discussion of the exclusionary rule in Fourth Amendment jurisprudence, cases whereby tainted evidence might be excluded due to irregularities in its collection by law enforcement. Yet in others, he sees how the Justices’ interpretations have opened up the meaning of such core ideas as equal protection of the law. Another example is his discussion of the amendment process—which Amar suggests is a process that reveals not only how the U.S. Constitution has literally changed in its text, but also how it has, and is, part of a system shaped by political processes. His
extended discussion of the Fourteenth Amendment—woven throughout the text—describes a “partisan product from start to finish” (p. 398), illustrating Amar’s claims about the partisan nature of constitutional transformation.

As engaging as the book may be, America’s Unwritten Constitution is more likely better suited for teachers of Constitutional history than for high school or undergraduate students. The text is long (at nearly 500 pages, less notes and appendices) and filled with detailed, sometimes esoteric, examples. Moreover, the book is organized in a rather non-linear format, jumping from example to example and time period to time period, a structure some students may find challenging to navigate without the necessary understanding of the broader historical context. Still, Amar’s technique of using hypotheticals to illustrate critical analytical points provides helpful places to think critically about the issues he raises. A good example is the discussion of executive privilege in which he poses the hypothetical question of whether a sitting President can be tried for a criminal act in a state court. While the text of the Constitution is silent on the matter, Amar walks the reader through an analysis of such a hypothetical, concluding that privilege is structural—to enable the executive branch (the President) to complete its duties with explicit protections similar to those afforded members of Congress for what they say on the floor. The answer, he suggests, is impeachment, not criminal prosecution while in office. One can imagine the conversations in class that such a hypothetical situation would stimulate. Importantly, Amar’s detailed analysis of such hypotheticals—supported by close reading of various historical documents from the times and places discussed—would certainly help history teachers guide discussions in an informed way, reading the “Constitution as a whole” rather than “clause-bound literalism” (p. 47). In sum, in America’s Unwritten Constitution, Amar makes a strong case for moving beyond debates over originalism, suggesting that it is in the Constitution’s unwritten dimensions—and the methods he outlines in the book to uncover those dimensions—that we can see the U.S. Constitution for what it is—part of a wider, and ever-changing, constitutional system.

California State University, Monterey Bay

David A. Reichard


There are a tremendous number of facts and ideas presented in this volume’s 181 pages of text. Enrico Dal Lago (teacher, American History at the National University of Ireland, Galway) has authored and co-authored several books on slavery and this volume illustrates his tremendous knowledge of the subject with a special focus on America’s “peculiar institution.” American history readers will recognize this phrase, which was in popular usage during the first half of the nineteenth century and referred to slavery.

Many topics in this volume are familiar to students of American history, and these include the African origins of slaves brought to America; the Middle Passage; slave revolts such as those led by Denmark Vesey and Nat Turner; the plantation system, with its “big house” and its divisions of labor; cotton, tobacco, and rice production in southern states; anti-slavery and abolition societies with leaders such as William Lloyd Garrison; the anti-slave origins of the Republican party and the emergence of Abraham Lincoln; and the Civil War and the Emancipation Proclamation. The author takes these well-known stories and intertwines and layers them, in a straight-forward fashion, with information
about involuntary servitude in Russia, the enormous number of African slaves taken to plantations in Haiti and Brazil, crops grown in Eastern and Southern Europe and Brazil, and nationalistic movements, especially the one led by Giuseppe Garibaldi in Italy, just to name a few topics. Dal Lago places American slavery in an international perspective and places it within a global capitalist marketplace. The American history readers will find these comparisons intriguing and it will jolt them into remembering that slavery in the United States did not exist in a vacuum.

This book is encyclopedic and reads like a massive annotated bibliography organized by the topics mentioned above. The author urges that additional research be done using the comparative approach and tying the social, political, and economic aspects of slavery together into a transnational study. In this volume, he tells what has been written by other authors, recites facts about global slavery and involuntary servitude, and urges more writing.

Dal Lago offers an impressive literature review, astonishing in its scope. There are too many authors to cite in this review, but Dal Lago includes well-known historians including Stanley Elkins, Eugene Genovese, Gwendolyn Midlo Hall, David Brion Davis, Philip Curtin, and Robin Blackburn.

A novice history student will find this book overwhelming: even the font size and closely spaced lines will deter a close examination of the text. Teachers with no background in comparative history will also find the book a challenge. Perhaps AP or IB students, methodically studying each chapter of the book, discussing it, and researching the authors and books mentioned in the text could use this book under the guidance of a well-trained history teacher. This book is a handy reference volume, not a leisurely read.

Lawrenceville, Illinois

Patricia Ann Owens


Harry Truman’s death in 1972 proved a turning point for historical perspectives on the 33rd president. His legacy was buried under decades of unfavorable views from political contemporaries and historians swayed by post-World War II reactions. Truman was viewed as a political hack under the sway of Thomas Pendergast who fell out of his depth as president. The trend over the past three decades has been a more forgiving historiography of Truman placed into the context of a changing world. Biographers like David McCullough and Robert Dallek produced biographies that show Truman as a principled leader confronting pivotal decisions on the atomic bomb, America’s relationship with the Soviet Union, and economic conversion after 1945. Aida D. Donald continues along this path while exploring recently released papers from Truman’s pre-presidential career in Citizen Soldier: A Life of Harry S. Truman.

The first third of Citizen Soldier deals with Truman’s childhood and transition into Missouri politics. Donald spends considerable space in this book examining Truman as a young man as pretense for psychological analysis through his political career. This examination includes a look at Truman’s humble roots in Independence, the financial struggles of his parents, and the young man’s struggles to find a place in the world while wooing future wife Bess. Truman’s interest in politics before World War I was nascent, aside from early fandom of Democrat William Jennings Bryan. His enrollment in the U.S. Army during World War I and exemplary service on the Western Front encouraged further civic involvement. Donald ventures a bit too far into presumption in this section by relying
heavily on Truman’s later anecdotes about his youth, though the analysis becomes stronger by the introduction of the Pickwick Papers.

Donald next explores Truman’s rise through Missouri politics all the way to the presidency. Her research leveraged newly released papers from Truman’s time as Jackson County judge written at the Pickwick Hotel in Kansas City. The Pickwick Papers show Truman as an anxious local politician who owed his early career to a Democratic machine run by Thomas Pendergast. The young judge had to balance his commitment to justice with the pressures of maintaining Pendergast’s strength in Jackson County. Donald attributes Truman’s frequent anxiety attacks and health problems during this period to his struggles to stay true to himself as a judge. *Citizen Soldier* indicates Truman’s reliance on the Pendergast machine for election to the U.S. Senate in 1934, with his separation from the machine after re-election in 1940. Truman became a national figure when he took on government waste as head of the Senate Special Committee to Investigate the National Defense Program convened after March 1941. Donald relays the machinations of Truman’s selection as vice-presidential candidate and his subsequent ascendancy upon the death of Franklin Roosevelt.

The author’s discussion of the Truman presidency rightly highlights myriad accomplishments in the face of shifting global dynamics. Donald details immediate challenges for Truman in April 1945, including the conclusion of the Pacific Theater in World War II as well as the contentious dynamics of international diplomacy. Truman’s decision to drop two atomic bombs in August 1945 is explained with appropriate context for the Pacific Theater and the potential loss of life from conventional warfare in Japan. The author shows that Truman had to pivot toward a postwar recession, hostile Republicans in Congress, and a more hostile Soviet Union after making these historic decisions. Truman’s ability to win re-election in 1948 is treated as a triumph of his popular appeal rather than a stroke of luck. Donald views Truman’s lack of success in promoting Fair Deal programs or carrying out containment in Korea as byproducts of significant political division at home rather than his lack of political will.

*Citizen Soldier* provides an approachable exploration of Truman’s personal life and political career ideal for the classroom. Undergraduate instructors building courses on presidential history and post-World War II America can easily incorporate this book into their syllabus. Donald’s approach to biography alone offers lessons to future historians on their future craft. The author’s thorough review of the Pickwick Papers showed the potential for new interpretations on oft-covered subjects. This work also works well when taken apart as individual chapters. A course on America following World War II could use “Korea and the Fair Deal,” while an upper-level class on World War I might use “Captain Truman Takes Charge.” Aida Donald’s *Citizen Soldier* balances brevity with smartly selected anecdotes while creating the image of Harry Truman as a flawed but effective president.

*Carroll University*  
Nicholas Katers

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In his new book, Jonathan M. House does not seek to write a sweeping diplomatic history of the early Cold War period, nor does he seek to focus on individual combat. Instead, House focuses on what he describes as the “often neglected middle ground” of conventional and unconventional conflicts, as well as the almost constant periods of semi-mobilization of
the Cold War in which politicians and military officers coordinated responsibilities with increasingly blurred boundaries. The result is a comprehensive account that focuses not only on the major crises of the period, but also on previously overlooked friction points, including insurgency and counterinsurgence movements.

House provides detailed analysis of areas of major confrontation during the early Cold War period, such as Greece, China, Korea, Germany, and Cuba. Throughout the book, he also offers vignettes of lesser-known military operations to accompany the larger topics he explores. In his analysis, he begins by focusing on the relationship between the political leadership and military establishment in the United States and the Soviet Union—the almost permanent state of semi-mobilization forced both countries to grapple with the new reality of civil-military relations. In the new environment of nuclear confrontation, the relationship between policymaking and the formation of military strategy became increasingly muddled, with political leaders (and the increasing number of civilian “defense experts”) and military officers often at odds with one another. With nuclear warfare, neither side had an experiential advantage, leaving both, according to House, “groping for solutions in a new environment where total war might lead to annihilation, and where the limits and desired end states of limited conflict were ill defined” (p. 445). This constant tension between political solutions and military solutions is a major theme that is carried throughout the narrative.

Another theme that quickly develops in House’s account is that some of the more vital military roles during the early Cold War period were performed by countries other than the United States and the Soviet Union. Even as they struggled to rebuild following World War II, Great Britain maintained a policy of engagement throughout the world, providing counterinsurgency forces in often overlooked military operations in places such as Kenya and Malaya. As House explains, China, France, Portugal, and the Netherlands were all key players, not merely pawns of the two superpowers. The importance of these actors is evident in what House describes as the most common form of conflict during the early Cold War era: insurgency movements. The result is a multinational story of military engagement that set the direction and tone for the Cold War.

This is not the type of book that would typically be read from cover to cover, but rather one that would be repeatedly used as a resource when studying various friction points of the early Cold War period. This is not meant as a criticism; quite the contrary, this study can be utilized by a wider variety of students and teachers who seek greater insight into specific episodes in the Cold War. Even students at grade levels that would have trouble navigating the entire work could gain from an individual section or chapter that pertains to the topic that they are studying. For example, the chapter on the Korean Conflict could be used by high school and/or college teachers to provide insight and discussion material to bring into class. Similarly, high school and/or college students working on a research paper could seek detailed information concerning major episodes of the early Cold War era. The outstanding bibliography would also be of great benefit to a wide array of grade levels as an excellent starting place for further study. Scholars, graduate students, and upper-level undergraduate students in military and diplomatic history courses will be most interested in House’s coverage of the oft-neglected episodes of the early Cold War era, particularly his outstanding coverage of insurgency movements.

House has written a balanced, meticulously researched study that is an important addition to the historical understanding of the origins and evolution of the Cold War. Although the primary focus is on the tactical and operational level of Cold War confrontations, it can still serve as a resource for anyone interested in developing a more thorough understanding of the larger military and political aspects of the early Cold War era.

University of North Alabama

Christopher A. Maynard

Jersey Justice tells the story of six African American men from Trenton, New Jersey, who were detained by local police in January 1948 after the murder of an elderly white shopkeeper and the brutal beating of his partner. Although no physical evidence connected these men to the crime, and though witnesses described perpetrators who bore minimal resemblance to them, several days of aggressive (and quite likely violent) interrogation—all administered without access to legal counsel—produced signed, bogus confessions from all six of the unfortunate suspects. Over the next five years, the Trenton Six endured a legal nightmare reminiscent of the much more famous case of the Scottsboro Boys. As Cathy Knepper argues, their odyssey serves as yet another reminder of the grotesque racial injustices faced by blacks in the American legal system prior to the Civil Rights Era. Yet as she points out in her epilogue, this case is no mere historical artifact; its wrongs have been replicated in more recent years, and the failures of New Jersey’s justice system cannot be safely excused as the errors of a bygone era.

Knepper’s book proceeds along several tracks. At the heart of the book is the legal drama, with two rounds of trials and intermediating appeals described in relentless, day-by-day detail across five of the seven chapters. Here, we read about the dubious investigative techniques that elicited the damning confessions; the hazy testimony from the woman who survived the assault, as well as the inconsistent accounts provided by other witnesses; the tactics of an unscrupulous prosecutorial team determined to highlight the professionalism of the police and the acuity of the state’s witnesses; and the capital verdicts, cheered on by an irresponsible press, yet overturned by a skeptical New Jersey Supreme Court.

Yet the story of the Trenton Six is also the story of devoted family members and committed political organizations that tenaciously publicized the cause, bringing scrutiny (and financial resources) to bear on a case that would otherwise have devoured its victims quietly and impassively. After the initial round of convictions, the sister of one of the defendants—a 36-year-old dressmaker and domestic worker named Bessie Mitchell—proclaimed that “If there’s any justice in this country, you can bet your bottom dollar I’ll find it” (p. 84). Rebuffed initially by the FBI, the local black leadership in Trenton, as well as the NAACP and the ACLU, Mitchell stumbled upon the Civil Rights Congress (CRC), a Communist organization that stood alone with the accused. Between the conviction and the successful appeal, the CRC detailed the case in its newspaper, organized petitions and rallies, leased billboard space, and publicized the case widely enough that prominent Americans like Paul Robeson and Eleanor Roosevelt took interest. In this way, Jersey Justice adds to our understanding of the links between the radical left and the movement for racial justice prior to the worst years of the Red Scare. Here, the work of the Civil Rights Congress—like that of the International Labor Defense in the Scottsboro Case—receives its long-overdue recognition.

Jersey Justice would be an appropriate text for a college-level course that addresses race, class, and criminal justice. Students might (as this reviewer did) grow somewhat weary of the detailed, but often disconnected, daily chronicle of the trials. They would also need to read the book on the company of other texts that draw out the broader historical contexts (e.g., the Red Scare, Communism, civil rights, etc.) that play a part in this narrative but are not always given the extended discussion they perhaps deserve.

In spite of these limitations, this history is worth consideration. While Knepper’s book explores a case that has remained generally unknown outside the Garden State, it is also a timely book in a historical moment that has witnessed the erosion of procedural
rights for criminal defendants, particularly in capital murder cases. Dating back to the late 1980s (and especially since the Oklahoma City bombings in 1995), Congress and the Supreme Court have collaborated in weakening the criminal appeals process at the very same moment that improvements in forensic science as well as advocacy groups like the Innocence Project have cast serious doubt upon what Justice Harry Blackmun famously described as “the machinery of death.” As Knepper observes in her epilogue, the failures of New Jersey’s justice system from 1948-1953—including the use of faulty eyewitnesses, coerced confessions, as well as police and prosecutorial misconduct—are no less common today, and the meshwork of error and social malice that scarred the lives of the Trenton Six are frighteningly imaginable in our own time. Our students ought to know this.

University of Alaska Southeast

David Noon


Over the centuries, Christianity has changed. With each alteration, there has emerged new associations, different relationships, and new leadership. These changes have often been considered in reference to geography, nationality, or sociology. In some cases, the discussion has involved history, economics, and politics. Christianity as a religious movement can be defined and described in different ways—denominationally, ecclesiastically, polity-wise, institutionally, and geographically. In each case, there are several common elements—statistical facts, doctrinal similarities, organization, worship, social concepts, and economics.

Defining “mainline Christianity” is not as easy as it is sometimes thought to be. Jason S. Lantzer has undertaken the task of telling the story of the development and decline of what came to be termed “the ‘Seven Sisters’ of American Protestantism: the Congregational Church (now part of the United Church of Christ), the Episcopal Church, the Evangelical Lutheran Church, the Presbyterian Church (USA), the United Methodist Church, the American Baptist Convention, and the Disciples of Christ” (p. 1).

Lantzer discusses how the original “mainline” morphed into what came to be termed the “Seven Sisters” and then explains how this “mainline” is altering, assuming new content and numbers in more recent times. Functionally, the new alternative “mainline” could emerge becoming Evangelical, Roman Catholic, and Pentecostal.

The author very concisely and forthrightly explains the development and decline of the “Seven Sisters,” after which the author suggests the possibility of a new “mainline” selection that emerges in regards to numbers and popular opinion—namely, those movements identified as Evangelical (including the largest denominational group, the Southern Baptists), Roman Catholic (the largest Christian movement in the United States and the world); and Pentecostal (becoming the fastest growing group in the country).

The extensive documentation and explanatory notes certainly make this a very good resource and reference for the study of American church life and religious history. There are many insights into the nature of the fate associated with the “Seven Sisters” and the emerging new alternatives. While Lantzer is a regular, accurate, and experiential observer, he does make some mistakes in his analyses of such movements—for example,
those related to the Virginia Pastor Falwell, who founded the Moral Majority in 1979. Lantzer identifies the Virginia Baptist Pastor Jerry Falwell as a “Southern Baptist,” but Falwell only became a Southern Baptist near the end of his life after the Southern Baptist Convention was taken over by the ultra-conservatives and fundamentalists. For most of his ministry, Falwell was with the Baptist Bible Fellowship International, which actually was a splinter group from the movement founded by the Fundamentalist Pastor J. Frank Norris, who maintained until his death in 1952 a vigorous disagreement with Southern and Northern Baptists.

The author joins others in identifying Barack Obama as the first African American U.S. President (p. 82), when in fact the more correct and better descriptive term for President Obama is that he is our first bi-racial president. Both the old “Seven Sisters” and the new alternative “Seven Sisters” are drawn to President Obama’s persona as well as his political ideology and dynamic. The divisiveness of the president’s political agenda, economic vision, and social views resonates with select individuals and groups among both old and new “Sisters.” The controversy over the University of Notre Dame’s invitation to President Obama to speak at the university marked the nature of the new alternative “Seven Sisters” (pp. 100-101).

Lantzer’s book is an excellent resource for presenting a summary study of the “mainline” groups in American Christianity and the changes that have emerged over the last twenty to thirty years in the United States. For those who teach American history, culture, and religion courses, this is a very good source. It is well researched, appropriately documented, and very readable. It is a good book for both instructors and students.

East Texas Baptist University
Jerry Hopkins


Paris “captured peoples’ imaginations,” writes Michael Neiberg (p. xi); more than any other city, it came to symbolize the World War II struggle against tyranny. But understanding the city’s liberation, he argues, means understanding the stories of many disparate groups: “willing collaborationists” (p. xxi) and German occupiers, Resistance groups and advancing Allied armies.

The Blood of Free Men isn’t the first book on this topic; indeed, the decades since 1945 have seen the publication of numerous volumes about the liberation of Paris. Among these titles are some fine history works, but partisan viewpoints appear all too often, and to fully comprehend the events, readers need to consult multiple sources. Neiberg attempts to step beyond these often-bitter arguments of the past, and details the events of August 1944 from multiple perspectives. He does so in fine fashion, creating a new benchmark for future studies on the subject.

Neiberg’s chronological narrative begins with a careful description of conditions in Paris under German occupation; he then introduces readers to the myriad resistance organizations, and their motives. Interesting here is the story of the Paris police force, and how it transformed its reputation during the days of liberation, from collaborators to helpers of resistance.

The complex political wrangling between the Allies is explained, and Neiberg adds a focus on important individuals on various sides of the event. These disparate viewpoints include German General Dietrich von Choltitz, in charge of the city’s defenses, and Henri
Rol-Tanguy, commander of the main resistance group, the communist French Forces of the Interior (FFI).

The author devotes primary attention to the period 15-27 August, the days of liberation, detailing the uprising against the Germans and subsequent arrival of Allied forces to the city. Readers gain a first-person perspective through the author’s reliance on memoir accounts of numerous participants. This really allows the narrative to come alive, and is a major plus of this book.

Neiberg also leads readers through the troubled post-liberation path of resistance fighters, especially their unsuccessful interaction with the towering figure of Charles de Gaulle, and recounts the violent purging of collaborators that occurred in the wake of liberation, in Paris and elsewhere. Often chaotic and violent, this vengeful retribution claimed an estimated 9,000 lives throughout France. Paris recovered only slowly from the years of occupation, concludes Neiberg, and only with Marshall Plan aid did shortages finally disappear and standards of living rise again.

How might an instructor use this book? With an uncomplicated narrative style and readability, its focus on a pivotal event of the World War II era, and a conclusion that takes the story beyond 1945, The Blood of Free Men is appropriate for university-level European history classes, survey or upper-level, as well as AP European history sections. At fewer than 280 pages of text, it fits neatly onto a course reading list. I teach a college sophomore survey class, and would strongly consider adding this to the required readings—a paperback edition would make my decision even easier.

My quibbles with this volume are relatively minor ones. There is no guide to further research or bibliography, a disadvantage for student research projects. Also, French philosophers like Camus emerge a bit too often, and at times distract from the main narrative. And occasionally, the discussion of internal French politics seems overly detailed. But on the whole, this is a well-researched and well-written book, featuring a new look on an oft-discussed subject. Neiberg’s compelling style engages readers, and he disentangles the competing forces and personalities of the time. Highly recommended.

Concordia University, St. Paul

Thomas Saylor


This useful volume provides a thematic introduction to the “young” field of world history. It includes an introduction and thirty-three chapters, all written by leading scholars (or teams of them) in the field. These cover much ground, surveying the development of world history as a professional field; introducing key concepts, categories, approaches, and debates; exploring the field’s pedagogical promise and challenges; and suggesting directions for further development and research.

Editor Douglas Northrop opens the book with a simple question: “What do historians see—and what do they miss?” (p. 1). The question accentuates an enduring theme of the book: the centrality of framing to the study of the past. By pushing historians to work within larger, more integrative frames, world history challenges the institutional and intellectual “boxing” of historical knowledge, questioning in particular the discipline’s longstanding regional and national orientations. “World history, at its core,” writes Northrop, “posits...the need to put areal—or national—literatures into connection with
one another, to resist institutionally instantiated assertions of specialized ‘turf’ and ‘expertise’ that are built into professional academic discourse. World historians start by adopting very different scalar approaches in space and time” (p. 7). A number of the book’s chapters explore these different approaches to framing, focusing in particular on the advantages and shortcomings of comparative history, world systems theory, regional history, local history, and “Big History” (a sub-field of world history, pioneered by David Christian, that places natural and human history within a unified narrative, from the Big Bang to the future). Later chapters focus on connections in world history—as evidenced in the movement of objects, people, religious ideas, disease, and military technology—and the engagement of scholars from around the world with the field of world history, which during its rise over the past few decades has been dominated by North American historians.

A basic purpose of the book is to make the case for world history’s place within the broader discipline of history. Long criticized as overly general, presentist, superficial, and teaching-oriented, world history, as Northrop points out, has nonetheless developed “all the trappings and infrastructure of a legitimate institutional domain,” from professional organizations to conferences, journals, graduate programs, textbooks, and monographs (pp. 1-3). Rather than taking an unabashedly evangelical approach, the chapters on world history’s contested, though growing role within the historical discipline provide welcome overviews of such vital topics as research trends, secondary- and college-level curricula, and graduate training and academic placement (along with comprehensive lists of universities that offer M.A. and Ph.D. programs in world history and detailed statistics on academic job advertisement and placement rates).

The book’s format—more than thirty brief chapters of approximately ten to fifteen pages apiece—effectively spotlights fundamental issues without diluting their import with excessive detail. Teachers of world history in search of fresh ideas will particularly stand to benefit from this format and, more generally, the volume’s focus on framing and scale. Teachers who structure their courses along regional and civilizational lines, for example, will find much food for thought in a vital question Northrop asks in his introduction: “If Homo sapiens sapiens is a discrete subspecies—if modern humans are an identifiable entity in Earth’s biosphere—must not humanity also have a meaningfully collective history?” (p. 8). Similarly, world history teachers might consider heeding Weiwei Zhang’s call to push students to self-identify as “globers,” rather than as Americans or even “global citizens,” terms that normalize modern concepts of identity and political participation (pp. 408-409). Teachers will also find fruitful discussion of the ever-challenging topic of coverage. Although, for example, nearly all world history teachers focus intensively on the development of “the Atlantic World,” the Pacific Ocean—“the biggest thing on earth,” as Damon Ieremia Salesa’s chapter reminds us—is often excluded, despite the rich and complex history of Oceania.

This is an excellent book. It joins a handful of recent, shorter introductions to world history, but surpasses them in both breadth and detail. Particularly valuable are its bibliographies. To the publisher’s credit, topical bibliographies at the end of each chapter as well as a comprehensive one at the end of the book are included. These will be invaluable for scholars and teachers in search of orientation and ideas for contextualizing research, framing questions, crafting syllabi, and selecting course readings. Although the book is pitched toward college-level educators, secondary teachers will also find much of value. The high price, however, will keep the hardcover text out of the hands of many; hopefully, a paperback release is soon to follow.

Aurora University

Mark Soderstrom

Miles Orvell’s history of small-town America brings perspective to lesser-understood features of twentieth-century American life. Here, “Main Street” takes on both metaphorical and literal meanings—it is a stand-in for atavistic historical idealism and material evidence of larger social and economic change. Orvell builds his narrative around one central question: why has Main Street remained fixed in the American consciousness? Why, in other words, do Americans continue to celebrate idealized reconstructions of Main Street in theme parks, print and non-print media, and modern community planning initiatives? Orvell contextualizes this question in his opening chapters, outlining the nineteenth-century origins and early twentieth-century reconstructions of small-town America, before moving toward a more nuanced discussion of Main Street in historical memory.

A distinctive small-town identity emerged in the decades following the Civil War. Towns and villages multiplied as Americans moved west. New and unfamiliar surroundings occasioned nostalgia and the determination to remember “what was left behind” (p. 22). Re-imagined townscapes offered more than just the appearance of home; by creating and promoting idealized memories of small-town life, citizens of Midwestern and Western towns were able to re-establish homogeneity and the appearance of safety. The industrial boom and mass urbanization of early twentieth century brought a renewed interest the qualities of small-town life. Henry Ford’s Greenfield Village outside Detroit, Colonial Williamsburg, and Walt Disney’s “Main Street, U.S.A.” became popular tourist destinations because of what they represented: order, shared values, and common origins. Ironically, the success of the mythologized American town came at a time when many American Main Streets faced extinction. Mass production of automobiles, road construction, suburban sprawl, enclosed shopping malls, and the emergence of “big box” merchandisers eroded the centrality of Main Street and speeded the decline of many small towns (pp. 53-56).

Planned communities, another legacy of Main Street mythologies, grouped houses around common green spaces, built neighborhoods around shared schools, and constructed entire developments around central shopping districts. The intention in all of this was to elicit small-town values (pp. 176-183). As Orvell reminds us, however, the reality of these mostly white communities bore an ironic resemblance to actual, exclusionary small-town life. The first African American family to purchase a home in Levittown, for example, was attacked by a rock-throwing white mob (p. 190).

Orvell continues his narrative of small-town America with a summary and critique of “New Urbanism,” a late twentieth- and early twenty-first-century vision of community planning that seeks to unite all facets of suburban life—work, education, and housing—into a single community development. Towns fashioned after a New-Urbanist influence downplay the modern reliance on automobiles, with parking restricted to back alleyways so as to promote foot traffic, and house designs reinforce shared values—styles vary, but must conform to acceptable “traditional” plans (pp. 203, 207). Small-town idealism is central to the philosophy of New Urbanism, but Orvell reminds us that socioeconomic exclusion continues to undermine the hopes to build real communities.

Orvell concludes by examining recent attempts to bring New Urbanism into urban environments. “New City Communities” offer unique alternatives to high-rise housing projects. These government-sponsored, low-income living communities mimic suburban houses in order to simulate the appeal and effects of home ownership. It is, Orvell argues,
small-town idealism brought full circle. These suburban townscapes project a feeling of safety “by virtue of their simulation of the image of safety that is conjured by the mythical small town evoked by the front porches and yards (p. 225).

*The Life and Death of Main Street* may be considered as required reading for post-secondary history courses, but the nature of the work, as well as Orvell’s elevated prose style, makes it ill-suited for middle or high school students. Secondary teachers can, however, draw benefit from the work’s historical and historiographic content. Instructional units covering westward migration, industrialization, post-WWII America, the Civil Rights movement, or urban renewal may gather inspiration from examples and illustrations found throughout the text. Orvell’s theoretical approach, culled from history, literary criticism, cultural anthropology, and psychology, would likewise enhance any class project featuring the use of maps, photographs, and drawings of built environments. For instance, Orvell’s study of Chestnut Hill, Pennsylvania, introduced in Chapter Two, may be particularly useful to those preparing lessons on local history. Finally, as a work of cultural history, Orvell’s work may also help to move lessons beyond standard socio-political narratives. Orvell’s review of the film *Our Town* and the Frank Capra classic *It’s a Wonderful Life* would facilitate class discussions about American culture in the 1940s and the use of film as primary source evidence.

*Western Michigan University*  
James P. Cousins


Somewhere, Perry Miller must be smiling. While Miller’s interpretive insights into the Puritans have fallen out of fashion, his primary contribution—religion as a proper sphere of historical inquiry—is making a comeback. Generations after Miller’s death, political and diplomatic historians are once again taking religion seriously. In *Sword of the Spirit, Shield of Faith: Religion in American War and Diplomacy*, Andrew Preston writes in the grand tradition of mid-century narrative historians. Elegantly written and stuffed with big ideas and keen insights, this book fills a profound void in the history of U.S. foreign relations and American history writ large.

Preston seeks a “new perspective” that makes religion a co-equal factor along with economics, national interest, and ideology (p. 5). Examining elites, grassroots activists, and missionaries serving abroad, he reveals that Americans pushed their government to wield, in the words of the Apostle Paul, the “sword of the spirit” and the “shield of faith” (pp. 7-8). Upon these twin metaphors, Preston reveals how religion has propelled war-making hubris, pacifism, and cooperative internationalism throughout the history of American foreign relations.

In *Sword of the Spirit, Shield of Faith*, the Cambridge University professor offers a deeply informed history of early America. To Preston, both the nation’s “Reformation Protestant” roots and its geographic isolation served to create a “peculiar religious heritage” (p. 11). Without a counter-reformation, an unchallenged “exceptionalist” Protestant political culture emerged. Bordered by weak neighbors, Americans were free to infuse their foreign policy with Reformation Protestant ideals.

In tandem with the nation’s “peculiar religious heritage,” popular antipathy to concentrated power, “eccentric” Protestant denominations, faith in progress, and a civil religion celebrating the nation’s godly choseness have shaped U.S. foreign policy.
The author deftly unfolds a narrative in three basic stanzas: early, middle, and modern America. Preston’s early U.S. history echoes Perry Miller. With the Puritans fleeing into the wilderness to found God’s kingdom, they also established a Protestant exceptionalist worldview. Imbued with a “moral imperative” to protect and enlarge the “one true bastion of political and religious liberty,” colonists bequeathed an American way of war “grounded in the noble cause and the selfless spread of freedom” (p. 45).

After establishing Protestantism’s sway over U.S. foreign policy through the American Revolution, Preston reveals how this ethos evolved and shaped nineteenth-century statecraft. Rather than a narrative blow-by-blow account, Sword of the Spirit, Shield of Faith features an episodic narrative that uses significant foreign policy events to make larger claims about the national zeitgeist. The most innovative of these installments is Preston’s chapter on the American Civil War. Treating that conflict as a humanitarian intervention, the author performs a rare task: he says something new about the War Between the States.

Preston devotes two-thirds of his work to the twentieth century and beyond. To him, the “collisions of domestic politics, religion, and human rights” established in the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries continue to shape U.S. foreign policy (p. 206). Rather than simply fight and strategize in the name of the national interest, Americans embarked upon a series of crusades throughout the twentieth century. In arguing for continuity with the past, the author also discloses significant alterations to religion’s influence upon American foreign policy. For instance, Woodrow Wilson might have waged war in a very American way, in the name of humanity, but he also helped create something entirely new: liberal internationalism. Terming the Wilson school of international relations as the idealistic synthesis, Preston reveals that U.S. foreign policy possessed deep historical and religious roots, but it also evolved.

Sword of the Spirit, Shield of Faith contributes much to our understanding of religion’s continuing influence upon contemporary U.S. foreign relations. Reminding readers of Franklin Roosevelt’s unstinting devotion to religious freedom and ecumenical faith, Preston also offers a sympathetic and nuanced treatment of the most evangelical of Secretaries of State, John Foster Dulles. In this vein, he avoids the all-too-common trope of pillorying the devout of yesterday or today’s Religious Right. Instead, Preston establishes a wider context to understand evangelicals’ current activism and influence. In so doing, the author performs a grand public service.

The very length of Preston’s tome makes it unsuitable for undergraduates. However, many chapters can stand alone. Thus, with some guidance, teachers can assign select portions to advanced undergraduates. If instructors assign these readings with care, they will expose their students to one of the most important works on U.S. foreign relations of this generation.

Gannon University

Jeff Bloodworth


For over a century, the ordeal endured by Captain Alfred Dreyfus has fascinated, appalled, and inspired generations well beyond the borders of France, where the events of “the Dreyfus Affair” transpired. So much has been written about the Affair that a reader ought reasonably to ask what any new publication has to contribute to our knowledge of it. Piers
Paul Read, an accomplished novelist and non-fiction author, offers an engaging account that conveys the drama and suspense of the Affair, making it a commendable choice for the general reader, although students and scholars will find no new insights or substantial scholarship to draw their attention.

Alfred Dreyfus came from a wealthy Alsatian Jewish family and served on the French military’s General Staff. In 1894, evidence came to light that someone was passing military secrets to the military attaché to the German Embassy in Paris. Officers in the French counter-intelligence service, animated in part by anti-Semitism, orchestrated Dreyfus’ arrest and court-martial, manipulating the circumstantial, ambiguous, and sometimes clearly exculpatory evidence through commentaries meant to sway judges’ interpretations and in, several cases, outright forgery. Dreyfus was convicted, publicly humiliated in an official ceremony of degradation, and transported to Devil’s Island, off the coast of French Guiana, where he languished for nearly five years. During that time, his tenacious brother Mathieu and other supporters gradually exposed the lies that had led to his condemnation and demanded a revision of the verdict. The scandal around Dreyfus pitched France into a torment of violent invective, duels, trials, and riots. The government finally agreed to a retrial in 1899, but Dreyfus was officially exonerated only in 1906.

Read traces the origins of the Dreyfus Affair back to the French Revolution, which inaugurated the long struggle between the values of a secular republic and those of traditional French institutions. After an uneasy consensus created the Third Republic in the wake of military defeat and revolutionary upheaval during the année terrible of 1870-1871, the army became one of the last bastions of the forces of tradition, wedding aristocracy and Catholicism to the officer corps. It was this segment of French society that felt itself under siege by the Dreyfusards during the Affair, and Read effectively demonstrates how this perceived confrontation over the very soul of France intensified the venom provoked by a scandal whose consequences reached far beyond the personal fate of Alfred Dreyfus himself. Read, who is forthright in the preface about the difficulties the Affair poses for his own identity as a Catholic (p. 4), depicts the Dreyfusards’ post-Affair rise to political power as a destructive period for the Catholic Church as an institution in France. Anti-clerical policies sought to neutralize the influence of the Catholic Church in education and other areas of civil life and subvert the reactionary, anti-republican, and anti-Semitic sensibilities that guided the behavior of so many Catholics and their leaders—lay and clerical—during the Affair. Read portrays the Radicals’ campaign as a vindictive over-reaction that only deepened rather than healed the cultural scars that afflicted France. While one might not feel as much sympathy as Read does for the plight of French Catholicism during this era, he does convincingly advance the point that the dynamics in the Affair were more complex than generally characterized.

Read synthesizes and comments on a considerable array of secondary works on the Affair—some in French, most in English—but relies upon hardly any primary sources. His personal perspective as a Catholic seeking to come to terms with this episode of history and his talents as a writer are his main contributions to the literature on the Dreyfus Affair. His book is recommended to the general reader and librarians looking for a volume that may introduce high school students to this gripping event. Its lack of primary scholarship makes it less appropriate than other recent works (e.g., Dreyfus: Politics, Emotion, and the Scandal of the Century, by Ruth Harris) for courses and libraries at the college level, and still other recent books address the Affair’s continuing relevance (e.g., Why the Dreyfus Affair Matters, by Louis Begley) and the cultural conflicts that swirled around it (e.g., For the Soul of France: Culture Wars in the Age of Dreyfus, by Frederick Brown) more incisively.

Gwynedd Mercy University
Michael Clinton
Women and Gender in Postwar Europe: From Cold War to European Union, edited by Joanna Regulska and Bonnie G. Smith. Abingdon, United Kingdom: Routledge, 2012. 243 pages. $43.95, paper.

This collaborative project is a most welcome addition to the scholarship on European history in the twentieth century, as well as to gender history and the history of the Cold War. Many edited volumes represent a collage that hangs tenuously together around a theme, but in this case, the whole is certainly greater than the sum of its parts. In her conclusion, Joanna Regulska undersells the collection as “filling in gaps” of existing scholarship. Most of the contributions to the volume do much more than that—they introduce new angles to old themes and challenge previous assumptions, overall asking us to alter how we think about questions of citizenship, ideology, state policy, and transnational movements in Europe since 1945. If we were to compare this project with books such as Tony Judt’s Postwar: A History of Europe Since 1945, we can see what a difference gender makes in understanding the complex transformations of European states and societies over the Cold War.

The volume is an excellent collection for undergraduate audiences. The introduction offers an elegant and brief overview of crucial moments and themes in the history of Europe over the period covered, followed by thematic chapters that both take apart and also reconstitute assumptions strongly held by previous scholars—all in engaging and relatively jargon-free language. Notable among them are the pieces authored by Jan Lambertz (on European women’s participation in the early history of the United Nations), Michal Shapira (on popular psychology and gender norms in postwar Britain), Francisca de Haan (on women and work), M. Jane Slaughter (on gender and consumerism), Young-Sun Hong (on transnational gendered aspects of labor migration), and Artaras Tereskinas (on the crisis of masculinity in post-communist Lithuania). All of these pieces bring to life important aspects of state policy, public attitudes, everyday life, and social action that demonstrate both how women and men have contributed to shaping gender regimes in Europe, and also how European states have shaped gender norms even as these states have themselves been transformed through the Cold War and the development of the European Union over the past two decades. Most impressively, this collection demonstrates the significant differences that developed over the Cold War between the West and East in terms of gender regimes, as well as the lesser-understood commonalities across the Iron Curtain.

The authors in this volume are also careful to signal the tensions between case studies and generalizations, and in some areas successfully transcend those tensions, as is the case with Francisca de Haan’s and M. Jane Slaughter’s pieces in particular. This approach is useful in the classroom, as it allows us to explore the opportunities and limits of thinking about broad geographic areas through case studies. Equally useful from a pedagogical standpoint are the explicit discussions about methodology in several chapters, such as Arturas Tereskinas’s. The variety of methodological approaches encompassed by this collection offers an excellent opportunity for a pedagogical engagement in the classroom with the advantages and limitations of each of the options represented here. Finally, each chapter offers lively, intuitively vibrant examples of the broader issues addressed. These specific stories—many of them accompanied by substantial fragments of interviews, transcripts, documents, or survey results—provide excellent primary sources for engaging students in critical analysis of the themes in the book.

For those who have been waiting for a sophisticated, yet user-friendly collection on gender and European history since 1945 that could constitute a solid starting point for a course on the same topic, this is the answer. After finishing the book, I found myself
wanting to teach such a course, and I hope others will take the plunge. Your students will thank you.

*Indiana University* Maria Bucur-Deckard


* A New Deal for All?* is a microscopic examination of civil rights and labor developments in Baltimore from the early 1930s to the eve of American entry into World War II. A distinguishing feature is its focus on dual movements and their interconnections. A basic conclusion is that the mass mobilizations associated with each movement actually began earlier than generally believed, dating in each instance to the first years of the Great Depression. In particular, Andor Skotnes argues that the foundations of the “long civil rights movement” lay in the early 1930s rather than in the Second World War. Based to a degree on oral history, which gives the book flair and color, the study has been a long time in coming. Skotnes began his graduate work under the renowned Warren Susman and the book’s first incarnation was as a 1991 Rutgers University dissertation.

The most significant contribution of *A New Deal for All?* is its detailed accounting of the groups that engendered early 1930s activism. The story is complex, with credit given to the Communist Party, the Socialist Party (and the latter’s League for Industrial Democracy), and labor organizations such as the Amalgamated Clothing Workers. While demonstrating the influence of national entities, the focus here necessarily is on their local manifestations and on the local groups they impacted. The story includes the remarkable development of the Young People’s Forum as a civil rights organization at a time when the local branch of the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People (NAACP) was dormant. Focus is also placed on the People’s Unemployment League and a “Buy Where You Can Work” campaign. Essentially, the author undertakes to demonstrate that Communist- and Socialist-linked labor entities actively opposed racism and thereby connected effectively to civil rights groups, this in the context of the Jim Crow state of Maryland. The impetus of anti-lynching activity and the stimulus of the New Deal provide additional components of the overall story.

The account continues through the remainder of the 1930s and into the very early 1940s. Here, the emphasis shifts to the impact of the NAACP and the Congress of Industrial Organizations (CIO). Both civil rights and industrial unionism grew locally in terms of mass mobilization, but increasingly did so under the aegis of these national entities. A revived local NAACP subsumed earlier groups such as the Young People’s Forum and the large-scale organizing drives of the CIO now included a focus on steelworkers. Despite continued opposition to racism on the part of industrial unions, the author holds that the earlier promise of a fuller alliance between civil rights and labor groups was not met despite some common efforts as defense industry jobs expanded in 1940-1941.

The book is well written and keeps the reader’s interest with its arresting accounts of local activists (including Juanita Jackson Mitchell, Clarence Mitchell, and Broadus Mitchell, not to mention the young Thurgood Marshall), but it is too dense for easy use among undergraduate students. I qualify this by noting that it might appeal to students in the Baltimore region given the background it provides for later and better-known developments, particularly in civil rights. For graduate students, it clearly is of value with its focus on the
long civil rights movement and on relations between white and African American workers. It adds to a literature going back decades to books positing a connection between direct action movements in the 1930s and the upheavals of the 1960s, as well as to more recent scholarly efforts to analyze race and labor in urban settings and to explore the tensions between white racism and industrial union anti-racist efforts.

Combining accounts of civil rights and labor constitutes an act of boldness, but with a price to pay. The author is most successful, I believe, in demonstrating the 1930s background of later civil rights successes and less effective in rendering clear the complicated connections between civil rights and labor (a thankless and more or less impossible task given all the contradictions, tensions, and complexities). The book does sag a bit when it gets to the mid-thirties; still, it makes for fascinating reading with its stories of the breakthroughs of the early 1930s and recovers effectively as it ties up its tale with accounts of the vitally important developments of the late 1930s and early 1940s. Readers may look forward to a promised sequel.

Mercy College

Theodore Rosenof


Histories of American foreign relations are scarce for the pre-twentieth century period, so this book on the era of the Founders should be most welcome. Part of a series designed for undergraduate classroom use that combines a brief narrative of a period or topic with selected primary source documents, Amid a Warring World synthesizes the existing literature even as author Robert Smith advances a clear thesis based on his own extensive reading of contemporary correspondence, memoranda, proclamations, and newspaper accounts.

Smith frames his study around two main themes. First, he situates U.S. foreign policy during and after the American Revolution in the context of the near-constant European wars of that period, mainly between France and England but drawing in other nations as well. These wars began as routine balance-of-power conflicts about colonial possessions and mercantilism, but with the outbreak of the French Revolution, according to Smith, they became more ideologically charged, with each side looking for the complete defeat of the other. U.S. leaders maneuvered to get the best deals possible for American interests as power in Europe shifted from one nation to the other.

Second, Smith identifies two main camps among these leading Americans, which he labels “radicals” and “moderates,” for the entire period from the Revolution to the end of the War of 1812, although some individuals switched positions here and there. The radicals—including Tom Paine, most prominent Virginians, John Adams during the Revolution, and the Republican Party from the 1790s on—believed that American interests did best when aligned with the French. Radicals also believed that European nations so needed American goods that effective management of trade policy alone would result in U.S. power and prosperity. The moderates, represented most clearly by Benjamin Franklin during the 1770s and the Federalists (including John Adams) thereafter, were more skeptical of the French, especially after the rise of the Jacobins and then Napoleon. Moderates also remained unconvinced that European nations would capitulate easily and allow Americans to win trading rights.

Smith from first page to last makes a compelling though not airtight argument in favor of the moderates, adding detail and interpretative analysis to familiar events such
as Franklin’s shrewd jettisoning of the terms of the 1778 alliance with France in order to win the favorable 1783 Treaty of Paris with the British, the benefits of Jay’s Treaty with Britain in 1795, and the unrealistic assumptions underlying Republican diplomacy during the Napoleonic Wars that led ultimately to the War of 1812. Smith attributes the successes of Republican diplomacy, such as the Louisiana Purchase, to Thomas Jefferson’s pragmatic—but temporary—abandonment of his “ideological preferences” (p. 120).

Amid a Warring World builds nicely upon three important historiographic trends of the early national period and of American foreign relations: the importance of an “Atlantic world” to U.S. development, the chimera of free trade as the key to American world power, and the necessity of consulting foreign sources in the writing of U.S. diplomatic history.

Unfortunately, Smith in other ways hews to older models of diplomatic history. Race and slavery make only incidental appearances as issues or motivations for diplomatic action. There are a few references to the Haitian Revolution in relation to U.S. policy toward France in the 1790s and as the impetus for Napoleon’s willingness to sell Louisiana, but almost nothing on American contacts with Haiti or relations with the Black Republic. Smith omits entirely the international slave trade and its abolition. He refers occasionally to “treating” with American Indians, but he never quotes from or seriously discusses such negotiations. Smith downplays entirely the imperial aspects of the new American nation.

Smith’s prose is competent but dense, and this reviewer cannot envision assigning this book even to an advanced undergraduate class. The twenty-five primary source documents, similarly, will be difficult for most students, because of the archaic language and paragraph structure, and because Smith’s introductions are so brief. The range of documents is also skewed, with none on Haiti and only one on Louisiana, for example. On the other hand, the documents nicely illustrate Smith’s theme of the sustained radical-moderate divide in American attitudes toward France. Even if they do not assign Amid a Warring World, professors of early U.S. history or American foreign relations will find here many insights to supplement textbook accounts and several documents for analysis by students.

Shippensburg University of Pennsylvania

Robert Shaffer


In recent years, scholarship on human happiness—the feeling of contentment or satisfaction—has proliferated in fields such as philosophy, psychology, cultural studies, neuroscience, and journalism. In Satisfaction Not Guaranteed, Peter N. Stearns looks at happiness from a historical perspective. The current understanding of happiness, he argues, is shaped by the structural adjustments wrought by modernity, the initial social response to these changes, and the consequent transformations in the lives of ordinary people. The book’s jacket depicts two glasses—one half-full and one half-empty—to represent the tensions caused by progress in modern society.

Satisfaction Not Guaranteed provides a nuanced context for understanding the nature of happiness and why measurable improvements in the quality of life have not led to increases in satisfaction. Why have the remarkable gains of modernity in affluent societies not resulted in more happiness? Despite improvements in health, education, safety, and leisure, why is there so much anxiety, compulsion, and depression among those who have benefited the most from such progress? In part, the answer is what Stearns calls the “false
starts” of reactions and adjustments to social change, shaped by the lag between transitions in professed values and actual behavior. These false starts can be remediated, he argues, by an understanding of their historical origins.

The first section of the book explores the gap between modernity and happiness. Stearns cites several surveys of people in different nations and their levels of satisfaction with life. These polls show that levels of happiness and levels of modernity have less correlation that might be expected. The United States—despite or perhaps because of its levels of modernity—consistently ranks some distance from the top. A 2003 survey of 82 nations showed Puerto Rico and Mexico heading the list; the U.S. ranked fifteenth. A later Gallup poll in 2005-2006 of 132 countries had the U.S. coming in twenty-sixth for correlations between positive feelings and income. In other words, happiness does not appear to accompany rising incomes or other gains from modernity. Stearns also points out that the gains of modernity have not been evenly distributed, accepted, or even desirable. For example, the greater impersonality and privacy accompanying modern urban life may have led to growing incidents of child abuse and social isolation.

The second section of the book looks at the maladjustments of modernity. Stearns explores how transformations in sexuality, gender roles, work, eating, and aging have played out in American society. In the case of eating, for example, the emergence of obesity as a public health problem was unexpected. This was shaped in part by the development of gains in agriculture, the proliferation of commercial food products, and a reduction in physical exertion because of the rise of white-collar work, machine labor, and the growth of transportation.

In the third section, Stearns examines changing expectations in three more areas—death, childhood, and consumerism. For example, in the twentieth century, there was an acceleration of the “happiness push” for modern childhood—at the same time that childhood was altered profoundly by the decline in child labor, reduction in family size, decrease in mortality rates, and expansion of education. But new problems developed, including rising parental anxiety about child health and happiness, a distinctive American concept of extreme protectiveness towards children (e.g., does too much homework overload children physically and mentally?), and the challenges of child care as women entered the labor force.

Stearns points out the imperative to reframe our responses towards progress and its [dis]contents—and the need to acknowledge that modernity is an ongoing process. “Thinking more systematically about modernity’s development and impacts—and this means thinking historically—is the basis for managing modernity better,” Stearns suggests (p. 11). This thought-provoking book is written in an accessible and lively style. While the major emphasis is on the United States, there are comparative discussions of England, Russia, France, Japan, and other countries. The sheer range of topics covered in modern social and cultural life is exhilarating. College students and scholars of social history will find Satisfaction Not Guaranteed a useful perspective, and high school teachers will find much to help trigger class discussion about the pursuit of happiness within its historical context.

Roosevelt University
Lynn Y. Weiner


Norman Stone is an accomplished British historian who has written extensively on topics in European history and has taught at leading British and Turkish universities. He has
carved a niche producing concise histories of momentous historical subjects. Two of his previous books, *World War One: A Short History* and *Turkey: A Short History*, are cases in point. With his latest book, *World War Two: A Short History*, Stone has engaged in a similar effort, clocking in at just over two hundred pages. The book will probably be of interest to many amateur historians or individuals looking for a quick introduction to a very interesting and important historical topic. Less clear is how useful the book would be to teachers or students at either the high school or college level.

This very well-written book might be termed “Old School,” to borrow current student nomenclature. Like many other fine, general histories of the Second World War written by western, especially British, historians, it covers with sensitivity, wit, and insight the military and political aspects of the war, especially the war in Europe. Stone covers well-known territory—essentially the causes and the course of the conflict and especially the major battles, campaigns, and historic figures—and his focus and tone reflect a traditional, British view of the war. What may set Stone apart is his eye for detail; he effectively filters out unnecessary or distracting information and instead offers many wonderful vignettes that deepen and enliven the narrative while moving it forward. For example, he briefly describes how the author Graham Greene decided to end an extra-marital affair after almost being blown to bits during the Blitz, Germany’s bombardment of London in 1940. Stone notes that when Japan finally offered to surrender to the United States in August 1945, the Americans could not find a word in Japanese that is equivalent to the English word “surrender,” and thus had to settle for having Japan’s Emperor Hirohito proclaim to his subjects that “the war had not necessarily turned out to Japan’s advantage” (p. 175). Stone is especially good at interjecting his narrative with relevant quotes, some of which will be familiar and others less so. Finally, Stone gives us some sense of the historiography of World War II by referring to the work of some of the most eminent historians of the subject, such as Anthony Beevor and Max Hastings, and making note of some of the controversial actions taken during the war, such as Truman’s decision to drop atomic bombs on Hiroshima and Nagasaki. *World War Two: A Short History* is capped off by a short but helpful annotated bibliography.

Stone has spent almost a lifetime studying the Second World War, and his new book reflects his deep enthusiasm for and impressive grasp of the subject. Yet *World War Two: A Short History* may be problematic for many instructors of world history or even European history. Teachers of world history will likely be disappointed that the book gives so little space to events between 1937 and 1945 in East Asia. Indeed, there are no chapters devoted solely to events in Asia, but there are several chapters devoted solely to events in Europe. And Stone may be one of the last historians who still use the Wade-Giles transliteration of Chinese names (e.g., Mao Tse-tung). Stone’s lack of attention to the war’s terrible toll on the daily lives of ordinary people may make the text a poor choice for many teachers who want to provide their students with more social history and less military history. Even instructors of survey courses of European history may feel that Stone has a decidedly British perspective on the war; Stone describes events such as Dunkirk, El Alamein, and the fall of Singapore in much more detail than, for example, the fall of Poland, the Partisan movements in Eastern Europe, and the role of neutral states such as Sweden and Switzerland. Stone even describes the atom bomb built at Los Alamos, New Mexico, as “a triumph of British ingenuity and American enterprise as well” (p. 187).

Of course, Stone may have written this book with a different audience in mind. Indeed, *World War Two: A Short History* succeeds as a brief and lively summary of this critical topic. Unlike Winston Churchill’s magnificent but voluminous *History of the Second World War*, Stone’s little book can be read in a single night rather than a fortnight.
In *The Writing and Ratification of the U.S. Constitution: Practical Virtue in Action*, John R. Vile brings to life the events surrounding the construction and ratification of the United States Constitution. The Constitution is surrounded by a lack of true understanding, not only of the document itself, but also of the process of which it was drafted. In an era touted with majesty, it appears as though the founders graciously gathered and drafted this document. However, Vile notes that rather than meeting as stoic political philosophers, the founders gathered with concerns for a theoretical nation and their posterity. In efforts to examine the compromise encapsulated within the Constitution, Vile walks the reader through the debates that would set the precedence for civic discourse in America. The proposals, debates, and defenses of the Virginia and New Jersey Plans, and the Great Compromise, read like a story; a picturesque recount of the day-to-day meetings.

As a professor of political science, John R. Vile examines constitutional law in class by reviewing Supreme Court cases, while his research interests lead him to understand the actual document itself. Vile notes early in the text that today’s politicians fail to see the eloquence in compromise, and aims to illuminate the intellectual reasoning our founders implemented in order to explain the logic of their decisions. In efforts to alleviate such misunderstandings, William Patterson’s idea that “a little practicable virtue is to be preferred to theory” (p. xii) and John Dickinson’s notion that “experience must be our only guide. Reason may mislead us” (p. xii) are noted early on. Both practical and logical for the formation of the Constitution, the statements are also profound and noteworthy for political contribution in the modern era. Vile illuminates the banter that filled the months of the Constitutional Convention, as it shows the reasoning behind the document that otherwise seems confusing or ambiguous. However, Vile neglects to put emphasis on the Federalist Papers, which our founders intentionally wrote to explain the logic behind various decisions for the interpretation of the Constitution for posterity.

Through a simple presentation of the months of the Constitutional Convention that reads more like a political novel, it feels as though the reader is present and partaking in the discussion. This presentation of the Constitutional Convention is ideal for junior- and senior-level high school students, as well as lower-division history or political science undergraduate students. While the book reads in a novel-like manner, it maintains an intense level of historical information that is complemented by the inclusion of a day-by-day timeline of the Convention, as well as appendices with the Declaration of Independence, the Articles of Confederation, and the Constitution.

*The Writing and Ratification of the U.S. Constitution* brings to life the Constitutional Convention in an easy to understand method. Not only does the book bring to life the convention, but it also portrays our founding fathers as real men with a true concern for the future of a budding nation.


While the story of Francis Leiber’s role in authoring the modern laws of war is fairly well known among Civil War scholars, it remains a more obscure topic for most Americans.
Further, even Civil War experts have very little knowledge of the historical foundation that underlay what Leiber sought to do in December of 1862 under the direction of Secretary of War Edwin Stanton and general-in-chief Henry Halleck. The 157 articles that Leiber drafted, according to John Fabian Witt, Allen H. Duffy Class of 1960 Professor of Law at Yale Law School, “not only set out rules for right conduct but provide the rationales and general principles that lay behind the rules” (p. 2). But Witt claims that it went beyond this, as it also served as a weapon of war for the Lincoln administration and the Union. Further, he argues that from “the Revolution forward, the United States’ long history of leadership in creating the laws of war stands cheek by jowl with a destructive style of warfare that has come to be known among military historians as the ‘American way of war’” (pp. 5-6).

Though the book’s title suggests a primary focus on the Civil War, Part I provides a very detailed analysis of the evolution of American thinking about the rules of war from the Revolutionary War up until the Civil War. This section will be of greatest use for Civil War historians, few of whom know the context in which Leiber wrote. Witt carefully explains how the rules of war topic pervaded nearly every major aspect of U.S. military and diplomatic history, especially American concerns about the rights of belligerents to free their enemy’s slaves, American claims for neutral rights during warfare, the determination that Native Americans stood beyond the pale of conventional war, as well as American reaction to guerilla warfare. While Witt points to the underlying role of the Enlightenment in shaping European and American views on the rules of war, he stresses that it was in their own on-the-ground experiences, whether dealing with the Seminole in Florida or the guerillas in the War with Mexico, that much of American thinking on this topic developed.

Part II focuses on how the Civil War shaped American conceptions of the rules of war. Witt contends that Leiber’s articles (all 157 of which appear in the book’s helpful appendix) did not emerge from a pacifistic or anti-war ideology. Rather, Leiber believed that “short wars were more humane wars, and the way to ensure short wars was to fight them as fiercely as possible” (p. 184). Further, Witt stresses the contradiction between the impact of the laws of war during the conflict by emphasizing that while Leiber’s—and therefore Lincoln’s—code of war encompassed “Emancipation and demanding equal treatment for black soldiers,” it also “helped produce some of the war’s most enduring humanitarian crises” by ending prisoner exchanges (p. 249). One factor Witt may have emphasized that offers further credence to Leiber’s short war philosophy is that in the Civil War, for every man in uniform who died from a battle-related cause, at least two more died from disease. Longer but less violent wars only led to higher death counts.

Part III carries the story of American views of the laws of war into the post-Civil War era and traces its further development into the early twentieth century. Witt describes the application of the laws of war both in the frontier wars against Native Americans as well as in the Philippines against insurgents after the U.S. defeated Spain. Of particular interest is his coverage of the role Alfred Thayer Mahan played in shaping the outcome of the law of war convention convened at The Hague in 1899.

By far, this book’s major contribution for teachers is how it challenges the stereotypes often held about the laws of war. Witt successfully supports his thesis that humanitarianism did not stand in the forefront for those who advanced ideas on the laws of war. This is a complicated story, but one that Witt develops with care and skill in a way teachers at all levels can comprehend. His invaluable summaries of individual sections of the work as well as the work as a whole constantly clarify his points. For example, he concludes the book by noting, “The moral mandate of Lincoln’s Civil War had crafted a common vocabulary, a way of talking about war’s grave moral stakes that could be shared by war’s fiercest defenders and its most uncompromising humanitarian critics alike” (p. 365).
Audra J. Wolfe’s *Competing with the Soviets* is about the enthusiasm and anxiety that Americans had for government-sponsored science and technology during the Cold War. The author regards her study as an introduction rather than a comprehensive treatment of Cold War science and technology, though she accomplishes much in just 166 pages. Wolfe uses the story of government-sponsored science and technology during the Cold War to examine attitudes toward the role of government in the lives of ordinary Americans. Wolfe underscores that the development of nuclear weapons made scientists, particularly physicists, influential in crafting public policy. She is correct to note that the Cold War promoted military and civilian research. In brief, chapter 1 overviews the building of the first atomic weapons. Chapter 2 examines President Dwight D. Eisenhower’s military-industrial complex. Chapter 3 charts the fortunes of Big Science. Chapters 4 and 5 address the role of the social sciences in the Cold War, chapters that are insightful and well placed beside theoretical physics. These chapters nudge the reader to reflect on the definition of science. It is easy to think of science as that intellectual endeavor that uses the Scientific Method: physics, chemistry, biology, and combinations of these disciplines such as biochemistry. Wolfe’s definition is larger, including psychology, sociology, and economics. She does not include medicine as a science. Chapter 6 focuses on the Apollo program. Chapter 7 explores the limits of the Cold War belief in the utility of science.

The lucidity and organization of *Competing with the Soviets* recommend it to a cross section of students. AP high school students might benefit from reading it in the context of a course on U.S. history. Because the book is so rich in the large themes of American history, a history course that features this book would engage students in both U.S. history and history of science. This is perhaps Wolfe’s greatest contribution: the integration of an important episode in U.S. history and history of science. The main contribution of *Competing with the Soviets* is the demonstration that history of science is not some arcane branch of scholarship. Science is always the product of the society that nurtures it. The book is also suitable for college students, and will be particularly useful for history majors who will seek a teaching career and who will teach the Cold War as part of an introduction to U.S. history.

*Competing with the Soviets* merits praise. Wolfe’s brief distinction between basic and applied science, so necessary to any attempt to understand what scientists intend to accomplish, is insightful and correct. The book is an effective introduction to the relationship between science and the federal government, about which there is a vast literature. Scientists have long been eager for federal funding, a sentiment that goes back at least as far as Alexander Dallas Bache’s search for support without strings in the 1840s. Robert V. Bruce recounts this story in *The Launching of Modern American Science*. Wolfe ties the Soviet launch of Sputnik to an increase in federal funding of science, but has surprisingly little to say about the ways in which Sputnik spurred the growth of high school science and mathematics education. Wolfe appears to be more comfortable exploring Sputnik’s effects on graduate education in the United States. In an effort to make *Competing with the Soviets* a global history, Wolfe places the Cold War in the context of the rise of a post-colonial “Third World.” Central to this book is Wolfe’s exploration of the reasons why Americans embraced science and technology in the name of progress and why this consensus fragmented. Part of the explanation involves the War on Poverty. The inability of social scientists to eradicate poverty in the United States led Americans to question the utility of science. The same doubt arose when sociologists and psychologists failed to end
racism in America. Perhaps more important, the Vietnam War led thoughtful Americans to question the relationship between science and the military. Finally, the rise of conservatism in the 1980s raised doubts that government should fund any science because the size and scope of government must shrink.

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Beginning in 1908, millions of Americans purchased envelope seals at their local post office to support a new organization, the National Association for the Study and Prevention of Tuberculosis. The unprecedented success of the effort was, according to Olivier Zunz’s *Philanthropy in America*, a perfect expression a new form of mass philanthropy in the United States. Just as the fight against tuberculosis reflected larger issues such as urbanization, immigration, and the social reform of the Progressive Era, the campaign also combined another creation of the period—the philanthropic foundation—with the support of the federal government, mass advertising, and public health officials. The result was an early chapter in the history of an emerging American non-profit sector that, according to Zunz, both expanded American democracy and illustrated the ongoing tension between the private and public sector in modern American life.

While the charity of wealthy industrialists such as Andrew Carnegie, Johns Hopkins, and John D. Rockefeller dominated the late nineteenth century, Zunz emphasizes the development of a “new and uniquely American open-ended philanthropy” centered on foundations that used the growing wealth of the middle class to tackle a host of problems in education, science, and human rights. In contrast to older charity that focused on the needy, this new form of philanthropy sought an “unlimited agenda of works” with the ambitious goal of improving all of humanity. Philanthropic foundations in the United States grew from twenty-seven in 1915 to over 200 in 1930. The first community foundation, whose comprehensive efforts evolved into the United Way, emerged in Cleveland in 1914 and the U.S. experience in World War I expanded the American Red Cross from 107 to almost 4,000 chapters by the end of the decade. Fueled by a growing “ethic of giving,” organizations fought diseases such as polio, promoted agriculture at home and abroad, and funded scientific research at universities whose religious origins had previously hindered such efforts.

Zunz’s contention that philanthropy always held a precarious position in American political life requires an appreciation of how developments in American legal history both enabled and limited the growth of modern philanthropy. Although seminal changes in American tax law do not make for a riveting narrative for students, the evolution of American philanthropy does provide teachers of history with revealing and sometimes more tangible evidence of larger historical forces. For example, *Philanthropy in America* touches on the power of mass propaganda during World War I, debates between Herbert Hoover’s emphasis on volunteerism and Franklin Roosevelt’s government programs during the Great Depression, the innovation of Lyndon Johnson’s Great Society, and the relationship between the New Right, philanthropy, and the culture wars in recent decades. Just as other relatively narrow topics such as the history of American education, military history, or the history of business in the United States illuminate larger and often-underappreciated historical forces, the history of philanthropy provides a powerful vehicle for exploring
important ideological terrain. Compelling examples include the role of organizations such as the Ford Foundation in combining overseas philanthropy and Cold War ideology in the decades after World War II and, on a topic with continued relevance within our contemporary American political culture, the evolving and often contentious debate over the proper relationship between government programs and private efforts.

As impressive as the growth of philanthropy was during the “American Century,” teachers may discover more value in exploring the limits to what often appears to be a narrative of unfolding progress. Much of Zunz’s analysis appears to reflect the almost unyielding faith in the betterment of humanity that the pioneers of American mass philanthropy embodied on the eve of modern America. However, Philanthropy in America also acknowledges the seemingly insurmountable challenges of northern charitable foundations in attempting to promote social change in the Jim Crow South. Even well-funded foundations run by the sorts of professional experts that came to symbolize the ascendency of the non-profit sector often had to wait for the activism of the Civil Rights Movement to succeed in the South. For students, an even more provocative and largely unexplored aspect of Zunz’s analysis is the fact that, despite the impressive growth in the both the scope and complexity of American philanthropy, American poverty persisted at rates of over 11% of the U.S. population by the end of the century. This phenomenon suggests the importance of understanding the development of American philanthropy as part of a larger analysis of the complex role of modern American capitalism in shaping the twentieth century.

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