

# **OAH Newsletter**

**Organization of American Historians**

**Vol. 12, No. 2**

**May 1984**

**The evolution of American intellectual history**

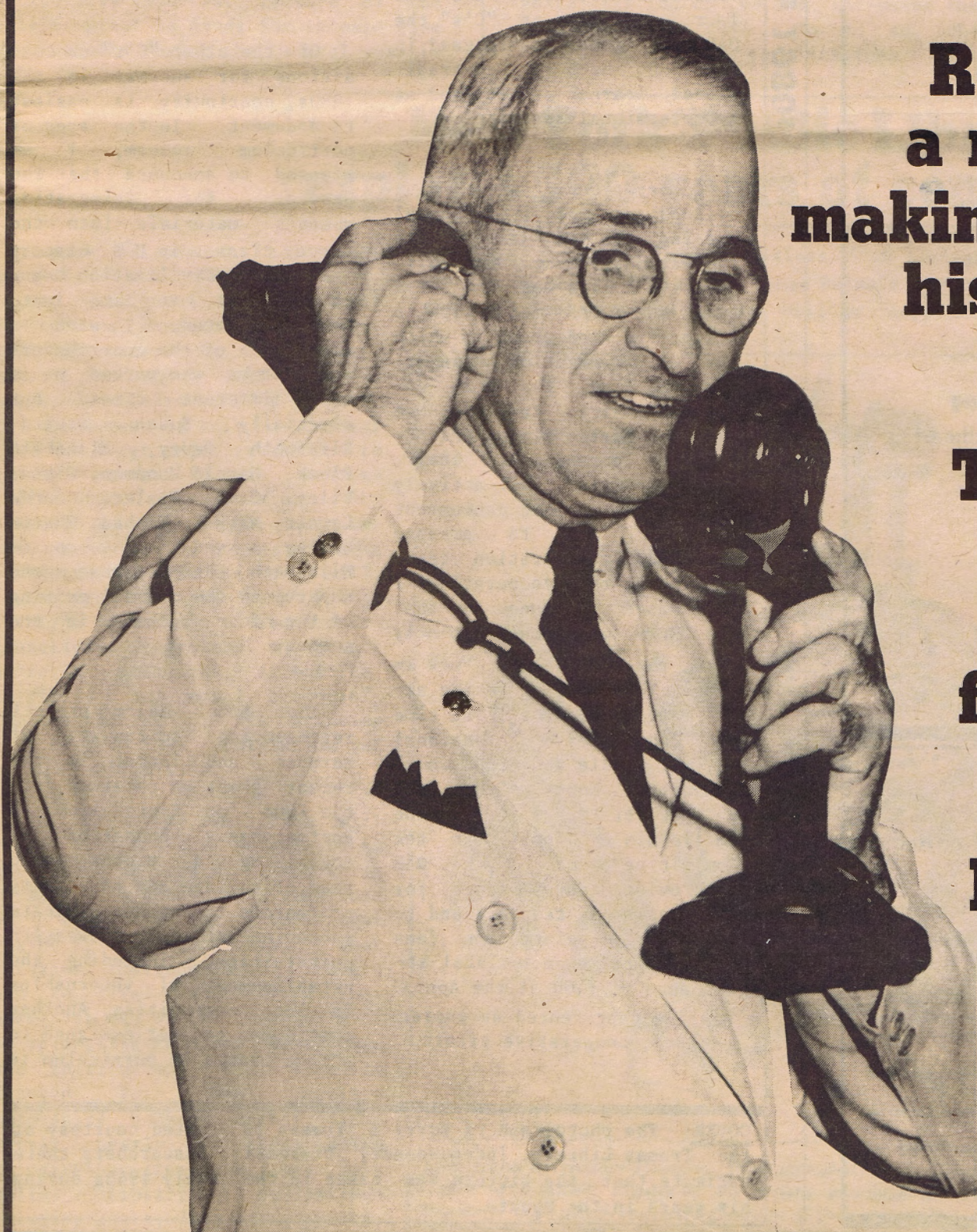
**Listening to history:  
farming families and family farms**

**Encounters with Clio: the evolution of modern  
American historical writing**

**Responding to  
a nation at risk:  
making education and  
history priorities**

**The importance  
of the history  
of American  
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**Harry S. Truman  
and the  
historians**





# Newsletter

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Full-, half-, quarter-page, and job announcement advertisements are available. Contact the advertising manager for rates and deadlines.

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Members of the OAH receive the Journal of American History, the Program to the annual meeting, and the Newsletter. Information about membership dues is available from the above address.

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## Report of the Executive Secretary

Joan Hoff-Wilson

AFTER ALMOST THREE years as Executive Secretary, I find that the two previous reports I have given have been consistent in stressing three areas of activity: reform of history curriculum; advocacy work; and outreach programs.

From a practical point of view, however, the very consistency of these goals has made me change the ways in which I think they can be obtained. I now see that greater cooperation with other history-related groups is necessary to achieve success in all three areas. It has become clear in the last three years that the OAH will have to consolidate its resources and organizational structure to ensure continuity of curricular reform, advocacy work, and to initiate more cooperative outreach ventures. Cooperation, continuity, consolidation, and individual contributions, then, are the four conditions or "C's" the OAH must adopt to succeed in the 1980s both as a traditional learned society and as a professional association.

Cooperation was most evident at the 1984 Annual Meeting. We met jointly with the National Council on Public History. This was the first time the OAH met with a history-related group in which the OAH Convention Manager, Mary Belding, the NCPH co-program chairs, Barbara Howe and John Porter Bloom, and NCPH local arrangements chair, Larry de Graaf, all actively cooperated to plan concurrent sessions and to arrange combined registration fees. Continuing this cooperation, I am pleased to announce that the NCPH will meet jointly with the OAH in New York in 1986. This year's meeting also represented the first time the OAH hosted a professional day for middle and high school teachers. Money from the Rockefeller Foundation and the California Council for the Humanities permitted the OAH to provide travel funds for some of these teachers and to waive the registration fees for all of them. Total attendance of 1400 at the Annual Meeting represented an unprecedented, cooperative effort.

It has also been a year of other kinds of cooperative activities as well. For example, the OAH worked with the Institute for Research in History on a project commemorating the centennial of Eleanor Roosevelt's birth; with the Women's Studies Program at the University of Illinois/Chicago Circle on a project for integrating third world women's materials into survey classes; with the Columbia University Oral History Project to plan an oral history of the profession; and the OAH ad hoc Bicentennial Committee has members from all parts of the country, including the National Park Service, working with their local institutions and regions to develop broadly based constitutional programs before 1987. OAH President Arthur Link and I have discussed ways in which the OAH and AHA can prevent overlap and duplication in the future.

Of the other "C's" or conditions for success in the 1980s, continuity is easiest to document. In the area of curriculum reform, I am pleased to announce that the project for integrating women's materials into the survey classes in U.S. history and Western Civilization begun in 1979 has, at long last, been completed. I want to thank all of the contributors and editors who worked on it at different times, but especially Susan Stuard, Elisabeth Perry, Elizabeth Pleck, Harold Woodman, Glenda Riley, Carl Degler, Gerda Lerner, Mary K. Tachau, Sharon Harley, and of course Elizabeth Fox-Genovese, who supervised the overall editing of the four packets in the series.

The other major project representing continuity of purpose and intent is the recent grant we received from the Fund for Improvement of Postsecondary Education for organizing a midwest-based team of college and university professors to improve graduate education at six midwestern universities, including the establishment of internships in local communities. Another continuing project designed to effect change in curriculum is

Conditions for Succeeding in the 1980s

**COVER:** The photograph of Harry S. Truman is printed courtesy of the Truman Library, Independence, Missouri. Researchers there estimate that the picture was taken in the early 1940s during his years in the Senate.



the pamphlet series initiated by the OAH Public History Committee. Two of these pamphlets are already in print; a third and fourth are projected for this year. All are intended to help history departments adjust their course offerings to prepare M.A. and Ph.D. students for jobs in the public and private sectors.

OAH outreach and advocacy programs also reflect the need for cooperation and continuity. The National Coordinating Committee for the Promotion of History has increased the number of groups supporting its lobbying efforts. NCC Director Page Miller has played such an effective role in this effort that I have not felt the need to testify before Congress this past year. She has been involved in over a half-dozen different issues pending in Congress affecting historians ranging from legislation calling for separation of NARS from GSA to hearings on President Reagan's National Security Decision Directive 84, an Orwellian presidential attempt at censorship that bears close watching by all historians.

All of these examples of cooperation and continuity indicate that the OAH is trying to retain the functions of a learned society while adopting some of the public policy activities of a professional association. Consequently, the Organization is in a difficult transition period. If we keep that in perspective, we will understand our discomfort and frustration with what is more a philosophical than a financial dilemma and why some of us are uncomfortable with either the new directions of the Organization or simply with the fact that the Organization seems so beset at the moment with what are a flurry of temporary problems. Some of these can be remedied through the third "C," organizational and financial consolidation.

On April 4, the Executive Board took a significant step by recommending that all committees consist of five members with the exception of the Editorial Board, the Nominating Board, and the Program Committee. It was further recommended that, beginning in 1985, the incoming president appoint one Executive Board member to serve on each of the five remaining service committees. This will provide each committee with a direct liaison with

the Executive Board at all times.

Even these efforts at consolidation and economy will not bring the budget into balance this year. I made several other cost-saving suggestions which the Executive Board rejected. One was to reduce its own size from seventeen to fifteen or twelve. Another would be not to meet when we do in the spring. We are now meeting at a bad time for hotel rates, and we cannot effectively negotiate lower hotel rates. We could continue to meet in the spring but not at such peak periods. If we met at a nonpeak time, it would mean that the Annual Meeting would overlap with either Easter or Passover. This is the major objection to the change, but I will continue certainly to raise the question at future Executive Board meetings.

While you have no doubt heard a great deal about our current deficit, I want to underscore that it is not the product of any proportionately greater spending on the part of the Organization. Increases in OAH expenditures over the last decade reflect almost exactly the same percentage of increase as the rate of inflation. This deficit also reflects the Executive Committee's November 1983 decision to operate for fiscal year 1984 exclusively on income from dues. This means we will not deplete our capital investment fund by continuing to take the interest from it. The 1984 budget represents what we anticipate dues income will be because the Organization has not been operating exclusively from dues in recent years. This is a practical and hard-headed decision to which the Executive Board committed itself on April 6 for the coming fiscal year and, possibly, for the year after that.

Since the OAH and AHA seem to have reached a plateau of about 12,000 members each, we cannot expect to increase income significantly from dues in the future. As I said in my last annual report, this membership plateau means that, unless we cut back on some of the traditional and newer outreach functions, we must find new sources of income. Several years ago when he was OAH President, William Appleman Williams fought valiantly to establish an endow-

ment fund for the Organization. To this day he remains the single most generous contributor to that fund. Other members have either not believed in the seriousness of the OAH's financial predicament, or they have not agreed with some of the new directions it has taken as a professional association, or both. But for whatever reason, the OAH has not been able to draw upon the generosity of its members as Williams and others hoped it would.

Until we raise between \$50,000 and \$100,000 so that we can realistically qualify for a challenge grant, Williams's financial dream for the Organization will not be realized. In the last appeal we made with this year's ballot mailing, we collected a total of \$1,513 from 84 of you, which is an average gift of \$18.01. It would take a contribution of only \$10 from our active members to meet the amount necessary to apply for and successfully carry out a challenge grant. I urge you to consider such a contribution as a last "C" or condition for success in the 1980s. Once we are able to increase our capital investment fund to a half million dollars (preferably to around \$750,000), the Organization could diversify our investments so that some could be put aside for dividends and some for growth. This is essential for the OAH to have an operating budget not totally dependent on membership dues.

Additional operating funds are needed because the Bloomington office is understaffed. The OAH has the same size membership as the AHA, but less than one-third of its operating funds and less than one-half its staff. Consequently, the amount of overwork endured by each of the staff is the true marvel of the Organization. If it had not been for the devotion of the staff, especially the long-term, full-time members, the Organization would have felt this financial squeeze long before now. We only have five full-time employees; the rest are half-time or less. When we have a balanced budget once again, my first priority will be to see that this exploitive situation is ameliorated.

You might have thought that of the four conditions that I have mentioned as requisites

for success in the 1980s--cooperation, continuity, consolidation, and contributions--I should have included the obvious fifth "C," the computer system. Because of our computer problems over the last year, some of you may have thought that the Organization would not make it to 1984. We regret these problems but believe that the conversion is almost complete.

As I contemplate the end of my third year as Executive Secretary (in about six months), I feel satisfied that the reorganization of the office, the resolution of computer problems, and a realistic budget, which does not harm our capital investment fund, are all in place. The major outreach programs which I brought to the Organization are either operational or on their way to obtaining funding. The Organization should, therefore, continue its learned society and professional association functions in the future if it pursues these four conditions necessary for success in the 1980s.

★ ★ ★

The last appeal I want to make to the membership at large is this: Our search for a new Editor for the Journal of American History did not succeed in its first round. Although the two search committees came up with an excellent single candidate, he did not accept the position. The search has, therefore, been reopened, and I hope all of you will give serious consideration to yourself and your colleagues as possible candidates. In particular, the first search turned up an inadequate pool of minority and women candidates. This is the single most important appointment the Organization makes, and I don't want it to be made in haste or without a most thorough, affirmative action, and creative search. By creative I mean searching out people at the associate rather than full professor rank and those employed (or unemployed) in public and private sectors with the required skills, energy, and professional historical training. I also recommend that we search out husband and wife teams. Please send names to me directly, to Arthur Link at Princeton, or to the two committee chairs: Martin Ridge at the Huntington Library and Maurice Baxter at the I.U. History Department in Bloomington.



## Report of the Treasurer

Robert Murray

THE YEAR 1983 continued the recent pattern of financial reverses for the Organization. Cumulative inflationary pressures, continued expansion and modernization of the Bloomington office, and declining membership revenues made financial planning and budget control extremely difficult. At the end of the year, computer problems added to the Organization's woes.

The 1983 budget anticipated an operating deficit of \$12,537, based on revenues of \$409,215 and expenditures of \$421,752. I am happy to report that by carefully monitoring all disbursements, actual expenditures were held to \$406,813, or \$14,939 under the budget.

Unfortunately, income continued to decline, creating another unhealthy fiscal situation. Instead of realizing the 1983 budget income of \$409,215, revenues came to only \$360,783, or almost \$49,000 under budget projections. This latter condition can be blamed partially on the fact that computer failure caused many 4th quarter bills not to be mailed out until late December (approximately \$46,000 worth). Normally, payment for one-half to sixty-percent of these bills would have been received before the end of the fiscal year, thereby causing the income picture to have appeared somewhat brighter. Even if this would have oc-

curred, the operating deficit would still have been in the \$20,000 range. As it stands, the actual operating deficit for 1983 is \$46,030.

The 1984 budget is a spartan one which cuts numerous items, allows for no more than marginal salary adjustments for staff, and permits only minimum inflationary increases in office and printing expenses. The total disbursement figure of \$432,055 represents only a 2.4 percent advance over the 1982 budget. The income figure of \$432,275 is a most conservative estimate, based on the new dues schedule passed last year which is just now being implemented (beginning January 1, 1984). With prudent action by all concerned, the year 1984 should again see a balanced fiscal budget--and one without relying on supplemental income from the investment account for normal day-to-day operating expenses.

I cannot close this report without thanking the membership and all the present and past officers of the Organization for their cooperation during my eight years as treasurer. On the whole it has been a pleasant experience, although it has been one filled with concern for the Organization's financial future. Because of that concern, I would like to take a brief moment to leave with you some thoughts and several recommendations about future fiscal planning and budgeting for whatever they may be worth:

(1). After the dues increase takes effect in 1984, a further increase in membership income is unlikely for the near future. Indeed, for fiscal purposes the Organization would be wise to build into the budget provisions for a slight attrition as time goes by. In short, for the next several years both membership and total income will have reached a relatively steady state.

(2). All budgeting should be directly related to anticipated income. That is, anticipated income should set the parameters for budgeted disbursements. Expenses should not be incurred on the mere assumption that additional income will be generated somehow.

(3). New functions should be added only if fiscal support is in hand for such endeavors. Peripheral activities (such as publishing pamphlets, etc.) should be supported separately (for example, from funds generated by the investment account). As a rule of thumb, the Organization loses money on such activities. Be wary.

(4). "Unbalanced" budgets are no longer feasible. All future budgets should be on a "pay-as-you-go" basis since the Organization is simply a "cash in" and "cash out" operation. In this regard, for example, committee expense budgeting should be reformed so that set limits are established and published. Not only would this be fairer to the

## 1983 Financial Report

## Operating Account

Cash balance January 1, 1983	1,386.35	
<b>Receipts:</b>	<b>1983</b>	<b>1984 Budget</b>
Memberships	226,733.48	294,500.00
Sale of Publications	12,996.42	17,900.00
Journal and Newsletter Advertising	29,632.60	35,000.00
Annual Meeting	63,107.61	63,000.00
Trust Account Income	20,000.00	----
Interest and Income (restricted funds)	2,829.04	2,890.00
Other (administration of grants, royalties, etc.)	5,483.98	18,985.00
<b>Totals</b>	<b>360,783.13</b>	<b>432,275.00</b>
<b>Disbursements:</b>		
Salaries and benefits	153,387.44	169,450.00
Office and Gen'l Administration	30,530.09	26,925.00
Printing	121,790.69	118,580.00
Travel	4,326.08	5,000.00
Annual Meeting	16,199.71	20,000.00
Newsletter	14,612.37	13,000.00
Membership Promotion	4,325.63	6,000.00
Boards and Committees	21,617.85	25,000.00
Awards	5,500.00	5,700.00
Editorial	29,531.63	37,000.00
Other	4,991.89	5,400.00
<b>Totals</b>	<b>406,813.38</b>	<b>432,055.00</b>
Cash Balance December 31, 1983	4,464.24	

## Revolving Funds

Beginning Balance January 1, 1983	-40.90
Receipts	44,300.41
Disbursements	34,181.63
Ending Balance December 31, 1983	10,077.88

## Trust Account

Income Cash Balance January 1, 1983	1,000.00
<b>Receipts:</b>	
Interest and Dividends	21,403.25
Sale of Securities	111,812.49
<b>Disbursements:</b>	
Agency Fees	1,920.25
Paid to Operating Budget	20,000.00
Purchase of Securities	127,095.88
Income Cash Balance December 31, 1983	914.60

## Summary of Investments Held, December 31, 1983

	Cost Value	Market Value
Short Term	10,497.32	10,497.32
U.S. Government and Agencies	123,999.99	113,381.25
Corporate Bonds	80,056.25	56,306.25
Common Stocks	47,196.81	64,075.00
<b>Totals</b>	<b>261,750.37</b>	<b>244,259.82</b>



members but would cause more attention to be paid to the fiscal feasibility of convention sites.

(5). Expenses must be kept from ballooning as they have in recent years. The statistics are revealing: Since 1975, membership income has increased from \$193,784 to roughly \$252,000, or 30 percent. Total income has increased from \$271,365 to approximately \$380,000, or 42 percent. But disbursements have climbed from \$232,978 to almost \$407,000, or 70 percent. The Organization's main salvation through all this

has been the \$20,000 per year it has been drawing out of the investment account since 1978. This must be stopped.

One final word: When I consider the expansion in the functions and activities of the Organization since 1975 and realize how different and more involved an Organization it now is, I can only marvel at how sound a financial shape it is in considering the limited resources it had at its disposal. Looking back over these eight years, it is clear that we have participated in some truly creative

financing: our investment account principal remains intact; the Journal continues to be first-rate; the executive secretary is three-quarter time; the number of committees has markedly expanded; the Newsletter has begun to rival the New York Times; and all our bills are paid. Indeed, there is much of which we can be proud.

But we do also leave a potential legacy to the future of a serious financial crisis if the flow of red ink in our day-to-day operations is not staunch.

## A Thank You Note from the Outgoing President

On April 9, I sat down to write a note of thanks to each committee member who served during my year as President — only to realize that I would be doing nothing else for a month. I am so grateful for all the hard work of so many people, and especially for the concerted effort which led to a very successful annual meeting, that I trust even this impersonal mode of communication will convey some part of my profound appreciation to each of you.

Anne Firor Scott

## Business Meeting Minutes

President Anne Firor Scott called the OAH Business Meeting to order at 5:05 p.m. on April 6, 1984 in the Corinthian Room at the Biltmore Hotel. She reported that during the year vital signs of the Organization appeared strong. Membership figures remained steady, and historical activity in research, teaching, and publishing was vigorous. Attendance at the Annual Meeting was only about 1,400, but the program was of high quality, and an unprecedented number of

high school history teachers participated. She praised the hard work of the Executive Board and the national staff. She also announced that the OAH is still seeking a Treasurer and Editor. People who have names to suggest for replacing retiring Treasurer Robert K. Murray should contact Arthur S. Link, the new President. Nominations for Editor to succeed Lewis Perry should be sent to the OAH search committee chair Martin Ridge, Huntington Library, San Marino, California 91108.

Regarding the OAH's financial situation, President Scott observed that in the past ten years OAH activities have expanded faster than income has grown. Recent computer problems have aggravated both member complaints and the present budgetary crisis. Committee expenses have been reduced and the Executive Board has written a by-law change that would further save money while providing greater oversight of committee operations (see ballot on back page of this issue). The Executive Board has agreed to receive no compensation for its November meeting if the budget does not allow it. For 1985, funds for all committees will be distributed from one common fund on the same basis for all committees.

Robert K. Murray gave the Treasurer's Report (see related article this issue). The business meeting accepted the report.

Lewis Perry gave the Editor's Report (see News and Comments section of the September 1984 Journal of American History).

Joan Hoff-Wilson gave the Executive Secretary's Report (see related article this issue).

Harold D. Woodman, chair of the Nominating Board, reported the results of the 1984 OAH election. Elected to the Executive Board were: George M. Fredrickson, Lawrence Levine, and Nell Irvin Painter; elected to the Nominating Board were: Lois Green Carr, Thomas Dublin, and Bertram Wyatt-Brown. Arthur S. Link and William Leuchtenburg were elected President and

President-Elect, respectively, without opposition. The Nominating Board has selected Leon F. Litwack as its candidate for President-Elect in 1985. The full slate for the 1985 election will be printed in the August 1984 Newsletter.

President Scott asked the meeting for its approval of the general policy statement distributed at the meeting (see related article this issue). The policy statement does not replace any portion of the Constitution or By-laws of the Organization, but it is a declaration of the OAH's purpose in the near future. The general policy statement was approved by the business meeting after a question on procedure and several editorial changes.

President Scott explained that OAH has become involved in more grants in recent years, and the projects and grants statement establishes a clear policy toward these activities (see related article this issue). The statement specifies that grants and projects pertain to the purposes of the OAH and that they permit sufficient oversight to protect the name of the OAH. The statement was approved by the business meeting. A third policy statement dealt directly with the administration of grants (see related article this issue). This statement was also approved by the business meeting.

Upon the suggestion of President Anne F. Scott, the meeting applauded the service of Robert K. Murray and Lewis Perry to the OAH, and adjourned.

## OAH Call for Papers

The Program Committee for the OAH Annual Meeting to be held in New York on April 9-12, 1986 invites proposals for entire sessions, individual papers, panels, or teaching workshops, although the Committee strongly encourages submissions of complete sessions. Specialists in American history who participate on the 1986 Program must be members of the Organization.

Proposals should include a two-page synopsis that summarizes the thesis, methodology, and significance of each paper and one vitae for each participant. Materials should be forwarded in duplicate to any member of the 1986 Program Committee: Kenneth T. Jackson (Chair), Columbia University, 610 Fayerweather Hall, New York, New York 10027; Suellen Hoy, North Carolina Division of Archives and History; Michael Kammen, Cornell University; Morton Keller, Brandeis University; Rosalind Rosenberg, Wesleyan University; or Melvin I. Urofsky, Virginia Commonwealth University. The deadline for submissions is March 1, 1985.

The National Council on Public History will be meeting jointly with the OAH in New York, April 9-12, 1986. The NCPH Program Committee invites submissions of complete sessions, workshops, or individual papers; complete sessions will be given preference. Proposals may be on any aspect of the practice of history, substantive research, or issues of concern to the profession. Proposals should include a two-page synopsis of the issues to be addressed and their development by each participant, as well as a vitae for each participant. Sessions should include no more than five participants. Three copies of all materials should be sent to NCPH Program Co-Chair Deborah S. Gardner, The Institute for Research in History, 432 Park Avenue South, New York, New York 10016. Deadline for submissions is March 1, 1985.



## Executive Board Actions

THE OAH EXECUTIVE Board met April 4 and 7, 1984 at the Biltmore Hotel in Los Angeles, California. The Board took the following major actions:

**APPROPRIATED** \$1,000 for the NCC from money budgeted for the Committee for the Defense of the Rights of Historians.

**ASKED** the two search committees for a new JAH Editor to continue its search for another four months.

**DECIDED** not to charge public high schools for reprinting Journal articles. The charge for requests from colleges and universities was unchanged.

**AUTHORIZED** the Editor to cooperate with the Library of Congress in its electronic reproduction project with the understanding that the Library would report to the OAH on this project.

**APPROVED** making the size of the service committees five members. The committees having three-year terms, affected by this by-law change are: Access, History in the Schools and Colleges, Media of Women, and Public History. (See ballot, back page.)

**DECIDED** to place one Executive Board member on each of the five committees named above and one on the Membership Committee. (Second- and third-year elected members of the Board will be appointed by the President to serve two-year terms on these committees.)

**APPROVED** appointment of ad hoc members to each service committee. These members will be listed in the Program, but they will not receive any funding from the OAH.

**ENDED** Frederick Jackson Turner Award cash prize to

publishers. The Frederick Jackson Turner Award will continue to give prize to the author of a best first book published by a university press. The press will continue to receive a certificate and one free Journal ad for the award-winning book.

**AGREED** that for 1984 the Executive Board will receive compensation for the fall meeting only if the budget permits.

**INSTRUCTED** that the 1985 budget allocate committee travel funds from one budget line and that they will be distributed among all committees in an equitable and proportionate manner.

**APPROVED** the general policy statements as amended. (See related article.)

**APPROVED** the outreach statement as amended. (See related article.)

**ADDED** to the grant policy

statement a paragraph that requires the appointment of a grant review committee for any grant-created product that bears the OAH name. The entire statement was approved as amended. (See related article.)

**AGREED** that the grant policy statement supersedes all previous Board resolutions concerning grants.

**AUTHORIZED** the Executive Secretary to investigate St. Louis, Kansas City, and Houston as possible 1989 convention sites.

**ACCEPTED** the offer of ABC-Clio to fund prize for the best article in a developing field of history. The OAH prize committee will decide the criteria for the biennial prize and judge the entrees. ABC-Clio will fund the prize and administrative costs. (See ballot, back page.)

**REAFFIRMED** the policy of opening OAH records at the Nebraska State Archives after ten years.

## General Policy Statement

THE MISSION AND purpose of the Organization of American Historians in the 1980s is to retain its traditional functions as a learned society while adopting some of the public policy functions of a professional association. The Organization will pursue this mission by: maintaining high standards of instruction and scholarship in the history of the United States at all levels; encouraging historic preservation activities and projects; promoting open access to all documents necessary for responsible historical research; improving media and commemorative treatment of historical subjects; and defending public and private sources of funding for scholars. In addition, the OAH seeks to strengthen traditional library and archival resources for scholars; facilitate the training of graduate students in history for jobs in the public and private sectors, as well as for those in academe; and promote the efficient, economic, and successful integration of materials on women and minorities into high-school and college-level curricula. The OAH will also cooperate with other national associations in history or related fields in order to reduce administrative costs and overlapping activities.

## Projects and Grants Policy

THE FOLLOWING STATEMENT is written with the understanding that many outreach projects can be undertaken without external funding from grants, but that some will require additional monies.

1. Any activity undertaken by the Organization of American Historians must be consistent with the object of the OAH as stated in Article II of the Constitution and in the General Policy Statement of the Organization.

2. The Executive Board delegates to the Executive Secretary the responsibility for approving all requests for OAH endorsement of activities or policies of organizations or groups representing specific specializations within the history profession, including OAH committees.

3. Requests from groups or organizations outside of the profession will be submitted for approval to the Executive Board either at Annual Meetings or by mail.

### Grants Policy

ALTHOUGH GRANTS CAN facilitate appropriate activities of the OAH, not all grant proposals involve projects appropriate for the Organization of American Historians. Therefore:

1. Grants must be consistent with the object of the OAH as stated in Article II of the Constitution and in the General Policy Statement of the Organization.

2. The OAH will serve as the fiscal agent or cosponsor of externally funded projects with other scholarly organizations when the Executive Secretary determines that such participation will not strain the Organization's resources, finances, or staff and clerical support.

3. The Executive Board delegates authority to the Executive Secretary to negotiate the best terms for the Organization when it serves as fiscal agent or cosponsor of a grant.

4. The Executive Board shall appoint ad hoc committees consisting of Board

members and invited OAH members to prepare grant proposals on specific subjects. When an ad hoc committee is appointed, the Board shall determine whether there will be any funding for meetings or conference calls. Moreover, standing committees of the OAH will be encouraged to prepare grant proposals.

5. The Executive Secretary shall regularly inform the Executive Committee of all grant negotiations of more than \$25,000, and the Executive Board of any general grant ideas developed by the Bloomington office or by committees of the OAH.

6. Any product bearing the name of the Organization of American Historians shall be reviewed by a committee appointed by the President from the Board prior to its release.

## 1984 Douglass Adair Prize

THE 1984 DOUGLASS ADAIR MEMORIAL PRIZE was awarded to Gordon S. Wood for "Conspiracy and the Paranoid Style: Causality and Deceit in the Eighteenth Century" (William and Mary Quarterly, July 1982). Professor Wood is a member of the department of history at Brown University.

The Adair Prize is awarded every two years to the author of the best article published by the William and Mary Quarterly over the past six years. The award is made under the auspices of the Claremont Graduate School and the Institute of Early American History and Culture in Williamsburg, Virginia.

We apologize for not including information on the 1984 Douglass Adair Memorial Prize in earlier publications and regret the inconvenience occasioned by our oversight.



# 1984 OAH Professional Day

Vincent A. Sellers

IT WAS AN exciting week in Los Angeles for me, a history teacher. Perhaps I should modify that description of myself somewhat: as a recent graduate of a history department and a school of education, I am a prospective history teacher. I attended the OAH Annual Meeting as a member of the staff. My specific task before and during the Meeting was to help Jerry Bobilya, OAH Assistant for Professional/Educational Programs, coordinate and implement the Professional Day for Secondary and Middle School Teachers of American History.

I spent most of my time in the registration area for Professional Day. It was across the hall from the main registration area for the Annual Meeting. The arrangement of the registration tables caused a stir. Many of the high school and middle school teachers, some of whom are long-time members of the OAH, resented being segregated from the other registrants. The separate registration had been set up because of logistics and the free materials which were supplied for Professional Day.

About 130 teachers registered for Professional Day, most of whom were from California. Twenty-four people from across the country received Rockefeller Foundation Scholarships awarded by the OAH.

Despite this relatively low attendance, we consider the Professional Day a success. Several positive things were accomplished. The barriers between college and university teachers of history, on one hand, and high school and middle school teachers of history, on the other, were lessened a bit. Though the barriers are definitely still there, communication was going on throughout the Annual Meeting between those who "toil in the trenches" and those who "preside in the ivory towers."

According to the secondary and middle school teachers, this barrier is very pronounced. It is a subtle problem and difficult to define. From complaints and conversations I overheard, the problem is one of attitude on the part of both high school and university teachers. High

school teachers describe themselves as "second-class citizens," and "nonscholars." However, I felt that it was they who were making an issue of their status and made a special effort to identify themselves as high school teachers of American history. Indeed, they had separate sessions, a special Professional Day, and different problems to confront.

The other half of the problem is the attitude of college and university teachers of history. From the feedback I heard from the high school teachers, the ivory tower inhabitants are elitist in attitude, do not feel that high school teachers are professionals or can think independently and creatively, are not scholars, and are not capable of competing with college professors in the scholarly area of presenting papers at programs.

Though the perspective I heard was entirely one-sided, evidence was given to support the thesis, and I believe that it is well-founded. However, there are many exceptions to the rule, as the Professional Day participants discovered at this year's Annual Meeting. Participants were generally very enthusiastic at the attitude they encountered. They felt that the OAH membership was genuinely concerned with their problems as history educators, and that the Professional Day itself was a sign of the attitudinal change of the OAH in trying to break down the barriers of communication. We received good feedback about the sessions as being worthwhile and stimulating.

There revolved about this latter issue two points of debate: content versus method development. Some of the high school teachers thought the sessions should have had more methods of instruction; others believed the intellectual stimulation was the proper format for an OAH Annual Meeting and that methods should be left to the social studies conventions. This issue brought out another concern of high school teachers: the relative expertise of the historical profession. Some participants made the point that they are the experts on how to teach history to both receptive and unreceptive audiences, but that they should yield to the expertise

of college and university teachers in the area of content. It was suggested that high school teachers be integrated into sessions on how to teach the information presented by the historian, and that this information would be valuable not only to high school teachers of history but to any teacher of history at any level.

As in most cases, this issue was solved at the middle ground. It was generally agreed that a balance between methods and content sessions should be achieved and that high school teachers should be integrated into some sessions with college teachers, but not all.

When the emotions elicited by the communication problem had cleared, what emerged was a positive feeling about the strides made at the 1984 OAH Annual Meeting in addressing the needs and concerns of high school instructors of history. Several specific proposals were presented to the Executive Board by the Chair of the OAH Committee on History in the Schools and Colleges, Clair Keller of Iowa State University. (At one point during the "Crackerbarrel Session" Friday evening, Keller commented that as the only representative of the "ivory tower" present, he was being stung by the arrows of criticism aimed at college and university professors, and that he would be a sorry sight the following morning before the OAH Executive Board with all those arrows protruding.) What was discovered amidst the debate was the common ground of teaching history. History is under attack on many fronts in the school curricula as courses are cut back in favor of science or math courses or because vocational courses are deemed more relevant by short-sighted school board members. High school teachers at the Annual Meeting complained about coaches who just happen to teach a social studies course called history. History is losing ground because history teachers in many high schools aren't particularly interested in history, and courses suffer from this attitude. The OAH, the Professional Day participants thought, could be a leader in reestablishing the prestige and prominence of history in the schools' curricula by organizing and supporting high school teachers whose main concern and interest is history. Some of their specific proposals included an

OAH newsletter for high school teachers to use as supplemental material in the classroom; an honors society for high school students who excel in history; a teaching division of the OAH for the secondary level; regional conferences to encourage a broader attendance of OAH-sponsored events; establishment of a standard for the teaching of history in the schools and colleges; and the continued encouragement of high school teachers to attend the OAH Annual Meeting and to join the Organization. Several of these ideas were presented to the Executive Board by Professor Keller.

I have only recently been introduced to the issues and debates involving high school and college-level educators of history. Listening to history teachers who have been in the field for several years, I thought perhaps they protested too much and were exaggerating the extent of the problem. However, having just recently graduated from a teaching certification program in Indiana, I quickly recognized the problem history faces in an environment dominated by the social studies. Somehow, the teaching of history for an educator whose primary interest was and is history got lost in the effort to teach me how to teach social studies.

The OAH, of which I am a member, can and does play a national role in helping those of us who want to teach history in the high schools. We need encouragement and support, and our primary interest in history must be nurtured by the OAH.

The existing barriers are falling in the face of our common interest and concern for the teaching of history. We are all history teachers, and we are all history scholars. The 1984 OAH Professional Day was a successful step in extending the membership of the OAH to all history teachers at all levels. And, as this intermingling continues, the communication problems of the past will naturally resolve themselves if we history educators all remember that history is the subject that binds us all together.

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# The evolution of American intellectual history

*I am not sure when the phrase American intellectual history came into common use. It appeared rarely if at all in the writings of the pioneers.*

Merle Curti

AGAIN AND AGAIN during the last four or five decades, we have seen the introduction of new areas of specialization--black history, ethnic history, women's history, popular history, psychohistory, public history, and so on. Both in association with and apart from these, we have seen the wider and more complicated use of more or less new methods of inquiry and explanation. I have often wondered how these innovations fared in their early stages. Was it, for example, hard or easy to get special sessions approved by committees arranging programs at the annual meetings? Were established journals reasonably hospitable when articles were submitted? How difficult was it to launch new periodicals and keep them afloat? Was there much opposition in departments when new programs and courses knocked at the door? I hope that we shall eventually have full accounts for all these innovations; they would fill some gaps in our knowledge of our profession.

Robert Allen Skotheim, Harvey Wish, and John Higham among others have reported and interpreted the rise of American intellectual history as a discrete field so fully and well that no personal remarks can probably add anything of much significance to our understanding. Still, personal experiences do have an interest of their own. I hope that my remarks may not be read as "an advertisement for myself." No one could be more certain than I that what happened was the result of an empirical collective effort in relation to particular conditions at the time.

While some historians of the United States may have been indifferent to the increasing interest in our intellectual past, this was not, I think, generally true. Some openly questioned its importance. Granting its value, others questioned whether its promoters had the tools necessary to cope with its problems. When, as was often the case, intellectual history was especially associated with "relativism," we met with sharp, even bitter criticism.

I am not sure when the phrase American intellectual history came into common use. It appeared rarely if at all in the writings of the pioneers. Moses Coit Tyler began his great history of the ideas and literature of early America by reminding his readers that the American people had been "recording their intellectual history in laws, manners, institutions, in battles with man and beast and nature. . . in edifices, in pictures, in statues, in written words." Thereafter, he spoke of ideas and the emotions that lay back of them as expressed in literature broadly defined. Henry Adams used the phrase "the American mind" rather than

intellectual history in his celebrated chapters on intellectual interests in the several regions in 1800 and in the country as a whole in 1817. Nor did Woodbridge Riley use the term intellectual history in his book on early American philosophy or in his brief synthesis, American Thought from Puritanism to Pragmatism and Beyond (1915). This was also true of Vernon L. Parrington in his great achievement, Main Currents in American Thought, twelve years later.

Like so much else in American scholarship, a forerunner in the

## History Over the Years

European field is clear. As an undergraduate at Harvard in 1918, I learned that James Harvey Robinson, a medievalist at Columbia, was teaching a course on "The Intellectual History of Europe" which, it turned out, he had been doing under one name or another for almost two decades. How much I wished to take it! I did at once read his book, The New History (1912), which had a great influence on me. It contended, among other things, that the history of ideas of dominating classes in any period influenced and very likely determined other phases of the culture and that with shifts in power relations, they became the cutting edge of change, including social reform. Somewhat later (at my suggestion), the Harvard Liberal Club asked Robinson to come up to Cambridge for an informal talk. He did and to our delight. My hope to learn more about intellectual history was realized in the academic year 1920-21 when Charles Homer Haskins, Dean of the Harvard Graduate School, introduced, with a quite different approach from that of Robinson, a course on medieval intellectual history. Besides telling us about Roman law and the reception of Arabic learning, he made illuminating use of literature.

At this time, most English departments considered our own national literature, which had struck my special interest in high school, as a minor and largely derivative branch of that of the mother country. Until my senior year (1919-20), Harvard offered only a survey course given by Chester Noyes Greenough, a scholar in eighteenth-century English literature, with Kenneth Murdoch as the assistant. As I recall, Melville and Twain were casually dismissed as rather inconsequential writers of boys' stories, and Emily Dickinson, whose

poems I had run across, was not mentioned. By 1926, the English department had accepted only three dissertations in American literature. As for myself, I tried to reconcile my conflicting interests in American history and literature by writing, as my honors paper, an essay on the influence of the frontier on Emerson and Whitman. Sounding a strong note for interrelating American literature and history, the piece found its way into print in 1922.

Meantime, one day after the class in medieval intellectual history, I asked Haskins whether he thought that historians of the United States might profitably use our literature in a social context and relate this to movements of thought and to the institutions of cultural life. I added that I, of course, knew that the span of American history was much shorter and much less culturally rich than that of Europe. To my great pleasure, he replied that if my question were a really serious one and that if, as I said or implied, I would like to undertake such a venture some day, I would need to know a lot about the whole course of European intellectual developments. He suggested that after passing the "general examinations" for the doctorate, I might apply for a Sheldon Traveling Fellowship and, thus, acquaint myself with the libraries, universities, art, and architecture of the Old World. Thanks to him and to my mentor, Frederick Jackson Turner, I was able to do this.

Here it is appropriate to note, once again, the breadth of Turner's interests. In an essay published in 1891, he had anticipated the "New History" of Robinson, Beard, and his own student, Carl Becker, by urging an interdisciplinary approach that included cultural factors, defined the relativity of historical understanding, and advocated its use for social reform and human improvement. He had approved my writing an undergraduate essay on the influence of the West on Emerson and Whitman. Further, he approved and in some part guided me in an over-ambitious dissertation called "The Development of American Self-Consciousness." This was a highly unorthodox query since American historical scholarship was still dominated by emphases on constitutional, political, and economic history. In working on this, I profited a good deal from a new graduate course on Emerson and his Circle which Bliss Perry had permitted me to take in my senior year. Perry also guided my reading course on major nineteenth-century writers.

When I requested the history department to approve American



literature as one of the required six areas for the Ph.D., I was told that this was a field hardly comparable in importance to the established historical ones. It would be acceptable, however, if it was broadened to include American thought. All this was, of course, before the appearance at Harvard of Howard Mumford Jones and F.O. Matthiessen and a decade before Perry Miller wrote his thesis on orthodoxy in colonial Massachusetts. At my oral examination, Bliss Perry pleasantly observed that examining a candidate on the history of American thought was a new experience. He suggested I begin by comparing the ideas of Emerson and Mary Baker Eddy and relating these to movements of thought and feeling. I had read Emerson but not Science and Health. Thanks to what I recalled from Woodbridge Riley's discussion in American Thought, I got off to an acceptable start.

That summer during his vacation in Vermont, Perry read my long manuscript on "The Development of American Self-Consciousness" which he commended. Turner, under whose nominal direction this was written, had thought well of it. He also wisely remarked that the bulky manuscript would profit from the comments and suggestions of his successor, Arthur M. Schlesinger, Sr. With more than justifiable confidence, I presented it to the new member of the department after returning from the year in Europe. Schlesinger decisively pointed out that it was really not much more than a series of loosely connected essays, interesting but failing exhaustively to treat any one theme. With his approval, I took four or five pages in which there was something about the relation of the all-but-forgotten early American peace movement to the concept of national self-consciousness. I developed these pages, after a great deal of research while teaching at Smith College, into an acceptable dissertation. I did not have the advantage of ever being in Schlesinger's seminar or taking his lecture course on American social and intellectual history. I owe, nevertheless, a deep debt to him.

At Smith, in perhaps my third year (1928), I told my senior colleague, John Spencer Bassett, about my hope of working up a course on American intellectual history. He agreed to support my proposal at a department meeting. Though Sidney Packard, one of Haskins's students, supported the idea, some of my colleagues rightly wanted to know whether there were monographs and a text for such a course and whether the accepted methods of historical criticism and synthesis were applicable to such materials as might be found in Northampton's libraries. True, there was not much material. I mentioned Professor Bassett's edition of The Writings of William Byrd. I had also just discovered, in teaching colonial history, Edward Eggleston's Transit of Civilization from England to America in the Seventeenth Century (1901). This seemingly forgotten book encouraged my interest in the use of materials of

popular culture, science, and pseudo-science, and, as Robinson's New History had done, in the bearings of historical experience on social change and enlightenment. All this may not have put doubts completely to rest, but permission was given for a broader approach: social and intellectual history, the title of the course Schlesinger was giving at Harvard. Including social history was acceptable because it seemed to me that ideas and the institutions of cultural life should be considered in relation to social developments. The course became interdisciplinary by the participation of Oliver Larkin, a pioneer historian of American art, and Newton Arvin, on his way to becoming an authority on Marxist interpretations of literature. The year 1927 was a high watermark for us. Parrington's Main Currents in American Thought greatly reinforced our belief that ideas and values needed to be considered in relation to the social and economic backgrounds and interests of those who expressed them. In emphasizing the influence of European models and currents of thought on American writers, Parrington had confirmed my conviction, planted by Haskins and Charles H. McIlwain, with whom I had studied the history of political theories, that American thought and experience must be treated in relation to Europe.

I should also acknowledge my debt to my colleague in Smith's English department, Marjorie Hope Nicholson. She introduced me to the work of Arthur J. Lovejoy whose seminar she had taken part in while teaching at Goucher College. Though Lovejoy's approach to the history of ideas impressed me by its great erudition and meticulous scholarship, it also seemed arid in its one-dimensional disregard of changing social contexts. Nevertheless, Nicholson's enthusiasm for Lovejoy's scholarship, her example of exploring science and philosophy in relation to literature and thought, and her encouragement for developing the American side of things meant a great deal to me.

In some ways, Ralph H. Gabriel's approach at Yale to the history of American thought resembled that of Lovejoy. He emphasized dominant ideas, notably that of the free individual in terms of origins, structure of components, and implications as these were manifest in law, philosophy, economics, and literature. In the 1930s, his courses carried the titles "Aspects of the Civilization of the United States" and "American Thought and American Civilization" rather than "intellectual history." In 1934, he invited me to come down to New Haven to talk over our common interests, which I did with pleasure and profit. We agreed about a great deal. Yet, influenced as I had been by the "relativism" and "presentism" of Robinson, Becker, and Beard, I could not share Gabriel's commitment to the wide-ranging importance in history of an absolute moral law with underpinnings of religious faith and authority. To be

sure, at this time I believed, partly from temperament and partly from my studies of the history of the American peace movement, in the universal validity of pacifism. Later, as fascism mounted, I came to believe that only force could stop Hitler; its use to preserve democracy and civilization seemed relatively more important than pacifism.

Two experiences in the 1930s contributed to the further development of my ideas about intellectual history. At the invitation of the American Historical Association's Commission on the Social Studies in the Schools, I wrote one of the volumes it sponsored: The Social Ideas of American Educators. Deeply influenced by John Dewey, I examined the writings of leading educators in the nineteenth and early twentieth centuries. I explained in a dialectical fashion the outcome of conflicting ideas and associated "interests." I also took note, as Beard had done in some of his work, of the unexamined and often unconscious assumptions of my subjects and traced some of the implications. With this assignment completed, I spent a great year at the Huntington Library. It was unusual to examine dime novels and out-of-the-way academic addresses and Fourth of July orations, but I spent a considerable amount of time on these. The resulting publications brought scholarly attention to popular ideas and notions, showed functional uses of some of Locke's ideas through the early decades of the nineteenth century, and, in The Roots of American Loyalty, traced the development of widely held ideas and feelings.

In 1937, when I left Smith for Teachers College and the Columbia Graduate Faculty of Political Science, few colleges and universities offered courses in American intellectual history. Some able students took my seminar and my course on the History of American Social Thought. Among those whose papers seemed very promising, several, including Arthur E. Ekirch, Jr., Ruth Miller Elson, and Richard Hofstadter, became well-known for their contributions to this field.

The number of articles and book reviews in the two leading journals indicates that interest in the field developed slowly. The index of the American Historical Review for 1915-25 did not include "intellectual history." That for 1926-36 listed five titles under Intellectual history. Only one, T.H. MacBride's "In Cabin and Sod Houses," was concerned with the United States. True, for each period the entries under religion and education (chiefly institutional histories), literature, political theory, science, and the arts carried less than fifty notations. Excluding everything but America, the Mississippi Valley Historical Review included almost twice as many book reviews under all of these entries.

In 1931, the American Historical



Association's Committee on the Planning of Research made two reports. That of the eastern group, chaired by Arthur M. Schlesinger, Sr., recommended more attention on the part of historians to the content and methods of allied fields. It listed an impressive number of themes in American intellectual and social history in need of investigation. As a member of this planning conference, I was pleased by the inclusion of the international movement of ideas and cultural issues, changing moral codes, patriotism, science, the arts, and the lecture platform, together with the impact of all these on social, political, and economic life. The western conference gave much less emphasis to themes that might be considered as intellectual history. It did, though, include the professions, religion, technology, and the cultural contributions of immigrant groups.

When a decade later Wisconsin's history department searched for a replacement for John Hicks, it turned first to Elmer Ellis, who decided to stay at Missouri. Since the one member of the department whom I knew at all was Curtis Nettels, he probably brought my name up. Apparently, there were some misgivings related to my controversial book, The Social Ideas of American Educators and, more likely, to my books on the history of the peace movement since this, of course, was less than a year after Pearl Harbor. Judging, however, from some of the questions asked when I got to Madison for an interview, it also seems that my concern with intellectual history raised some doubts in the minds of those committed to political history. At a dinner meeting, it seems to me, I was persistently and somewhat sharply questioned about the materials and methods I was using in the book that was to become The Growth of American Thought. My gifted colleague, William B. Hesseltine, half--but, I think, only half--teasingly spoke of social and ineffectual history and often repeated his claim that "writing intellectual

history is like trying to nail jelly to the wall." When the Mississippi Valley Historical Association met in Lincoln in 1957, he read a long, carefully constructed paper belittling the field.

We have some evidence that others shared such a view. Yet, it is not to be taken as the prevailing attitude of the profession. Otherwise, how could we explain why a majority of over a hundred historians polled in 1953 voted for Parrington's Main Currents as "the most favored" of books published between 1920 and 1935 and The Growth of American Thought for the years 1936 to 1950?

Within the field of the history profession and the university world, several factors help explain the steady acceptance of our intellectual past as a field worthy of careful study. A growing interest in the intellectual history of Europe was one. Scholarly interest in our own literature took on importance in English departments in the 1920s and '30s. Leadership, too, counted heavily. Arthur M. Schlesinger, Sr., persuasively insisted on the need and importance of more attention to the nation's social and intellectual past. He proved that this aspect of our history could meet the highest standards of scholarship. His many distinguished students, most of whose dissertations were published in one form or another, spread his influence. Intellectual history also began to attract able scholars from other fields--Charles A. Barker from early American history is a notable example.

Beyond academe, cultural movements here and abroad and world events affecting America's role also stimulated the study of our literature, values, and intellectual achievements. Even before the First World War, intellectuals were alienated in reacting against a business civilization. This not only affirmed new European movements of thought but also resulted in the discovery of refreshing stimulus in our own cultural past. The mood of postwar disillusionment

strengthened the trend. The role of the United States in the world during and after the Second World War was even more telling. Before this, British and European intellectuals had felt that American achievements of the mind were relatively unimportant and largely derivative. There were, of course, exceptions. One was Charles Cestrie of The Sorbonne, to whom I owe a considerable debt for his early support of my interests. After the war, however, concern with American history and literature developed in an unexpectedly lively way, especially in Great Britain, France, Germany, Scandinavia, and Japan. In this, which brought American Studies to the fore, the Salzburg Seminar and the Fulbright Program played an important part. Perhaps no one European scholar should be singled out, but I cannot resist mentioning Sigmund Skaard of the University of Oslo. In addition to what he did for the European Association of American Studies, he has given us a remarkable synthesis of what Old World scholars and others have thought and written about America over the past three and more centuries.

Others have said a great deal about the decline of interest in American intellectual history. This is not the place for me to add my own reflections. Once more, I hope that participants in the early development of other special fields in scholarship and teaching will share their impressions of the profession's response to innovation.

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## Harry S. Truman and the historians

Robert Ferrell

ANYONE WHO EVER met Harry S. Truman never forgot it, and so perhaps I may be permitted to recount a meeting in June 1957, at the Harry S. Truman Library in Independence, Missouri. A small group of historians was spending a few days together at the University of Kansas in Lawrence, and one afternoon our leader, the late George L. Anderson, told us he had a "special treat" for the next day--to drive over to Independence to meet the President. Some of us were excited, others (sorry to say) not. Around noon we went over, in two or three station wagons. Assembling at 2:00 in the reception room behind the library, we found the President not yet there, but in a few minutes beheld his Chrysler coming around the corner, and

in he came, wearing a double-breasted suit, just like the photographs.

Memories of that occasion come back easily--Roland Stromberg was there, and Richard N. Current. Mr. Truman went around our group and shook hands. He came up to me, put out his hand, and said "Truman." I put mine out and said "Ferrell." Afterward he stepped back, looked at us with mock seriousness, and inquired, "Are there any isolationists here?" No one said a word.

The President took us into his office, which was filled with books--on tables, file cabinets, across the long window sill behind his desk, along the floor. Presentation copies, some of

them had tufts of paper, signs of reading. Rather than send the books to the library stacks. Mr. Truman was lingering with them. While we absorbed this scholarly scene, the President walked over to the built-in bookcase by the door, pulled out a book, turned the spine toward us, and said, "There, gentlemen, is the most important thing I accomplished during my presidency." We all looked at the spine and beheld the initial volume of The Papers of Thomas Jefferson--the grand series sponsored jointly by the Library of Congress and Princeton University.

It was a nice gesture to a group of historians. And though I did not realize it, he was making a political



remark. Truman once wrote that he never could say anything but what it was political. He was showing us the first volume of the papers of the founder of the greatest political party in the history of the United States.

The years have passed, and the President has been gone since 1972. The low point in Truman's historical reputation, the 1950s, is long into history; his public reputation has been rising rapidly. The antique honesty of the thirty-third President, the achievements in foreign policy (Truman Doctrine, Marshall Plan, N.A.T.O., the Berlin airlift, Korean War), the attempted continuation of the New Deal, and then the simple comparison with such successors as Richard M. Nixon (whom he hated more than any other man in public life, and described as "squirrel head")--all this has secured Truman's reputation. In polls of recent years he stands eighth or ninth among all the Presidents.

But Truman's is essentially a public reputation. For the most part, historians do not like him.

Let me attempt to guess why the scholars are against him, why if they say something pleasant about him they follow with something unpleasant, accomplishing for history what the President once accused the economists of doing (he said he would like to meet a one-handed economist).

Two-handed analysis of Truman is partly connected with the writing of journal articles, where it is wise procedure to balance success with failure. This proves the article scholarly, and a journal editor takes it immediately. Historical journals are littered with half-critical articles about Truman.

Equally important in persuading historians that Truman's presidency was a modest success has been their refusal to look closely at his administration's foreign policy, their preference to be scholarly. Consider the question of the atomic bomb. As is well-known, the President always said that the nuclear bombing of Japan saved half a million lives, 250,000 American and 250,000 Japanese. Asked why he ordered the dropping of the bomb, he gave his stock answer. He improved on it when he said he went to bed afterward and slept soundly.

The issue, of course, was far more complicated. There is evidence that the President--forced to a decision he hardly had time to contemplate--regretted the inhuman result. But it was a regret that Truman could not admit publicly; to do so would have raised another storm. College lecturers speaking to students tend to equivocate on this issue and relate, on the one hand, the inability of Truman to do anything else, on the other the President's scribbled note to George Elsey at Potsdam that gave the Twentieth Air Force permission to kill 100,000 children, women, and men.

Curiously the old bromide of a few historians of a decade and more ago about the expansiveness of the Truman Doctrine may be second to the bomb in making Truman unattractive to many historians. The idea seems to be that Truman's was no subtle intellect--he was a poker player compared to Franklin D. Roosevelt, who was a chess player--and when the time came to announce that the United States Government would resist communism, the President made a general statement rather than limiting his remarks to Western Europe. Hence extension of the doctrine to the world; hence the debacle in Vietnam. Actually the Truman administration announced a general doctrine because Undersecretary of State Dean Acheson thought that F.D.R. would have done such a thing--and then, so Acheson told the department's speechwriter, Joe Jones, confined his attention to Greece and Turkey. The global nature of the Truman Doctrine nonetheless has become a staple of survey courses.

In domestic policies Truman was a staunch New Dealer. When in the autumn of 1945 he announced proposals for continuation of the New Deal, and offered them again in 1949, he failed to receive credit for them because, his critics said, he was following in Roosevelt's footsteps--nothing original here. And yet when the Johnson administration enacted the Fair Deal and much more, few scholars remarked on the origin of the legislation.

Truman's occasional lack of "side," such as the explanation he was wont to make about the locale of his piano playing, has not gone well with historians--I sometimes think because they despise jokes and funny stories. The barnyard humor of Truman's

military aide, Major General Harry H. Vaughan, which the President enjoyed, has seemed gauche. That the President had grown to manhood in rural and small-town Missouri accounted for some of his lack of side. That the pressures on the President were such that he needed a jokester also explained Vaughan's presence. The General had known Truman in 1917-18, a considerable recommendation. That Vaughan was a Sunday School teacher, a moral man like the President, has not been noticed.

The historians, alas, have kept to their beliefs. But may I point out their need to revisit the Harry S. Truman Library in Independence, and examine the materials that recently have become available in the library? It is a curious fact that most of the books and articles about Truman have been written from the central files of his presidency, released shortly after the library opened in 1957. Those files are voluminous--2,700 feet--and parts of them are interesting. But in recent years two new groups of Truman materials have become available.

The largest group of manuscripts opened in the last decade is the President's private papers, which include the President's Secretary's Files, 339 Hollinger boxes, the collection that Miss Rose Conway sequestered from the central files and into which she put confidential items, and the postpresidential files, several hundred more boxes containing equally fascinating letters, memos, diary entries, and other items. The P.S.F. and P.P.F. have opened since Mr. Truman's death, beginning in 1975.

A little more than a year ago, on Monday, March 7, 1983, a date etched in my memory because I happened to be the only researcher in the library when it happened, archivists opened a miscellany of items found at the Truman house, including the "Dear Bess" letters--1,268 letters from Harry to Bess Truman. These letters begin on December 31, 1910, when their author was on the farm near Grandview twenty miles from Independence, and run through the rest of the farm years (1906-17), army (1917-19), and 1920s when Truman was commissioner of Jackson County, into the mid-1930s when he went to the Senate, thence to 1945 and after when he was President. They are handwritten, save one

letter dictated at the Potsdam Conference. The Dear Bess letters thin out after 1947, and the last is dated 1959. One has the impression that the story about Mrs. Truman burning letters that appears in Margaret Truman's book of 1956, *Souvenir*, explains what happened to a few of them. ("But think of history!" protested the President, when he found his wife making a fire of them on the living room hearth. "I have," was the response.)

Most of the Dear Bess letters survived probably because Bess Truman lived in the same house from 1904 until her death in 1982; the house contained seventeen rooms in which it was easy to lose things, and Bess Truman was an untidy housekeeper and forgot the many places in which she unceremoniously stored these letters. They constitute the most remarkable account by any President of the progress of his life from early years to the Whitehouse and beyond. Thomas Jefferson wrote thousands of discursive letters, but Jefferson was not always clear about what he had in mind. John Quincy Adams kept a diary from youth to old age, but much of it is not fascinating. Polk's diary is only for his presidency. Theodore Roosevelt's letters are wonderful, but all say the same thing. Woodrow Wilson's letters are something else--perhaps second to those of Truman. The letters of Eisenhower, which scholars are only beginning to read, are very good. But no President ever wrote so zestfully, humorously, frankly as did Truman.

The new material--private papers, Dear Bess letters--does not make a new Truman, but new aspects are evident, proportions unguessed at. They show an extremely hardworking, moral, and intelligent man.

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# LISTENING TO HISTORY:

## farming families and family farms

Sarah Elbert

ONCE UPON A TIME rural America was America. Today, although 900 million acres are still classified as farmland in this country, an expert observer claims that "recent years have favored an evolution away from farming as a 'way of life' to farming as a business venture" (Ann Foley Scheuring, ed., *A Guidebook to California Agriculture* [Berkeley: University of California Press, 1983]). It is, of course, the observer's separation of "way of life" from "business venture" and her use of "evolution" that cues the historian to

*Rural America's struggles are being depicted as part of the bittersweet phenomenon known as "modernization" wherein, all too frequently, social conflicts are hidden behind a new Social Darwinism.*

her perspective. Rural America's struggles are being depicted as part of the bittersweet phenomenon known as "modernization" wherein, all too frequently, social conflicts are hidden behind a new Social Darwinism--the "natural" environment seemingly selects that species of farmer most competitively adapted to survive in it.

Farming families used to be depicted in history texts as active heroes and heroines; not only did they feed the rest of us, but their produce dominated the U.S. export trade throughout the nineteenth century and still amounts to some \$33 billion (twenty percent of all U.S. exports). Farming families commanded respect from historians and politicians alike, because Euro-Americans were certain that family ownership and operation of commercial farms was the basis of American political democracy. The term "family" or "household," of course, glossed over the question of precisely which family members owned the land and received payment for major cash crops.

Farming as a "business" venture in the twentieth century, nevertheless, means that farm families are declining in numbers while the total number of acres tilled in the U.S. remains stable. From 1960 to 1970 alone, the farm population diminished from 15.6 million to 8 million. Agricultural production continues to rise, and farmers feed urban Americans heartily for a comparatively small share of our paychecks. By 1974, however, in the country as a whole, when ranked by size 6.6 percent of our largest farms accounted for 53.8 percent of all farm sales. In that same year, however, 88.7 percent of all farms were still classified as "owner operated" in the agricultural census. The definition of

family farm is relatively simple for census purposes: a family-managed farm that uses less than 1.5 [hu]man years of hired labor is a family-operated farm business [family farm]. The persistence

*The persistence of family farms is, at the moment, neck and neck with the growth of agribusiness. Family farmers may not be an endangered species yet, but they and consumers are finding themselves in a common vise.*

of family farms is, at the moment, neck and neck with the growth of agribusiness. Family farmers may not be an endangered species yet, but they and consumers are finding themselves in a common vise.

Historians enter the contested terrain on one side or the other; if Ann Foley Scheuring saw agribusiness as a species naturally evolved from farm families, Ingolf Vogeler bitterly denounced the process as a rapacious social-historical formation in *The Myth of the Family Farm: Agribusiness Dominance of U.S. Agriculture* (Boulder, Colorado: Westview Press, 1981). He questioned whether the farming family is still an entrepreneurial unit in the traditional sense and argued that instead it is merely occupying an "ecological niche" in which it is allowed to produce (through hard labor and enormous indebtedness) the petty commodities deemed unprofitable for larger corporate investments.

Debate over the historical existence of an "agricultural ladder" (with tenancy as a midway stage between hired laborer and farm owner) is still raging as historians try valiantly to explain how we got from there to here. Few historians count women on the ladder. Hired women, unlike hired men, rarely moved up to entrepreneurship; instead, they either married farmers or moved into the off-farm labor force. American Indian, Afro-American, Asian-American, and Hispanic-American women, as well as some groups of Euro-American women, lost their ancient, efficient agricultural role in sustaining human life as sections were laid out and the West was won. In the past decade, precise regional, national, and international studies of land ownership and agricultural development have been augmented by research on agricultural labor and the role of women in agriculture (see Bibliography).

Before the awesome dimensions of the new agricultural history were apparent, a small project seeking to document and research decision making by farming families in New York State began,

innocently enough, in 1967 at Cornell University's Agricultural Experiment Station. It was innocent in that its initial team of one historian, two rural sociologists, and two agricultural economists assumed that those farmers who practiced what the experts preached were most likely to succeed (that is, stay in business).

Decision-making literature proliferated in the 1950s and '60s, giving the Cornellians assurance that decisions could be understood as a five-step procedure beginning with definition of need and ending with implementation of decisions. By interviewing and recording a panel of farm families, researchers hoped to document and analyze real-life decisions-in-the-making, aided by business data gathered on questionnaires from the panel. Accordingly, twenty farm families were recruited, with help from local agricultural extension agents, in ten upstate New York counties in which soil resources ranged between marginal and excellent. (Eventually, five Iowa families were added to explore whether decisions would be made differently where land was worth three or four times the value of New York acreage.) Three other considerations were applied to the selection process: stage in the family life cycle; type of farming; and economic viability of the operation (so far as could be predicted by extension agents). Thirteen of the original families stayed with the project all the way through until 1982. All members of these families over seven years of age were interviewed every other year by a team of two (one man and one woman) or, for two years, by one interviewer (a man) when funding was short. The final collection (thirty-three families) included taped interviews and typed transcriptions of individual and group interviews, business records, and correspondence between the academic project and the families.

These interviews, by the end of the first few years, had overflowed the parameters of a decision-making study and had become oral histories of farming families. The real value of long-term, qualitative documentation has slowly emerged, gradually setting a new research agenda. I interviewed family members as a "junior" member of the project in 1968-69 and as a "senior" member in 1971-72 and 1981-82 and, with Gould Colman, wrote several "innocent" case studies. The end of innocence involved asking the question: "What do the recorded experiences of farm men, women, and children tell us about the persistence of family labor farms in a society dominated by large-scale corporate production?"



The respondents' own depiction of their lives simply did not fit the contemporary academic literature, which assumed that industrial modernization set a functionalist model for the development of American farms. Ignoring the ever-swelling numbers of women entering the urban labor force, analysts insisted that men were instrumental in shaping the productive forces and that women's roles were functionally expressive. In fact, studies agreed that successful male farmers' willingness to adapt new technology, expand operations, and assume a heavier debt load (to finance the first two adaptations) correlated with their wives' willingness to play supportive roles as homemakers and mothers. If farming was more a business than a way of life, then farming families were advised to emulate social leaders--the families of successful corporate executives.

The problem, for Cornell's interviewers, lay in the reluctance of farm women, in particular, to distinguish between farm and household work. When I dutifully inquired as to the number of hours spent in farm versus home tasks, one farm woman threw open the lid of her washing machine, revealing a commonplace mixture of barn suits, children's jeans, and furniture slipcovers all tumbling about in the soapy water. She replied, "You tell me how much of this is farm work and how much is housework." Did the laundering of farm apparel constitute a separate chore from the household wash? Were the constant interruptions of home interviews by phone calls from salespeople and veterinarians and the inquiries of farmer-husbands and hired men any indices of the home as part of an integrated workplace? It was approaching a "Mary, Mary, quite contrary, how does your garden grow?" situation.

Again, dutifully following the farm and home approach, we asked men for information on equipment purchases and women for information on household purchases and decisions. We got what we

***Women casually but consistently reported a wider range of practices in coordinating farm and household labor than either the academic literature of the dominant views of gender relations allowed as probable.***

asked for, but the related "visiting" style of interviews promoted growing familiarity between "project" and "panel" (contaminated data?). Social commentary *en passant* formed an important part of the documentation. Women casually but consistently reported a wider range of practices in coordinating farm and household labor than either the academic literature or the dominant views of gender relations allowed as probable. In many cases, household technology was chosen to facilitate women's "helping out" in farm work, and certainly men's choice of farm

equipment, at certain stages of the farm's development, reflected consideration of women's and children's ability to handle a given machine.

However handicapped by social science paradigms we might have been, certain patterns became apparent. First of all, farm operations take place sequentially in the course of the production cycle. Simply put, corn is planted (till or no-till), and farmers have to wait for it to grow and tassel. Cows produce milk in a ten-month cycle after calving, and they produce more milk just after they calve and less as their cycle progresses; thus, dairy farmers must adjust their allocation of human labor in response to their animals' fertility and milk-producing cycles as well as to the fixed interval between twice-daily milkings of the herd. Factory owners can use their workers in simultaneous and different stages of production; car engines, bodies, and so on, can all be produced at the same time in different sections of the factory, continuously employing a stable work force on the line. The farmer, however, depends upon a skilled, stable work force who may be inactive for periods within each production cycle. Getting and managing a farm work force is complicated by weather and by the risks associated with crop production and maintenance of a healthy, high-producing dairy herd. Farm workers, subject to these conditions, must be available at critical times, and they must know what to do without direct supervision. And yet they may be unnecessary to operations between the various production stages. Family labor, therefore, remains ideally suited to the sequential farm production cycle, because family members can and do sustain periods of intense labor followed by layoffs. They are never counted as unemployed.

Both farm women and farm children fit their off-farm duties--schooling and housework and off-farm employment--into the farm cycle. Farmer owner/operators count on the commitment and discipline of family labor. As one farm woman observed in an early interview, "The farm needs everyone." In fact, if a survey interviewer had called on that farm in that year only, the remark would certainly have been taken as evidence of the transhistorical nature of family farming. In following these families over fifteen years, however, the respondents revealed changing cycles of labor control and coordination as the farm enterprise developed and the families lived through their own cycles of life. An expressed commitment to "all for one and one for all" at first glance obscures the particular hierarchy of labor and ownership on family farms. Farmers cannot control market or credit terms; they can and do control and coordinate labor processes through their command of family labor power. Why men begin in farming from an advantageous position and how they usually maintain their advantage is one important theme that manifests itself in a long-term study.

We noticed changes over the years in

who did what chores on each farm, and certainly the question of which children succeeded their parents in ownership and management of the home farm was a vital undercurrent in allocating family labor. The outpouring of new labor history and women's history by the late 1970s helped us to categorize farmers' modes of control and coordination of the labor process. Women and children are farming, although they are also, as Carolyn Sachs has argued, the "invisible farmers" (*Invisible Farmers: Women in Agricultural Production* [Totowa, New Jersey: Rowman & Allanheld, 1983]).

***An expressed commitment to "all for one and one for all" at first glance obscures the particular hierarchy of labor and ownership on family farms.***

Their "helping out" can be understood with the aid of labor control patterns identified by Richard Edwards in his *Contested Terrain: The Transformation of the Workplace in the Twentieth Century* (New York: Basic Books, 1979).

Edwards identified three forms of control exercised by owners at various stages of a firm's development, and what he called "simple control" is precisely what many farmers, in the early years of labor-intensive farming, exercise in coordinating and controlling family "helping." The farmer ("boss") sets the pace himself, using "incentives and sanctions in an idiosyncratic and unsystematic mix" (Edwards), and if he is occasionally ill-tempered he will be "understood" (Elbert) and interpreted to the children by his wife-partner as being "tired and cranky because he works harder than any of us for everybody's good." The farm needs everyone, but it seems to need the male farmer most of all, because it is at this stage that he achieves what Corlann Bush has called "crucialness." Though his wife's work load is doubled by household and farm work, and since childrearing is not always seen as reproducing the labor force, the male farmer does become "crucial" in farming operations. Agricultural education, until very recently, trained men in technical and managerial skills and women in home economics; male networks, in our study, continued to upgrade men's knowledge of the latest techniques, market conditions, and labor pool.

If a farm prospers, it is generally by increasing its scale of operations, often moving from "simple" control to what Edwards called "bureaucratic, technical, or even corporate control." There may, for instance, be a division of labor among herdsman, machinery technician, crop manager, accountant, and so on. If this enlarged scale of operation occurs when a farm woman is at her midlife stage, she may be free of childrearing chores, and, if she has developed her skills and her marital relations have been relatively egalitarian, she may move into a genuine



owner-operator partnership. In our observations, this is most likely to happen if the farm deed has been in both spouses' names from the start and if the milk checks or crop payments were also made in her name as well as his. A less equitable development can also occur at this stage, when a farmer frequently asserts that the "farm" no longer "requires" the services of a wife-mother or various children. Perhaps the family member is put in competition with a newly hired "expert." The assumption that the "farm" no longer needs certain family members is an impersonal mechanism of control which is often justified by claiming that efficient coordination (as opposed to owner/operator control) has made people superfluous to farming.

The change from "the farm needs everyone" to the operator's choosing among wife, son, or daughter as "crucial" to the operation may lead injured family members to say sadly, as one farm wife did, "We are no longer a farm family." But the competition between family members for a place in farming is really created by an "externality"--agribusiness. Farmers used to use their own money to put in crops and purchase cattle and equipment, and--with the aid of local merchants and equipment makers who extended short-term credit--they carried their own crop until harvest. Farm families in this study talked a great deal about the changes that now require them to purchase an enormous number of "inputs" from agribusiness. Prosperous farmers can arrange a line of credit for this and draw their money as needed, but greater debts mean that farmers have fewer assets to cover their obligations in the event of liquidation. A good deal of farm cash flow goes to "service" their debt. They then have less capital to put into better equipment, land purchase or rental, and improvement of cattle or orchards. These are the things necessary to produce more in order to pay for the "inputs" necessary to produce more, and so on. . . . The full milk cans waiting by the side of the road to be taken to market are gone now; they are painted and filled with cattails in suburban living rooms. Milk processing plants demand that each farm provide thousands of pounds of milk, extracted in pipeline milkers and stored in bulk tanks where it can be pumped out into tank trucks. If a farm does not produce in such bulk, it cannot get its milk picked up and taken to market. Free-stall barns and shining automatic milking parlors, computer-dictated feeding programs, computerized accounting systems, and artificial insemination programs all help make family farming a capital-intensive operation. Labor power remains equally important on family farms, but hired workers, who expect no more than a wage relationship to the farm, replace family workers, who would expect to be part of a worker-managed, worker-owned operation.

It is only through sharing the experiences of farming families over long periods that we have found

ourselves understanding the meaning of "ecological niche" in the lives of ordinary people. When the goal which has kept the family together as a farming family--intergenerational transfer--is at hand, we understand what the decline in the number of farming families really means. Despite a complex banking system and farm credit system, individual farmers are still the most important source of farm mortgage loans. Farmers' children (usually sons) depend upon the willingness of their parents to help them "buy in" to the family operations and possibly "buy out" siblings' shares. Prime land is no longer available for extended family operations. Only three percent of America's farmland changes hands each year, most of it to expand existing operations.

Very few of the families in Cornell's study could, by the end of our interviews, help all of their children to remain in farming. Analysis of how family members decide who of their number will remain a farmer and who will "volunteer" to leave farming is a long-term, subtle, and sometimes painful decision-making process. Farming families depend upon a warm sense of mutuality to maintain work discipline and promote generational continuity. Such traits conflict with the emotional distance required by modernization theorists, who see the decline in farming families as "evolution."

In Our Town, Thornton Wilder had his narrator explain to the residents of Grover's Corners Cemetery that in going back to visit the past one should choose "the least important day in your life. It will be important enough." Farm families have shared such days of their lives with us and, even for historians, they are surely important enough.

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Sarah Elbert is an associate professor of history at the State University of New York at Binghamton. Her most recent publication is A Hunger for Home: Louisa May Alcott and Little Women. Dr. Elbert recently participated in the first conference on "American Farm Women in Historical Perspective" held at New Mexico State University on February 2-4, 1984.

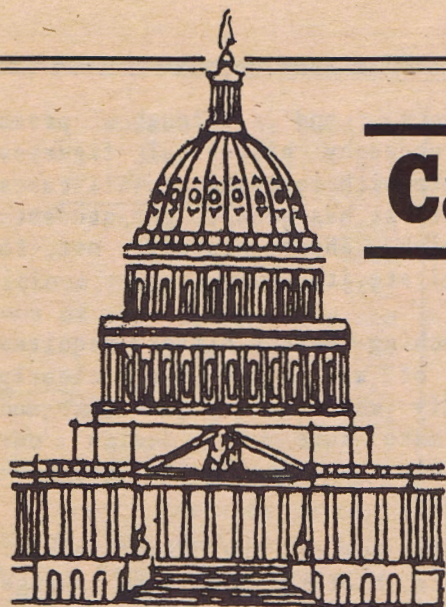
## OAH receives Exxon grant

THE EXXON EDUCATION FOUNDATION has awarded the Organization of American Historians a grant of \$23,200 to support the strengthening of history education in high schools, a cooperative project of secondary and university history teachers under the direction of Page Putnam Miller, Director of the National Coordinating Committee for the Promotion of History. The grant will also provide twenty-five percent of the NCC general expenses and make available some financial assistance to NCC state committees.

The OAH/NCC project will build on the work of the twenty-seven NCC state committees, task oriented groups which exist for the purpose of dealing with some of the problems facing the historical profession. Formed in 1976, NCC state committees are composed of college and high school teachers as well as staff members of historical agencies, museums, and archives, the committees have been an effective forum for historians to join efforts in promoting the study and appreciation of history and have been instrumental in overcoming fragmentation within the historical profession.

The project will respond to the need to enrich secondary history teaching by providing resource materials and staff assistance. It will organize a systematic guide on successful pilot programs and general guidelines for appraising and approaching deficiencies in secondary education. The project will also provide staff coordination and the expansion of NCC state committees' involvement in improving the quality of teaching of history in high schools.





# Capitol Commentary

Page Putnam Miller

## NEH FY '85 Budget

The administration has recommended \$125 million for NEH in its 1985 budget request. The 1983 appropriation for NEH was \$130 million, and the 1984 budget figure is \$140 million. Each year, the Reagan Administration has requested substantial cuts, and each year the Congress has chosen to appropriate more than the requested amount. Sidney Yates (D-IL), Chair of the House Subcommittee on Interior and Related Agencies, called the Administration's request "way behind the times--woefully inadequate."

## Archives Independence Legislation

THE SENATE GOVERNMENTAL Affairs Committee on March 29 filed a very favorable report on S.905, a bill restoring independence to the National Archives by separating it from the General Services Administration. The report reflected the strong endorsement that the committee gave the bill, voting fifteen to two for it last November. The congressional Budget Office, which reviews bills for budgetary impact before they are placed on the calendar for a vote, has concluded that S.905 requires no additional funding. With forty-five cosponsors and a "no additional cost" report from the Budget Office, S.905 should have an excellent chance of passing. It is now on the Senate calendar and should come to the floor for a vote in May.

H.R.3987, the House version of the Archives independence bill, is also approaching floor action. On April 10, the Government Operations Committee held a mark-up of H.R.3987 at which time final wording of the bill was adopted. Although some compromises were made, the bill is still basically intact and is one that the historical and archival professions can support. By a voice vote, the House committee strongly recommended the archives independence bill. The only opposition expressed during the mark-up came from Thomas Kindness (R-OH). Frank Horton (R-NY) and William Clinger (R-PA) played major roles in seeking an acceptable compromise. The rapid movement this spring of H.R.3987 with a hearing on March 7, a markup by the subcommittee on April 3, and a mark-up by the full

committee on April 10, is due to Jack Brooks's (D-TX) interest and commitment to this legislation. The House Government Operations Committee plans to file the report on H.R.3987 soon, and it will be placed on the calendar for a House vote during May. When Congress recessed for the Easter District Work Period, there were sixty-nine cosponsors of H.R.3987, many of whom had signed on at the urging of members of the Organization of American Historians.

## Anti-Censorship Act

Last spring, President Reagan issued National Security Decision Directive 84 which would impose life-long censorship on government officials with access to Sensitive Compartmented Information, as well as expanding the use of polygraph tests for federal employees. Over one hundred thousand federal employees, including virtually every senior policy-making official, would be required to agree to a lifetime obligation to seek prepublication review by the government of anything they wrote that might contain classified information. Widespread opposition to the order led the President on February 14 to state that he would suspend the two most controversial parts of the directive; however, an amended directive has not been made public. Thus, on February 29 the House Subcommittee on Civil Service, chaired by Patricia Schroeder (D-CO), held hearings on a bill introduced by Jack Brooks (D-TX), H.R. 4681, the Federal Polygraph Limitation and Anti-Censorship Act. The NCC Director testified on behalf of the historical community in favor of this bill. On March 20, the White House sent a letter firmly pledging to abandon "for the duration of this session of Congress the plans to expand the use of polygraph tests and lifetime censorship." Since the pledge is only temporary, Brooks plans to pursue passage of this legislation.

## Freedom of Information Act

On February 27, the Senate passed S.774, a bill which proposes procedural and substantive changes to the FOIA. The major portion of the earlier version of this bill that would have adversely affected historians was a new user's fee. Historians were successful in securing, in the final version of the bill, a fee waiver statement that exempts scholarly researchers. S.774 has now been referred to the House for consideration. Glenn English (D-OK), who chairs the Subcommittee on Government Information, Justice, and Agriculture, will hold hearings on the bill in May. In planning for the hearing, English stated that he will be guided by several principles. "First," he said, "those seeking to change the

FOIA bear the burden of proof. Unsubstantiated or undocumented allegations of problems resulting from the operation of the FOIA will not be sufficient to justify a change in the law." He went on to stress a second point: "We must proceed very carefully and thoughtfully in considering the amendments. The FOIA is a very delicate statute. Its text and its legislative history have been reviewed, examined, and dissected in as much detail as any law ever passed." He concluded that even a seemingly minor change has the potential for an unexpectedly large impact. In proposing diligent and deliberative hearings, English has promised those who oppose these changes to the FOIA an opportunity to be heard. He has invited everyone with an interest in the Freedom of Information Act to contact his subcommittee: House Subcommittee on Government Information, Justice, and Agriculture, Rayburn House Office Building, Room B-349, U.S. House of Representatives, Washington, D.C. 20515. During Senate hearings, historians testified against S.774, but once it became clear that a bill would probably be passed, we worked for a language change in the fee waiver section. Historians who have expressed many reservations about the Senate bill should take this opportunity to oppose the bill in the House.

Page Putnam Miller is the Director of the National Coordinating Committee for the Promotion of History.

## Hagley Papers Publication

THE HISTORY OF AMERICAN TECHNOLOGY: EXHILARATION OR DISCONTENT?, the inaugural publication of the Hagley Papers, a series of occasional papers from the Hagley Museum and Library, is available free-of-charge. The publication contains essays by Brooke Hindle on "The Exhilaration of Early American Technology: A New Look"; Carroll W. Pursell, Jr., on "The Problematic Nature of Late American Technology"; Stuart W. Leslie on "Commentary: The Lost Exhilaration of American Technology"; and an introduction by David A. Hounshell.

The Hagley Graduate Program was established in 1954 by the Hagley Museum and the University of Delaware and educates students in business, economic, labor, and technological history, and museum practices. It has become one of the major centers for graduate study in the history of technology in the United States.

The History of American Technology continues the debate over the state of the history of technology and expands and sharpens the useful introspection that has characterized the field since its creation as an academic discipline.

Complimentary copies of The History of American Technology are available from the Publications Department, Hagley Museum and Library, P.O. Box 3630, Wilmington, Delaware 19807.



LET'S BEGIN BY acknowledging that much of what we have read in the numerous reports criticizing public education is right on target. To those of us who have been in classrooms during the last few years, there was nothing in the several recently released reports that should have surprised us! (For a comprehensive list of reports or studies on education, see "National Studies Involving Curriculum," Education Week, July 27, 1983, pp. 43-44).

Anyone who has observed, directly or indirectly, the teaching of history at all grade levels, including college teaching, has little quarrel with the conclusion by the Commission on Excellence in Education that our schools are being inundated by a "rising tide of mediocrity."

History classes are no exception. Too many history classrooms are characterized by an accentuation of the trivial and an absence of worthwhile content and critical thinking. Even in those classes where one can detect an effort to teach what is thought of as good history, the students are likely to be bored, with history endured not embraced.

Obviously, not all history teaching is bad. Unfortunately, much of the good teaching that takes place in our nation's schools goes unnoticed. In colleges and universities, good teaching is expected but seldom rewarded. In our public schools, good teaching, especially by history teachers, earns the respect of students and even peers but rarely of the community. In addition, the public, quick to point out the shortcomings in our schools--as evidenced by the media's coverage of this latest historical cycle blaming education for the nation's woes--gives little recognition to those programs, such as National History Day, that demonstrate excellence in education.

Concern about education, even if it is negative, however, is better than the indifference that has characterized the public's attitude in the seventies. Although it has not been easy for the nation's educators to suffer the slings and arrows of outrageous critics, we should be willing to suffer some if we can use the present and undoubtedly transient concern for education to our advantage. Unlike the 1957 call for education reform that took place in the wake of Sputnik, we can expect only a minimal infusion of new funds by any level of government. What we can do, however, is to make teaching easier by having education become a

priority in the community, the school, and, most of all, the home. In practical terms, this means that student preparation for each day's class can be required, and its completion the expected norm. Making education a priority may not mean larger salaries, but it can make the teacher's job less frustrating and certainly more rewarding. By making education a priority, we no longer place schoolwork in a category of something to be done when there is nothing else to do. Students would no longer choose between completing assignments or going to work or engaging in some nonessential activity. Homework is completed simply because it has been assigned.

The Commission on Excellence recommended extending the school day. This can be done without increasing the work day for teachers or the cost of education--we extend it for students merely by requiring homework and seeing that it is done through daily accountability. Some school districts have already responded in this manner.

The failure to establish daily accountability is one of the major weaknesses of history teaching. Even well-intentioned students put off doing their history assignments until their math and science homework has been completed. One of the challenges faced by history teachers is to find ways of maintaining accountability without inundating themselves with paper work. Some form of daily accountability is necessary if history teachers are to compete successfully for students' time. Not just education but history and the social sciences have to become a priority.

Making education and history a priority is only a start. History teachers must do more. Turning the tide of mediocrity also requires that we teach better history and that we teach history better. Since most of what I've written during the last few years has focused on teaching history better, much of what I have to say will concern the broader and more philosophical task of teaching better history. What I have advocated and demonstrated in numerous publications, papers, and workshops on teaching history better has been methods of personalizing history by getting students to climb into the skins or, more accurately, into the minds of those who lived in the past. This has been done through role playing and simulation activities, diary and interview assignments where students write from the perspective of assumed identities of people who lived during a period or faced crucial

decisions, and through press conferences by historical figures, complete with costume. In all cases the purpose has been to get students to think about history not to regurgitate it.

Teaching better history requires first of all that we clearly identify what history does best and then make sure we design our curriculum so that it can be achieved.

Unlike any of the other social subjects, history considers change through time. It's what history does best; yet the way much history is being taught takes away from the very essence of history--change over time. Instead of teaching history so that it focuses on change over time, we have often replaced it with minicourses or thematic units that teach subjects or events out of their historical context.

The traditional American history course has become so fragmented that what passes for history is not history at all but a "smorgasbord of current events," not unlike the description of the general curriculum made by the Commission on Excellence, a "cafeteria-style curriculum in which the appetizers and desserts can easily be mistaken for the main course" (National Commission on Excellence, A Nation at Risk [U.S. Government, 1983], p. 18). In other words, a pervasive presentism has descended upon the nation's history classes, and as a result students emerge handicapped by a sort of contemporary myopia, lacking the ability to place the present into proper historical perspective. Such a concern is not new. Forty years ago, a joint National Council for the Social Studies, the American Historical Association, and the Mississippi Valley Historical Association (now the OAH) studied the status of American history in our schools and argued the need for students to acquire a historical perspective, without which, the study stated, "...there is no stabilizing influence to keep the student... from being blown about by the winds of despair. Young people, when they are not thinking that every one of their ideas is new and every one of their successes unique, are apt to be thinking that every misfortune is unprecedented, every loss irretrievable, every suffering unparalleled" (Edgar Wesley, ed., American History in Schools and Colleges [New York: MacMillan, 1944], p. 20). This observation is just as valid today.

Hazel Hertzberg, who has written extensively on the development of the social studies curriculum, describes three aspects of change



through time that are especially significant for teaching better history (Hazel W. Hertzberg, History in the Schools: The Report from the Boston Conference, pp. 39-41; see also "The Teaching of History," in The Past Before Us: Contemporary Historical

Writing in the United States, Michael Kammen, ed. [Ithaca: Cornell University Press, 1980], pp. 491-93). First, good history teaching attempts to determine how the past looked to people living in it. The use of two-part biographical sketches to determine how people viewed issues in the past--for example, would I become a rebel in 1776?--is an example of getting students to look at the past through the eyes of those who lived during a certain period. Second, good history focuses on cause and effect. To do this, a history course must be organized chronologically. Finally,

studying change through time addresses the difficult problem of making sense out of the total past--that is, synthesis. Without background that carries the student from the beginning, the understanding of the broad sweep of history becomes impossible; certainly, the minicourse or the area studies approach makes synthesis impossible. That is why teaching United States and World History chronologically is essential.

Hazel Hertzberg also discusses three other characteristics of history that are closely related to change through time and that have traditionally played significant roles in teaching history: historical inter-

nesses of the present curriculum. It is a luxury we can no longer afford. There is simply too much American history to teach. Historical research in the last few years has greatly increased the dimensions of history. Furthermore, the explosion of nationalism in the twentieth century makes it exceedingly difficult to focus solely on western and American civilization. Our cultural roots have grown enormously over the last century, and our immigration patterns attest to and reflect the diversity and social turmoil of a shrinking world. The existing social studies sequence in history, in place for three-quarters of a

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***A radical departure in the scope and sequence now practiced in the secondary school is needed so that the teaching of history can be made more cohesive.***

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century, resulted from a 1916 modification of an 1899 AHA study. This curriculum has not kept pace with history.

A radical departure from the scope and sequence now practiced in the secondary schools is needed so that the teaching of history can be made more cohesive. Rather than teach American history in the eighth grade and then again in the eleventh, we must combine our energies and resources to teach a more integrated and sequential series of world and American history courses. There should be, in grades seven to twelve, at least a three-year sequence of world and American history taught consecutively. In those school districts that already teach three years of history in grades seven through twelve, the proposed curriculum does not add any more history courses, but it will require a rearrangement and restructuring of existing courses.

The scope and sequence described here would begin in the seventh and eighth grades with two years of behavioral science. The seventh grade course begins with a study of the student's own origins and community. This placement makes sense since students at this grade level can more easily grasp geographical, social, and anthropological concepts than more abstract political and economic ones required in most history courses. A recent survey of social studies educators con-

firms this idea (Wayne Herman, Jr., "Scope and Sequence in Social Studies Education: What Should be Taught Where," Social Education, 4 [February 1983], pp. 94-100).

The ninth grade would consist of a world history course that ends about 1500-1600. It would be more than a western civilization course. It would be taught in a way that is similar to the approach used by the Greek historian Herodotus in his history of the Persian War. It would be a western civilization-oriented course that begins in the middle east and spreads throughout the Mediterranean and into Europe. Asia and Africa would be brought into the course as Europeans developed continuous contact with those areas. While acknowledging this approach presents an ethnocentric rather than global perspective of history, it would be much easier for students to follow than attempting to show, for example, what the world was like in 500 B.C. Using a horizontal rather than a vertical approach often adds confusion as well as breaking the continuity of western civilization--that is, change over time.

American history would then become a two-year sequence placed within a world history context. The first year of American history would begin with the age of exploration. America's ancient civilizations, including the numerous theories about the early contacts between the peoples of the two hemispheres, would be taught in the course after Europeans established continuous contact with American Indian civilizations. Placing American history into a world context makes it possible to portray a more realistic view of the world. The first year's course would stop sometime around 1900. The second year would focus on the twentieth century and reflect growing interdependence in the world. It would become increasingly a world or "global" history course rather than simply an American history course.

The twelfth grade curriculum would consist of a semester of American government and a semester of economics. Placing these courses here makes sense for two reasons: it takes a certain degree of intellectual maturity to understand many economic and political concepts; and, most seniors are,

or soon will be, eligible to vote and/or enter the job market. There is, therefore, relevance to the subject matter. The American government course should emphasize process as well as the structure of government. Economics should not focus on theoretical models but stress such topics as consumerism, labor, and the workings of the marketplace, including the role played in the economy by various levels of government.

This curriculum argues, as does the recent report by the Council on Basic Education, Making History Come Alive, that history should be the core of the social studies curriculum (James Howard and Thomas Mendenhall, Making History Come Alive [Washington, D.C.: Council for Basic Education, 1982], pp. 7-24). Maintaining history as the "center piece" of the social studies, however, will not be easy. There are some social studies educators who, like the late Edgar Wesley, would eliminate history as we know it from the curriculum. In an article entitled "Let's Abolish History Courses!," Wesley argued that history courses should be abandoned because history meets no "needs that pupils can appreciate." History, according to Wesley, should be changed from a course to a resource. "No teacher at any grade level, however, should teach a course in history as content. To do so is confusing, unnecessary, frustrating, futile, pointless, and as illogical as to teach a course in the World Almanac, the dictionary or the encyclopedia. The content of history is to be utilized and exploited--not studied, learned or memorized" (Phi Delta Kappan, September 1967, p.9). Wesley's view is reflected in a recent curriculum proposal put forth by the Social Science Education Consortium's project SPAN (Irving Morrisett, Douglas Superka, Sharryl Hawke, "Recommendations for Improving Social Studies in the 1980s," Social Education, December 1980, pp. 571-72).

The above curriculum would undoubtedly be resisted by textbook publishers who have invested heavily in the eighth grade American history market and by eighth grade history teachers who want to continue teaching American history. A recent report by the NCSS Task Force on scope and sequence recommends, in three out of

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***In addition to identifying what history does best, we must also redesign the curriculum to make it possible to teach better history.***

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pretation, where students learn the difference between the past and history; using and evaluating primary sources; and history's close relationship with both the humanities and social sciences.

In addition to identifying what history does best, we must also redesign the curriculum to make it possible to teach better history. Repeating American history in the eighth and eleventh grades is one of the greatest weak-



the four options it presents, that the eighth grade American history course be replaced by a two-year world history sequence. American history would be taught for one year in the eleventh grade and be preceded in the ninth and tenth grades by variations of western civilization, world history, or world cultures (NCSS Task Force on Scope and Sequence, unpublished report, November 1, 1983). These options emphasize a global perspective and sacrifice American history to world history. The NCSS Task Force's "Scope and Sequence" at least goes in the right direction by recognizing that world history and even western civilization cannot be taught in a single year as is the practice, if taught at all, in most schools. In fact, a creative teacher could even include American history before 1763 as part of the world history sequence, enabling the eleventh grade course to begin with the American Revolution.

Those schools that do not want to adopt one of the NCSS Task Force's options or the integrated American/World history that I have proposed should, at the very least, change eighth grade and eleventh grade American history to a two-year sequence. Such a sequence would not only avoid much of the duplication resulting from teaching American history twice but would make it possible to include units that more deliberately address the role of technology, migration, religion, and culture in the development of American society. It ought to be clear that change in the traditional social studies curriculum and in the role history plays in that curriculum is needed.

Clair W. Keller, chair of the OAH History in the Schools and Colleges Committee, teaches history and education at Iowa State University. His many publications on the teaching of history include *Involving Students in the New Social Studies*, and *"Using Biographical Sketches in Decision-Making Activities."*

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# Historians and Computers



## Beyond SPSS

Stephen R. Henson

*The task of recovering and telling the stories of otherwise nameless people is being made possible not only by changes in our historical foci, but also by our growing willingness to use new tools and methods in our work.*

IF HISTORIANS CAN claim familiarity with computers, it is largely through contact with the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS). Quantitative methods courses invariably subject graduate students to the tedium of hand coding a census sample, keying these data into a computer file, and finally constructing an SPSS program to calculate some summary statistics.

By the time everyone has their SPSS programs up and running, the course is usually over. Too often, so is the use of computers.

It does not have to be this way. But for things to change, some historians will need to become closet computer scientists. Since computer-aided history is not profitable, those who know most about computers are not likely to turn their skills in our direction. Historians themselves must do the dirty work.

This dirty work means first, learning "structured" computer languages such as Pascal, PL1, or Modula-2. These languages are modular (programs are composed of integrated procedures and functions), and support "record types" (aggregate variable) of your own making. Even if you know nothing about Pascal, you should be able to make sense of the following Pascal record definition.

```
TYPE HOUSEHOLDER=RECORD
  LAST_NAME:STRING[15];
  FIRST_NAME:STRING[15];
  SEX:CHAR;
  AGE:0..99;
  BIRTHPLACE:STRING[3];
  OCCUPATION:STRING[12];
  PROPERTY:INTEGER;
  RES_TYPE:STRING[3];
```

If I had to suggest one language to learn first, it would be Pascal. Pascal is an excellent teaching language (it was, in fact, designed specifically as a teaching language), and over the next several years it will likely be the language your students will have learned in their introduction to computer prob-

lem-solving course. Pascal is the language selected for the college entrance advanced placement test for computer science. Thus, it should begin to replace BASIC in high school computer science courses.

Second, learn as much about microcomputers (also known as personal computers) as you can. There are excellent micro implementations of Pascal, microcomputer operating systems are more accessible (less burdened with non-mnemonic commands) than those on most minis and mainframes, and, most importantly, micros are where the action is. Colleges and universities will devote increasing percentages of their computer budgets (and, hence, talents and energies) to purchasing, networking, and supporting micros. Finally, information about micros is plentiful. Microcomputer books and magazines are keeping many a bookstore afloat these days, and most areas have active users groups devoted to the various brands of micros.

Acquiring these skills takes time and effort. But at this stage of computer development, there does not appear to be an easy substitute. One reason why those who would make use of computers to do history must spend this time and effort is that with computers the smallest, seemingly inconsequential detail, left unaccounted for, can mean hours of frustration. Such frustrations as computers are capable of providing are a match for the most steadfast among us. Knowledge is the best prevention.

This knowledge is also prerequisite to using computers creatively in doing history. Take the standard scenario for analyzing census data. First, we hand copy the manuscript census data onto notecards. Next we devise a code book, and with it in hand, transcribe these cards onto Fortran coding sheets, substituting our numerical codes for birthplace, sex,

type of household, and so on. Then we key in these rows of numbers into the computer. Finally, we prepare a lengthy SPSS program and pray it runs. This method not only is tiresome and repetitious, it is highly error prone. By the time the data are logged into the campus mainframe, they have been transcribed three different times.

Let me suggest an alternate procedure. Bring a microcomputer in at the first stage of this process. Type your data directly into a micro sitting next to the microfilm reader. Running on this micro should be a program designed to aid you by prompt-ing for input, checking what you enter for appropriateness (for example, are the data within parameters you have specified as valid), and then creating from these data a coded case file and the necessary SPSS run file. And if you want, you can print (notecard size, if you must) a hard copy of your census. These two files (the data and SPSS control file) can then be uploaded to the campus mini or mainframe, and the SPSS run executed.

This alternate method of collecting and storing data also aids efforts to reconstruct social reality--tracing individuals across a varied assortment of documents such as censuses, city directories, payrolls, and various organizational rosters. Without the use of a computer, this process is virtually impossible. It is difficult enough to link two censuses simply by creating one alphabetized master list of individuals (and in any case, such a simple criteria would be hopelessly inaccurate). But since we have preserved the names of individuals in our original Pascal data file, we can devise increasingly complex programs to link these individuals across other records. We are all familiar with the Soundex codes used by the census bureaus to overcome inconsistencies in spelling. We can have our data entry



program add another variable to our HOUSEHOLDER record, the four character Soundex code for the last name. The rules for creating the Soundex codes are simple, and can be coded easily into Pascal (or another language). Record linkage is a complex matter, and I don't want to oversimplify the effort involved. But viable linking programs can be implemented on micros.

The task of recovering and telling the stories of otherwise nameless people is being made possible not only by changes in our historical foci, but also by our growing willingness to use new tools and methods in our work. The creative use of computers can aid us as we cast ever finer nets into our past.

Needless to say, every historian is not going to learn Pascal and begin writing his or her own data analysis

rouines. There are alternatives. But we still need some understanding of computers and a willingness to invent new uses for existing software.

Most of you have probably heard of several of the current generation of microcomputer database management packages such as VisiCalc, SuperCalc, dBaseII, and so on. Programs such as these were designed primarily for business applications. But there is nothing on the labels that says they can't be used by historians. Pay special attention to the next generation of this software, emerging now in packages such as Lotus' 1-2-3. These programs integrate an electronic spreadsheet, a data base system, graphics software, and often wordprocessing capabilities into one package. In these environments, data can be moved easily between the spreadsheet and wordprocessing

programs, with an intermediate stop to construct some needed graphs. 1-2-3 makes creating informative graphs remarkably simple. For quantitative-minded historians, 1-2-3 contains such built-in statistics as variance and standard deviation, and all other statistics can be easily incorporated into a 1-2-3 worksheet by simply supplying the equations. (On statistics, see "Statistics and Consumers: Reading Quantitative History" by Donald Parkerson in the February 1984 issue of the OAH Newsletter).

SPSS is probably not in any imminent financial danger from historians writing their own software or making creative use of such packages as 1-2-3, but the designers of this and similar statistical packages should be concerned. In fact, SPSS is working on producing microcomputer versions of its programs. What must be done

by historians who understand computers is to demand that the programs we use make our work more productive, not subject us to exactly the kinds of tedious labors from which computers can relieve us.

Hardware and software have both progressed beyond the mainframe era of long wait between program entry and program execution, and operating systems with job control languages so arcane that everytime we want to do something different we must call a computer center to find out the proper command syntax. To make history one of the beneficiaries of this progress, we will have to spend the time and effort mastering this new discipline.

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## On writing American Beauty

*A central element in the history of fashion and physical appearances is a constant dialectic between the forces of oppression and of liberation for women.*

Lois Banner

LIKE MANY BOOKS, American Beauty was an outgrowth of previous work (in this case a history of American women in the twentieth century). Over the years of research and writing, it took a form considerably different from its initial conceptualization. I began it in 1974. At that point, my concerns were twofold. First, I felt that the then-emerging field of women's history was paying insufficient attention to the role of cultural images and ideologies in shaping women's identities. Second, I was intrigued by the personalities and cultural influence of women in film in the 1920s and 1930s, and I decided to investigate the role of actresses more generally in American history and in the lives of American women.

The task was not an easy one. Reading histories of the theater and biographies and autobiographies of actresses provided much information about actresses' careers, but little information about their broader influence. Then I experienced the kind of fortuitous research breakthrough that may, in fact, be common to the historian's enterprise, as, like detectives seeking clues, we sift through what seem relevant leads. I

began to research an article on the 1905 trial of millionaire Harry Thaw for the murder of architect Stanford White (a case centrally involving women of the popular musical stage). Sifting through press reports on the trial, I discovered in the popular journalism of the day a world I never knew existed--a world focused not only on the behavior of people of the theater and on the content and performers of all of the day's popular entertainment, but also on dress, hairstyles, cosmetics, and, above all, on physical appearance. I never wrote the book on actresses or the article on the Thaw trial. Instead, I began an investigation of the meaning of physical beauty in women's lives.

It was an investigation which spread over many years of research and writing. I cannot deny that the enterprise itself was fascinating, but it was also endlessly frustrating. The information that I wanted was everywhere and nowhere--absent from sources that seemed obviously related to the subject, abundant in places I never expected to find it. The turn-of-the-century "yellow journals" (like the New York

World and the Denver Post) were gold mines, but the women's fashion magazines were curiously disappointing. Foreign travelers' accounts of the United States were filled with information about people's looks, but the Police Gazette (the Playboy of the late nineteenth century) provided little more than standard photos of women of the popular musical stage--with the exception, among others, of detailed accounts of Lily Langtry's 1882 tour of the United States. I stumbled across advertising cards of hairdressing establishments in the Bela Landauer collection of nineteenth-century advertising cards in the New York Historical Society, and this collection enabled me to reconstruct the history of beauty parlors in the nineteenth century. I found by accident while browsing through the stacks of the Library of Congress the only extant account of Phineas T. Barnum's 1854 beauty contest (the first modern beauty contest) in a Frenchman's untranslated account of his experiences in the United States.

In the course of writing the book, I had to gain expertise in complex areas which were new to me: the history

of the theater, the history and sociology of fashion, popular art in the nineteenth century, the history of sports and of medical attitudes towards women. I found myself coming to conclusions which I did not expect. I discovered a whole sensual underside to Victorianism. I realized that sociologists of fashion had never subjected their theories to the kinds of rigorous investigation of data which is second nature to historians.

*Within the dominant model of beauty lay a full range of social values and expectations; in fact, women's bodies were a symbol of the whole society.*

I came to see in my evidence that standards of beauty and fashion were set not only by the elites but also by the masses, and I attempted to use standards in physical appearance as a way of investigating the interactive nature of the value system within the American class structure. I realized that for women a whole mythology existed analogous to the Horatio Alger mythology for



men. But rather than through skill and hard work, women could expect upward mobility through being beautiful and marrying a successful man: for them, a powerful "Cinderella myth" was the norm. Finally, I realized that within the dominant model of beauty lay a full range of social values and expectations; that, in fact, women's bodies were a symbol of the whole society.

After several years the task of research became overwhelming, and I took time off to write a biography of Elizabeth Cady Stanton, the pre-eminent nineteenth-century feminist activist and theorist. Yet this detour in the end became central to the work on beauty. Physical appearance and its role in the lives of women was of particular interest to Cady

Stanton, and she enabled me not only to validate the hypotheses I was finding in other, more conservative sources, but also to realize that a central element in the history of fashion and physical appearance is a constant dialectic between the forces of oppression and of liberation for women. She also helped to clarify the commercial dimension--the extent to which market forces and the cleverness of commercial entrepreneurs of beauty shaped the way women looked and the way they felt about themselves.

My research, too, led me into other areas. Age categories, particularly definitions of beauty in older women, became a significant part of the book. And, in the end, I found it impossible to conclude the book without

writing a chapter on men. Not only was evidence about men ubiquitous in my sources, but I also came to believe, as others have argued, that when historians of women focus only on one gender, they overlook an essential comparative dimension which some of us must begin to address. Moreover, a new area of academic investigation is emerging in which the focus is on the meaning of men's lives and men's behavior. "Men's Studies" as an academic discipline already has its organization and its newsletter (for example, *Men's Studies Newsletter*, of the Program for the Study of Women and Men in Society, University of Southern California), and articles and books identified with the field have begun to appear abundantly in the last year or so. It is mostly men who are associated with men's

studies, as mostly women are associated with women's studies. But I think it important that links between the two fields be established, and that a dialogue be opened which could prove fruitful to both.

Lois W. Banner, professor, department of history and the program for the study of women and men in society at the University of Southern California, is the author of *Women in Modern America: A Brief History* (1984); and *Elizabeth Cady Stanton: A Radical for Woman's Rights* (1979). *American Beauty* (1983), which is based on memoirs, etiquette books, contemporary novels, and popular histories of the musical and theatrical stage, chronicles how women looked, how they felt about how they looked, and how they wanted to look from the Republican Age to the present.

## History Reconsidered

OVER THE PAST several years, I have become aware of the huge disparity between the importance of foreign relations in America's past and present and the widespread neglect of this subject in the history offerings of many colleges and universities. In addition to its impact on undergraduate and graduate education, this neglect almost certainly affects the teaching (or lack thereof) of international relations at the elementary and secondary levels as well. At a time in history when a faulty understanding of an adversary's point of view or an inability to distinguish vital from peripheral interests could lead to nuclear annihilation, it seems remarkable that many departments have deleted or at best de-emphasized the historical study of international relations.

The importance of foreign relations was underscored by the disturbing events of last fall: the loss of life and increase of international tensions caused by the Soviet downing of the Korean airliner; the deaths of American and French soldiers in Beirut, followed by U.S. bombing of Syrian positions; the U.S.-led invasion and occupation of Grenada; the American emplacement of Pershing II and cruise missiles in Western Europe, followed by angry Soviet responses; and (less noted in the media) a merchandise trade deficit ex-

ceeding \$9 billion for one month.

These events were disturbing not only because they suggest that East-West relations have indeed deteriorated

ments of the electorate, and the size of the nuclear and conventional arsenals of both superpowers, one may well recall Thomas Jefferson's famous comment about slavery: "Indeed I tremble for my

factor in Beirut). In the remainder of this essay I shall argue, first, that there is an imbalance between the richness and variety of offerings in social history and the paucity of offerings in foreign relations; second, that the history of America's foreign relations is a vital, thriving part of the discipline; and third, that the teaching of international relations must not be left to political science and economics departments or relegated to one small corner of history departments.

Although it should not be difficult to convince other American historians that social history provides the focus for a large percentage of the courses currently taught at most colleges and universities (including my own), and that diplomatic history is relatively neglected, I shall follow the practice of our profession and provide both literary and statistical documentation. A few years ago, while teaching at a small college in the Northeast, I learned that a prestigious university nearby, with twenty full-time historians, offered no courses in U.S. foreign relations; all such courses there are taught by the political science department. A year ago I learned that the department at a leading university in the Midwest, with thirty-one professors, was debating whether it needed a position in diplomatic history. In the meantime it

### The importance of the history of American foreign relations

Ralph Levering

dangerously and that relatively open trade may be difficult to sustain. They were equally disturbing to me, a student of U.S. public opinion and foreign policy, because there is ample evidence to suggest that most Americans lack sufficient knowledge and training in modern international history to develop even a rudimentary understanding of the context and significance of these events. And yet if recent experience holds, about half of the public aged eighteen and over (including many among the ninety-four percent in a recent poll who did not know which side the United States was supporting in both El Salvador and Nicaragua) will go to the voting booths in November and choose the nation's political leadership for the next several years. In view of the complexity of all the major foreign policy issues facing U.S. officials, the ignorance on these issues of large seg-

country when I reflect that God is just. . . ."

I am not suggesting that American historians single-handedly can overcome the ignorance on foreign policy issues that exists throughout our society, even among the college graduates who occupy so many of the nation's leadership positions. Students often avoid history courses, and adults avoid learning about public issues. But I am arguing that even an introductory college-level course in U.S. diplomatic history would provide students with the basic understanding of U.S. involvement in the Caribbean since the 1890s that is necessary for placing the invasion of Grenada in context, and with the history of Soviet-American relations since 1917 that forms the background to the nuclear arms race and to the two nations' rivalry in the Far East (a



had replaced an eminent scholar in that field who had retired recently with a new Ph.D., thus becoming much less attractive for graduate study in foreign relations. Last fall I discovered that a respected university in the Southwest, with nineteen professors, has not had a diplomatic historian in recent years and does not plan to appoint one. As of the 1981-82 edition of the American Historical Association's Guide to Departments of History, these three departments combined had a total of thirty professors of U.S. history. Of the thirty, fifteen were in social history including social, cultural, urban, ethnic, women, and family) with only the beginning professor in diplomatic history. Moreover, such prestigious schools as Bryn Mawr, Carleton, Smith, and Wesleyan (to name a few) did not have a single professor listing U.S. diplomatic history as an interest.

In order to develop a more representative sample, I decided to tabulate figures for all the colleges and universities listed in the Guide for three states in different regions: Maryland, Missouri, and Oregon. The size of the departments of the twenty-four institutions listed for these states ranged from forty-eight for the University of Maryland to three for William Woods College, with a mean of 15.9 full-time professors. Of the total of 382 full-time historians, 170 (45%) were primarily in U.S. history. Of the 170, sixty-six (39%) taught courses in social history as defined above, and twenty (12%) taught courses in U.S. foreign relations. My approach clearly understates the actual teaching of social history because I did not include in that category any professors with strictly chronological listings (for example, colonial America) or any with regional specializations (for example, West).

The most striking finding was that nine of the twenty-four (38%) did not appear to offer any courses in diplomatic history, including three institutions in Maryland with faculties of twenty, nineteen, and eleven. In contrast, only two of the twenty-four (8%) did not appear to offer courses in social history, and these two had fewer than five full-time faculty. Unless one wishes to argue that other departments should be expected to offer the full range of courses relating to U.S. foreign relations, the current disparity would seem to be intellectually indefensible.

In contending that the teaching of U.S. foreign relations (and international relations generally) should be more central to the missions of history departments, I am not arguing against the value of social and other fields of domestic history. Social history has been a dynamic and exciting field over the past quarter century, and all of us are deeply indebted to such scholars as Herbert Gutman, Gerda Lerner, and Stephen Thernstrom. Having taught primarily at small colleges with responsibility for a wide variety of

courses, I have enjoyed using works in social history ranging from John Demos on the 1620s to Sara Evans on the 1960s.

However, what I do wish to challenge is the view, frequently encountered within the profession, that the work done in social history has been markedly superior to that done in U.S. foreign policy. Ironically, two well-known historians of international relations, Charles S. Maier and Thomas J. McCormick, have recently lent support to this idea, though their colleagues in diplomatic history may find their arguments less critical of the field than the arguments of nonspecialists (who may not be so easily forgiven). In "Marking Time: The Historiography of International Relations" (in Michael Kammen, ed., The Past Before Us; Contemporary Historical Writing in the United States [Ithaca: Cornell University Press, 1980]), Maier argued that U.S. diplomatic history "cannot, alas, be counted among the pioneering fields of the discipline during the 1970s." To his credit, Maier did not ride his thesis too hard; in fact, he discusses some of the "many quiet achievements" that, collectively, call his thesis into question. At a time of "arms races, of rivalries over scarce natural resources, of the reemergence of a new multipolar balance of power," Maier concluded that it would be "shortsighted for history faculties . . . to downgrade the field or discourage its perpetuation." In the tenth anniversary issue of Reviews in American History (December 1982), McCormick presented a spirited attack on post-revisionists, pluralists, and others with whom he disagreed, and offered his vision of a corporatist synthesis for the field. While his vision is intriguing, his claim that diplomatic historians have been "mired in circular debates or in narrow empiricism" seems both inaccurate and unfair.

In fact, over the past twenty years the extensive and wide-ranging writings of Ernest R. May on the political process and U.S. foreign policy and John Lewis Gaddis on Soviet-American relations compare favorably with the best work done in any other field of U.S. history. Gaddis's emphasis on strategic thinking in the making of U.S. policy (for example, Strategies of Containment [New York: Oxford University Press, 1982]) complements recent trends in military history. Similarly, the monographs on American and European policies in the 1920s by Joan Hoff-Wilson, Melvyn D. Leffler, Michael J. Hogan, Stephen A. Schuker, and Charles S. Maier exemplify the union of depth and breadth in historical inquiry. This royal flush of scholarship from the 1970s should be read and discussed in every department teaching modern American history; so should the more recent biographies of Henry Cabot Lodge by William C. Widenor and of John Foster Dulles by Ronald W. Pruessen, and the synthesis of scholarship on the American "peace reform" by Chuck DeBenedetti. The examples could be multiplied, perhaps, especially for the 1940s and for U.S. relations with the Far East.

The vitality and excitement within the field is epitomized in the critiques of Maier's article by Michael H. Hunt, Akira Iriye, Walter F. LaFeber, Robert D. Schulzinger, Leffler, and Hoff-Wilson ("Responses to Charles S. Maier, 'Marking Time: The Historiography of International Relations,'" Diplomatic History [Fall 1981], 353-82). Read alongside Maier, these essays provide the best available introduction to current trends in scholarship. "Historians of international relations seem to be well suited to transcend chauvinistic biases and narrow perspectives and to show how the destinies of societies and peoples have been intertwined over the centuries," Iriye concluded. "This is an undertaking worthy of the historian's finest craft."

Since the mid-1960s, historians of American foreign relations have become less provincial in their research and less chauvinistic in their underlying attitudes; more imaginative and skillful in using a wide range of sources, both official and nongovernmental; and more fully aware that analyzing cultural, economic, and other trends both within and between nations is as important in studying international relations as reading the diplomatic cables and the private papers of decision-makers. Having moved beyond such sterile dichotomies as "realist" versus "idealist" and "isolationist" versus "internationalist," and having recognized explicitly the connectedness between domestic and international history throughout the American past, diplomatic historians are now ready and able to contribute materially to the further development of the discipline as a whole.

And why should the teaching of international relations not be left to political science and economics departments? The reasons are more numerous than can be developed here, but they start with the fact that many social scientists lack both training in historical method and knowledge of specific historical developments. Following highly theoretical graduate training, many social scientists stress theories of international, political, and economic relationships, and plug in selected examples of events to "prove" the validity of their theories (an exception is Alexander L. George of Stanford University, whose writings reflect careful historical research). Moreover, in many social science courses, the relevant history begins within their own lifetimes: among some of the more historically-oriented in 1945, but for others in the Nixon years or even later. At a recent conference, I was pleased to hear a young political scientist acknowledge and deplore the lack of serious study of history in graduate programs in his discipline; however, given the prevailing emphasis on theory, I fear that his was a minority opinion.

As with my discussion of social history, my purpose here is not to



criticize these allied disciplines. Indeed, at a time of limited resources in higher education, some of the best courses in international relations may well be co-taught by historians and social scientists. (Such is already the case at the John F. Kennedy School of Government at Harvard and at some other places.) My point is that there is a major educational gap to be filled, and historians of international relations are most likely the ones capable of filling it for the foreseeable future.

Equally important reasons for the necessity of teaching diplomatic history stem from the needs of our profession and those of our students. Many departments have several Americanists whose primary research and teaching interests fall within the years between the Civil War and the Great Depression. One of these should logically be a specialist in U.S. foreign policy (broadly conceived), for who else can be expected to be knowledgeable about changes in international, cultural, economic, and military relationships during these years? Furthermore, the presence of such a person would necessarily benefit both the other Americanists and the students within the department.

Alternately, one thinks not of specialists in particular periods but of specialists in relations with particular regions of the world. America's last three major wars involved Vietnam, Korea, and Japan; yet how many departments offer courses in the history of U.S. relations with East Asia? When possible, departments no longer ask

social historians to offer upper-level courses in diverse fields like women's history and urban history, and they urge students to take courses in several areas of social history. Yet the same departments often assume that one professor can teach intelligently (and remain abreast of new research) in U.S. relations with Asia, Latin America, Africa, the Middle East, and the Soviet Union; or that one or two survey courses purporting to cover all these areas are sufficient for their students. If the one diplomatic historian is not well-informed about particular regions, and if the department cannot justify a second position in diplomatic history, it is appropriate for specialists in those regions to work up courses in U.S. relations with their areas. Yet only two of the twenty-four institutions I studied appear to follow this pattern.

Finally, while history departments should not use "relevance" as the major criterion for course offerings, it was appropriate in the 1960s and thereafter for departments to address such neglected areas as black history, women's history, and the nation's social structure. Historians needed to join the scholarly debate on the nature of American society sparked by the work of social scientists like Robert Dahl and C. Wright Mills, and by changes within the society itself.

Although this debate continues, a central issue in the nation's life at present is the nature of the international order in which Americans participate. The current system offers many benefits; but it also can result in

the sudden doubling of oil prices (in 1974 and again in 1979), the flight of industries to developing countries at a time when millions are unemployed at home, and the construction of increasingly sophisticated weapons of mass destruction. We historians owe it to our students--and to our own hopes for the future of American democracy--to seek to rediscover and explain the historical forces and values that have shaped our times. While it is an overstatement to suggest that there is no American but only international history, it is important to note that many of these forces and values have originated outside of America's borders, and that most history departments are not at present teaching the international components of American history very well.

In short, while the issues and types of history inspired by the 1960s are still important, it seems myopic to deny our students and colleagues in history and related disciplines the best possible understanding of the international forces that have shaped our world--and may destroy it by terrorist and nuclear attacks. If history departments can meet the challenge of integrating diplomatic history into their curricula and emphasizing its educational value, I have no doubt that students will respond to imaginatively-designed and well-taught courses in the history of American foreign relations.

Ralph Levering is an associate professor of history at Earlham College. His most recent publication is The Cold War: 1945-1972.

## Who and what are public historians?

The following is the first in a series which will explore what is now broadly termed "public history." The column will present the many faces of the public historian, discuss issues confronted by those who function as historians outside academia, and propose ways that academic and public historians can work together to further common goals.

This column, which will include articles, interviews, letters, and debates, will appear in the May and November issues of the Newsletter and is coordinated by the Public History Committee of the OAH. We hope that it will become an active forum in which the wide range of issues currently affecting the field of public history will be addressed.

Submissions to this column on any topic relating to public history are welcome. Contact Barbara Haber, Schlesinger Library, 10 Garden Street,

Cambridge, Massachusetts 02138 or Dwight Pitcaithley, 23 Duggan Road, Acton, Massachusetts 01720.

**Brit Allan Storey**

LAST OCTOBER THE Public History Committee of the OAH held a productive two-day meeting in Washington, D.C. at which members discussed numerous issues among ourselves and with other members of the history profession. Work proceeded smoothly until the establishment of an award in Public History for nonpublication contributions came up. Then there was a problem. We talked about "public history" but suddenly found our discussions sidetracked by the varying definitions our Committee members had for "public history."

It is impossible to establish an award in public history until you can agree what public history is and who qualifies as a public historian. Some of us believed this a simple issue since a public historian to us was easily, if not precisely, definable as any historian working outside academia. This approach defines the public historian by where she or he works outside of academia. Others on the

Committee tended to define public history by considering audience and its needs. A common denominator of this view of public historians is that their work generally neither gains nor contributes to fame, promotion, or tenure within the academic community.

One Committee member defined the public historian's goal as the "translation of historical experience for a public audience into contemporary knowledge." This member argued that historians can "inform public debate and discussion" with questions, perspectives, and knowledge "which may very well be unique."

As historians we have much to contribute. Our problem is that we've locked ourselves away for so long in an isolated, self-perpetuating guild that we've closed our eyes and our minds to the needs and demands of a larger audience. . . . we mistakenly believe we have nothing to say about shaping our contemporary or future society. In the process of defining our profession, we've lost our voice, our audience and sadly,

## Perspective on Public History



I fear, our humanity as scholars.

Interestingly, another public historian wrote that history is "a profession which has arbitrarily defined itself into a closed, academic box." Obviously, those of us who share these perspectives see audience as important to the practice of public history.

The Committee is bothered with problems that persistently have stood in the way of the slowly emerging prominence and definition of the field of public history. We clearly recognize that public history is not a new field--it is not a phenomenon springing phoenix-like from the smouldering remnants of academia's problems. Nor are public historians, as some historians believe, those poor unfortunates who want to be academicians but cannot find jobs. Many historians purposively turn their backs upon academia even when jobs are available. Public history has been the nature of historical endeavors in America and other nations until relatively recent times. Public history existed before academia and has paralleled academia all this time. It has never been necessary to define it before. Now we are faced with public history programs across the country, and public history is seen by some as the saviour of a profession overpopulated by the baby boom and academic aspirations. "Public history," at least for the purposes of the professional organizations and the bureaucracy therein, must now achieve a semblance of order instead of being anything it happens to want to be at the moment. This is the crux of the OAH Public History Committee's problem--we are caught in the emergent phases of defining the field: what it should be called, what it should include, and what it should be doing.

One of the key goals established by the Committee at our October meeting was to pose the problem, set up a dialogue within the profession, and, finally, to develop a definition for the use of the Committee (and, possibly, for the OAH). Your comments and suggestions are solicited. It is important that we hear from as broad a segment of the membership as is interested in the issue, and that you discuss whatever you like--semantics, a proper name for the field, the definitions of public history, and who qualifies as a public historian, and so on.

Numerous topics can arise. First, perhaps foremost, is the question of who qualifies as a historian? The corollary issue is who qualifies as a public historian? Dictionaries tend to define historians as students or writers of synthetic histories or chronicles. Some argue that teachers of history are historians. It has always seemed to me that a historian cannot simply be a sponge absorbing the results of others' labor; a historian must produce something which contributes to the body of historical knowledge. I am not arguing that a historian has to make great or important contributions, only

that she/he has to do something in the way of gathering and synthesizing historical data. But, then, must a historian produce a product? I suggest that the historian must, but it need not be the traditional book or article. And this is where public history fits. Museum exhibit research, museum catalogues, historical editing, history magazine editing, bibliographies, archives management, research for historic preservation projects, and so many others are the products of public historians' work. On the other hand, does a teacher, however good, qualify as a historian when all that she or he does is to pass on the results of others' work? Does a Civil War buff who knows more about the Civil War in the area of Corinth, Mississippi, than any other person alive qualify as a historian if there is no product through which that knowledge is communicated to others?

Note, please, that training has had no part of my discussion. There are, as we all know, historians with Ph.D.s who shouldn't be let out of a small closet and buffs who do work that we "professionals" should envy. There is also terrible history done simply because those who are doing the work don't understand the rudimentary principles of historical method: deductive reasoning, research, and critical analysis of sources. Do people who produce inaccurate and unwieldy products qualify as historians? Does a bad product qualify one to enter the ranks? Does simple education qualify one at some level?

A related question is how much of a historian a "public historian" must actually be. Is a public historian one who does historical research--wherever that research may be done outside academia; or is a public historian one who works where historical research is only an aspect of the job; or is a public historian one who works at a job of significance to the field of history (for example, a history collection in a library), but who actually does no historical research at all; or is a public historian one whose analytic, deductive, and critical skills developed in historical training are applied to other tasks; or is a public historian one who works outside academia but writes history in her/his spare time? Or are none of these near the mark? What about people I shall call historical administrators? They review or oversee programs in historic preservation, museums, historical societies, libraries, archives, and so on where their understanding and skills are important. But they do not actually do historical research. Instead they oversee, evaluate, or review programs where historical research and understanding are vital to the program: they assess the adequacy of the work of others. To me the relationship of this issue to the previous one of who is a historian is obvious. Who is a member of the club, and is there more than one club?

The inextricably related question is "What is public history?" The issues of

who and what cannot be separated; yet they are not exactly the same. Some of our Committee incline to a broad definition of what public history is: in effect all uses of history and historians outside academia. Others believe public history is defined by what the public audience finds history useful for.

Since historical perspective is one of the profession's strengths, I began to cast about for others' ideas. The National Council on Public History kindly provided me with a cross section of ideas. David F. Trask and Robert W. Pomeroy, III, in The Craft of Public History: An Annotated Select Bibliography, said that public history is "the practice of history and history-related disciplines in settings elsewhere than in educational institutions. . . ." Arizona State University's leaflet aimed at potential employers of their public history program graduates said that

Public historians focus their historical insight and expertise outside the university setting, addressing the needs and concerns of the broader--i.e. public--community like certified public accountants, economists, and so on. They apply the methodology and skills of the historian to investigate current issues in relation to the recent past, critically assessing the complex interaction of ideas, events, and groups.

This leaflet then described the strengths of public historians: writing ability, research ability, and the ability to analyze and break down problems. G. Wesley Johnson, Jr., in his "Editor's Preface" to the first issue of The Public Historian, discussed public history as history done for public benefit in such fields as government, business, research, media, historic preservation, historical interpretation, archives and records management, and the teaching of public history. To Robert Kelley, writing later in the same issue of The Public Historian, public history was the use of historians and the historical method outside academia.

Public historians are at work whenever, in their professional capacity, they are part of the public process. An issue needs to be resolved, a policy must be formed, the use of a resource or the direction of an activity must be more effectively planned--and an historian is called upon to bring in the dimension of time: this is Public History.

Brit Allan Storey is a Historic Preservation Specialist on the staff of the Advisory Council on Historic Preservation. He is actively involved in several phases of public history and the Western History Association.



# American History through Film

## The immigrant experience

This article is part of a continuing series of essays about opportunities for studying films in the history classroom. For further information or to make recommendations, write to Robert Brent Toplin, Editor, Department of History, University of North Carolina at Wilmington, Wilmington, North Carolina 28403.

### Randall M. Miller

FROM THE FIRST kinetoscopic flickerings through the cinemascopic technicolor of today, the immigrant theme has played in countless films, shaping images of the newcomers in the popular mind and reflecting one side of the reciprocal relationship between immigrant groups and American movies. On the other hand, by their numerical significance in the audiences, the immigrants imparted their own influences to film content, and, as immigrant entrepreneurs gained control of the film industry, their influence deepened. It is this evolving connection between immigrants and films that demands student attention, for it reminds us that to understand the uses, and abuses, of the movie medium it is necessary to appreciate the context in which films were made and seen.

Immigrant and ethnic images were never static in movies, however much they derived from popular stereotypes of the stage and literature. Increased costs of production and the need to appeal to a national, middle-class market, for example, had, by the 1910s, caused filmmakers to dispense with many familiar sight gags based on ethnic dress and designation. In their place, narrative development grew in importance. Such films as Cohen's Advertising Scheme (1904), in which a Jewish tailor tricks a tramp into wearing a coat advertising the tailor's business, gave way to such melodramas as The Story of a Rose, in which a poor Italian immigrant cares for his crippled daughter after losing his wife. Movie-makers, of course, wanted stories to suit the tastes of ethnic moviegoers while simultaneously attracting middle-class patrons. D.W. Griffith's The

Romance of a Jewess (1908) demonstrated the dramatic and commercial potential of treating the immigrant's ambivalence regarding Americanization as the narrative focus in films.

Many early filmmakers balanced sentimentality with social realism in portraying immigrant lives, making their movies potentially revealing indices of contemporary attitudes regarding the immigrant condition. Thomas Ince and C. Gardner Sullivan's The Italian (1911), for example, offered contrasting images of a festive and abundant peasant Italy with a bleak New York cityscape, thereby challenging the very idea of the American Dream. Such somber fare often failed at the box office, however, for American moviegoers have generally preferred escape and entertainment to social commentary. As a result, the explicit condemnation of immigrants' suffering receded from American screens in place of ambiguous treatments of assimilation or outright celebrations of immigrant uplift. Even Charles Chaplin, who never abandoned his sympathies for the lower classes, let sentimentality overrule social reality as early as 1917 in The Immigrant.

By the 1920s, therefore, conditions in the industry dictated a new immigrant profile in films. Many filmmakers lost interest in immigrant themes altogether in their quest for profits and respectability. American films of the 1920s catered to both prevailing social thought and sentimentality by presenting the melting pot and the marriage altar as metaphors for America--at a time when immigration restriction quotas became public policy. Typical of the new look regarding immigrant themes was the improbable film, The Cohens and the Kellys (1926), a pastiche of clichés about tolerance and Horatio Alger good fortune. The movie relates how a Jewish storeowner and an Irish cop put aside a lifetime of feuding after their children marry. The two families subsequently romped together in Paris (1928), Atlantic City (1929), Africa (1930), and Scotland (1930) before ending

up in Hollywood (1932) and finally in Trouble (1933). The same vision of harmony had already reached its apotheosis in Abie's Irish Rose (1929), a popular film drawn from the long-running play of the same title. Students might profitably ponder the success of such films as mirrors of American wishful thinking about the easing of social tensions.

The marriage mania of "immigrant" films did not eliminate ethnic identities in movies completely, for American filmmakers continued much harmless diversity in language and diet in films through the 1940s. Indeed, during the Depression ethnic portrayals reappeared in a host of social-consciousness movies, particularly those produced by Warner Brothers, and during World War II, partly as a reflection of public policy, films about the armed forces often staffed American platoons on Bataan or wherever with an Irishman, an Italian, a Jew, a Pole, and, of course, a WASP commander. But not until the resurgence of ethnic awareness in the 1960s and 1970s--the so-called new pluralism--did immigrants as subject matter again assume significance in American films. In fact, in the 1960s and 1970s immigrant and ethnic themes and personalities became ubiquitous, but now with the immigrant/ethnic cast as cultural hero for resisting total immersion in the American way.

One good way of tracking the evolution of immigrant/ethnic images over time would be to view several versions of the same story. The several renditions of The Jazz Singer invite such comparison. The 1927 version captured neatly the tension between ambition and tradition among Jews in America. In this edition, in which Al Jolson played himself, the ethnicity of the characters and the issues was unabashed. In the end, the cantor's son (Jolson) responds to familial tugs and chants the Kol Nidre more movingly than his father ever did. Subsequent remakes of the film diluted the Jewishness of the characters and, accordingly, the rationale for the plot's tensions. In the 1952 version, the cantor father concedes

tradition to filial unity and cheers on his son's show business career. America triumphs in the 1950s. By 1980, with Neil Diamond playing the lead in the latest version, the immigrant Yiddishkeit has vanished, leaving Diamond as the thoroughly modern Jew. The metamorphosis of the movie cantor's son from blackface and Yiddishkeit to sequins and Hollywoodese speaks volumes in ethnic transformations.

Among the floodtide of films depicting immigrant/ethnic life or themes, the small, evocative Hester Street (1975) illustrates well the current conditions affecting film content. Based on a story written in the 1890s by Abraham Cahan and adapted and directed by Joan Micklin Silver, Hester Street has a deceptive authenticity with its black and white photography of Lower East Side New York City Jewish life and use of Yiddish dialect. Silver's devotion to historical detail enhances the film's theme about conflict between Old World order and the disorienting effects of New World opportunities, but her sympathies for ethnic maintenance so suffuse setting and dialogue as to create a super-nostalgic film and one-dimensional, predictable characters.

Students need to approach such products of the new pluralism as critically as the pieties of melting potboilers, to look past the seeming documentary aspects of films like Hester Street and ask what images and narratives about immigrants reveal about the contemporary attitudes regarding immigrants and ethnicity. Similarly, students viewing such films as Ragtime (1981) or The Godfather, Part II (1974) might consider why the filmmakers paid meticulous attention to period authenticity--how setting, speech, and costume worked to create sympathy for immigrant characters and circumstances and why such attitudes proliferate in recent films made by immigrant or "ethnic" filmmakers. Hollywood films are not very reliable handbooks of social habits and behavior and should not be used that way.

A different sort of "documentary" sensibility flows



from the work of the Swedish director, Jan Troell. His epic, The Emigrants (1972), and its sequel, The New Land (1973), are the most ambitious, imaginative re-creations of the immigrant drama to date. The slow pace of The Emigrants recalls preindustrial rhythms of time, and Troell's focus on the cycles of birth and death, departure and arrival, restores a perspective on immigrant life missing from more dramatic commercial fare. Moreover, his attention to the causes and processes of immigration, as well as his treatment of the uneven adjustments to a hostile American environment, give his films a historical currency few other written or visual accounts can match. To compare a Swede's view of the distant magnet of America with those of American filmmakers and writers is to explore the transit of American images over time and space.

Documentaries using oral accounts are very attractive classroom tools. Contemporary, personal narratives--oral histories--make history vivid and real for students. More importantly, they force the student to determine how the personal testimony of "ordinary people" fits with other historical documents. The absence of a single voice in many recent documentaries demonstrates that no one authority speaks for any historical experience or group. It also encourages students to consider the social, cultural, and political assumptions behind the filmmaker's selection of interviews and their arrangement--in a word, to approach the documentary film as a document and a history.

One of the most successful efforts to record the immigrant experience in documentary film, and to affirm ethnic diversity as a strength in American society, is the Storm of Strangers series produced in the mid-1970s by MacMillan Films. The four films, each approximately one-half hour in length, relate the stories of a Chinese-American, an Italian-American, an Irish-American and a Jewish-American family. The most interesting, and amusing, production in the series is Martin Scorsese's Italian American, in which Scorsese interviews his parents to provide a microcosm of the immigrant's movement from ethnic clarity to proud but ambivalent Italian-American. Oddly, although Scorsese draws

on his own family, his documentary is less personal in some ways than his fictional work, especially Mean Streets, in which he revealed his own ambivalence about his youth in New York's Little Italy. Indeed, all the Storm of Strangers segments should be compared with Hollywood treatments of the four groups to suggest the divergence between a group's self-image in the 1970s and the perpetuation of such stereotypes as the stage Irishman or the Italian gangster.

Educational films are less valuable, but somewhat more tractable, than documentaries for classroom use, largely because they attempt only to convey information. A more basic problem of educational films generally, reflective of much writing on immigration as well, is the preoccupation with New York images in portraying immigrant life. The unwitting student viewing such materials might conclude that immigrants only lived in New York tenements photographed by Jacob Riis and Lewis Hine. Balancing film selections to gain ethnic and geographical variety is, therefore, vital to any fair treatment of the immigrants' histories. Given available educational films, this will not be easy to do.

Several good educational films do exist, however, and provide visually rich overviews of the process of immigration and adaption to America. Representative examples include: Alistair Cooke's segment on The Huddled Masses from his America series (available from many university collections), perhaps the best general view; The Island Called Ellis (McGraw Films), useful for its depiction of Eastern Europeans; Immigration (McGraw Films), good for its emphasis on immigrant contributions to America; and The Immigrant Experience, The Long, Long Journey (Learning Corporation of America), instructive in its vision of the American Dream as perceived by a young Pole, despite its New York bias. The Anti-Defamation League of B'nai B'rith has a solid list of films relating to immigration, including films that raise questions about such current topics as bilingual education, reparations to Japanese-Americans, and alienation among post-World War II immigrants. For the most part, however, post-World War II immigration and non-European groups have been neglected in

both commercial and educational films so that coverage of immigrant subjects and groups through films remains very uneven.

Any number of questions about immigrant life--family, work, religion--might arise from the study of films about immigrants or the immigrant theme, but again such questions should be framed in terms of the context of each film's creation and use and the inevitable distortions of standardization and simplification that occur in the production of any film. The point for teachers and students, of course, is that whether viewing entertainment, documentary, or educational films, everyone must bring critical, historical tools to bear on the visual materials. Historical analysis does not end upon entering the screening room.

Randall Miller is a professor of history at St. Joseph's University and the editor of

## Ethnic Images in American Film and Television.

### FILMOGRAPHY

All of the early films mentioned in the beginning of this essay are available through the Museum of Modern Art, the Library of Congress, or university and specialized collections which reference or media librarians can readily locate. For the other films: The Immigrant (Twyman); Cohens and Kellys (Universal); Jazz Singer (MGM/UA); Hester Street (Midwest Films); The Emigrants and The New Land (Clem Williams). Numerous other films and various ways of discussing immigrants and films are examined in Randall M. Miller, ed., The Kaleidoscopic Lens: How Hollywood Views Ethnic Groups (Jerome Ozer, 1980). Teachers and students might also consult the forthcoming bibliography, Allen Woll and Randall Miller, comps., "Ethnic and Racial Images in American Film and Television" (Garland).

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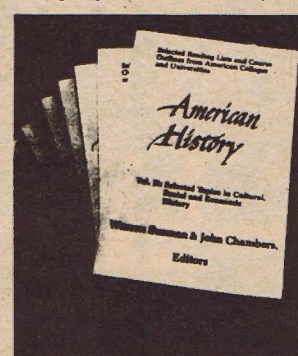
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# The restoration of the Statue of Liberty and Ellis Island--public and private cooperation

F. Ross Holland, Jr.

ON JULY 4, 1986, the tall ships will return to New York Harbor. They will be here to honor the Statue of Liberty and celebrate its restoration. Unquestionably, it will be a grand occasion and one that will evoke the same spirit in the American people that came with the previous visit of the ships to New York Harbor in 1976. This celebration will be the culmination of the first phase of a unique public/private cooperative effort that will lead to the restoration of the Statue of Liberty National Monument and all of its parts, including the old immigration station at Ellis Island, a collection of thirty-three major structures.

The first phase will embrace the restoration of the Statue of Liberty and the refurbishment of the remainder of Liberty Island. In addition, it will include the restoration and preservation of the Great Hall, the most historically significant building on Ellis Island.

statement, and, consequently, little will be done to it in the way of exhibits or refurbishings. Ultimately, this building with its over 260,000 square feet will contain exhibits illustrating three principal themes. The first will deal with the history of immigration to the United States from its beginning until the present. The second theme will concern itself with the immigration experience at Ellis Island. And the third theme will be entitled "The American Identity" and considers the question of what is American society. Actually, the exhibits for this latter theme will only be an introduction; in the years after 1986, other nearby buildings will be rehabilitated and restored, and will contain exhibits and displays that will expand on this theme.

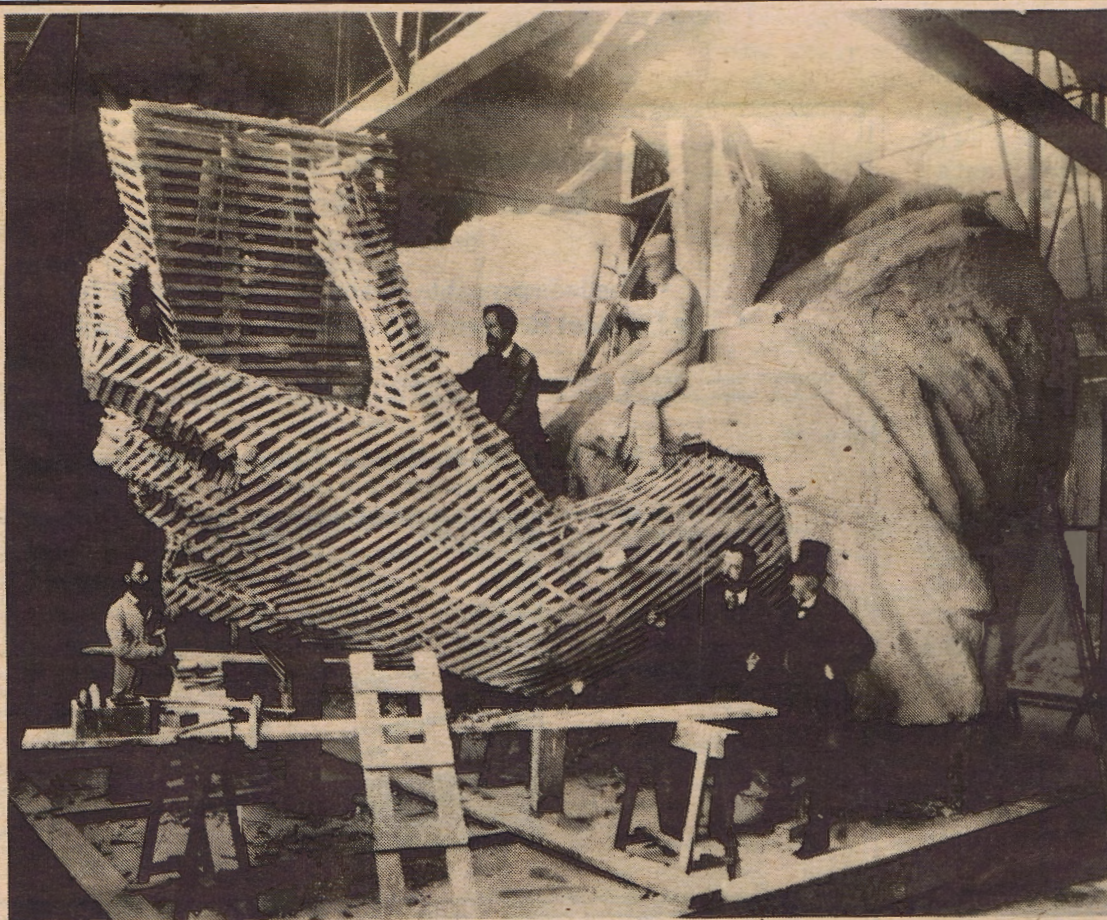
Currently, a master plan is being prepared for the remainder of the island which will define more precisely how these other buildings will be used and

pedestal and the Statue. The skin of the Statue is in very good condition, and the thickness of its copper plates, roughly that of a half-dollar, is about the same as when it was completed in 1886. The torch, however, will be removed and a new one constructed. The old one will be placed in a museum in the base of the Statue. The major task will be the replacement of the armature, 16,000 wrought-iron bars that extend from the frame of the Statue and support the plates that compose its skin. Because they are wrought-iron, galvanic action resulting from the touching of the two metals has caused the armature to rust. As these bars rusted, they exfoliated (expanded) and pulled many of the saddles through which they ride away from the skin leaving holes where the heads of the bolts had been.

The instigator of the Statue was Edouard de Laboulaye, a French professor of constitutional history and an admirer of the United States' Constitution. To some extent, he and his supporters were motivated by the view that Napoleon III was deviating from Republican principles. The support system of the Statue consists of a central pylon of four columns that supports a framework of steel which, in turn, supports the armature. Auguste Bartholdi was the sculptor who designed the Statue, and Alexandre Gustave Eiffel devised the ingenious internal support system for this monumental structure.

The Statue was to be a gift from the French to the American people. To pay for it, the French conducted a successful fund-raising effort among their citizenry. The Americans agreed to provide the site and the pedestal. The sculptor and the American committee settled on Bedloe's Island as the site, and they began their fundraising for the pedestal. Their efforts lagged, and Joseph Pulitzer, himself an immigrant, successfully used his newspaper to spur the drive for funds.

The Statue, officially called "Liberty Enlightening the World," arrived in New York Harbor in June 1885 aboard a French warship. Workers began to erect it on Hunt's pedestal, which in design was reminiscent of the Pharos of Alexandria--generally regarded as the first lighthouse. On October 28, 1886, President Grover Cleveland dedicated the Statue and afterward placed it under the responsibility of the Lighthouse Board. It became the first electrically lighted lighthouse and served in that capacity for over fifteen years. Transferred to the War Department in 1902, the Statue underwent several changes. In 1916, funds were raised publicly to provide for its exterior lighting, and the torch was given its present design: the flame, originally solid copper, was changed to glass panes held together by thin copper bands. The exterior



Construction of the Statue of Liberty in Bartholdi's warehouse workshop in Paris during 1882-83 was done with the guidance of wood and plaster mock-ups, which in turn were built from smaller scale models. The sculptor, second from right, and a visitor and several assistants are shown with a section of Liberty's left arm. Photo: Rare Books and Manuscripts Division, New York Public Library, Astor, Lenox & Tilden Foundations. From "Album des Travaux de Construction de la Statue Colossale de la Liberte Destinee au Port de New York," Paris, 1883.

This structure is the one through which all the immigrants at Ellis Island passed. In it is the Registry Room with a large, vaulted ceiling lined with grayish glazed tile and a floor decked with red tile. Today the room literally vibrates with the memory of the estimated 17 million immigrants who waited--with some trepidation--for permission to enter the United States. This room in its present condition makes a powerful historical and emotional

what developments occur. Proposals range from a conference center to a training institution focused on immigration history to "an ethnic Williamsburg." Ironically, this side of the historical site three years ago was deteriorating, had a bleak future, and had no potential uses.

Work has begun on the Statue of Liberty with the erection of scaffolding. It now surrounds the



lighting has been improved several times over the years as technology has advanced. The last time was during the Bicentennial when Crouse-Hinds Company donated a new system to illuminate the Statue.

Since 1933, the Statue has been under the administration of the National Park Service. Through the years, the Statue became known as the Statue of Liberty, and its meaning has changed. As it became the symbol of the United States, it became the symbol of hope to millions of immigrants.

The Statue will undergo major renovation over the next thirty months. The spiral stairway that gives the visitor access to the crown will be expanded to provide for an easier climb. A small elevator will be added for emergency and maintenance use. The arm, which is currently loose at the shoulder and moves about fifteen inches in the wind, will be tightened and stabilized after the torch is removed. Substantial work will be done on the pedestal with the removal of one floor that was added some years ago and the insertion of another at a different level. A new elevator will be installed in the pedestal, and the stairway there will be redesigned. To provide for the handicapped, television cameras will be placed in the Statue at various points so that they will be able to experience its interior by viewing monitors in the colonnade area.

The remainder of Liberty Island will have a rehabilitation of the concession operation, a new dock shelter for protection in inclement weather, new landscaping, and a refurbishment of the Administration and maintenance area. The work on the Statue and Liberty Island will cost between \$45 and \$50 million.

The other island of the Statue of Liberty National Monument is scheduled for major development. Ellis Island is a large complex of buildings which date back to the time when this site was the principal immigration station for the United States. Prior to 1890, the states controlled immigration, but in that year, the Federal government abrogated to itself responsibility for this activity and began to build structures at Ellis Island to process immigrants. Opened in 1892, this station, composed of wooden buildings, began to receive immigrants. In 1897, a fire destroyed the buildings. Shortly afterwards, the government began to build more substantial masonry structures on the island. The new buildings began to function in 1900. Wave after wave of immigrants passed through Ellis Island, ninety-five percent of them lingering only four to seven hours. A few with legal or medical problems were delayed, and some were sent back to their country of origin, but the majority left Ellis Island and headed for a place in their new country. About one-third went to New York City, and two-thirds to New Jersey to catch trains going to other parts of the country.

Though Ellis Island remained in

operation until 1954, the great flow of immigrants ceased in the early 1930s. After that, the station served as a deportation center, as a place of incarceration of German nationals in World War II, and as a training facility for the United States Coast Guard. After it closed in 1954, the island remained virtually unprotected, and vandals and bad weather did considerable damage to the buildings and their contents. Fitful efforts were made to use the place by private, nonprofit groups. None was successful, and they are chiefly remembered now as having contributed materially to the deterioration of the buildings and the destruction of the furniture and equipment in them.

In 1965, President Johnson turned Ellis Island over to the National Park Service. For a decade, neither the Service nor Congress could decide what to do with the site, and, consequently, no money was appropriated to the area for its maintenance, preservation, or operation, and the buildings deteriorated further.

In the mid-1970s, public interest in the site began to grow, and Dr. Peter San Martino, then the Chancellor of Fairleigh Dickinson University, was able to persuade Congress to appropriate \$1 million so that Ellis Island could be opened to the public. This money was used to clean up a portion of the Great Hall and to make it safe for visitors. The building opened in 1976. Over the next six or seven years, Congress continued to appropriate money totaling about \$8 million. The bulk of these funds went to repair the seawall, and today that work is nearing completion.

In 1982, Interior Secretary James G. Watt said that no further federal money

would go into Ellis Island to rehabilitate it and that any funds needed for such work would come from the private sector. In May of that year, the White House announced the establishment of the Statue of Liberty-Ellis Island Centennial Commission and that Lee Iacocca (the son of immigrants) had agreed to serve as chair. The Commission and its operating arm, the Statue of Liberty-Ellis Island Foundation, Inc., have taken on the mission of raising \$230 million for the restoration and preservation of these two important historical sites. Thus far, the Foundation has obtained nearly one-third of its goal, either in cash or pledges.

The analysis of the problems of the Statue and the necessary contract specifications and drawings are being prepared by a team of French and American architects and engineers employed by the French-American Committee which was founded by Vera-Laure and Philippe Vallery-Radot of France. The Committee is donating this architectural and engineering work to the National Park Service. The Statue of Liberty-Ellis Island Foundation is handling the actual construction work on the Statue and has hired an architectural and engineering firm to do the necessary design work for the remainder of Liberty Island. It is also contracting for the preparation of the master plan for Ellis Island.

Ellis Island will not be fully developed until 1992, its 100th anniversary and the 500th anniversary of Christopher Columbus's arrival in the new world.

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*Hungarian family arriving at Ellis Island around 1910; photograph by Augustus F. Sherman, superintendent of the island from 1897 to 1924. Photo: National Park Service, Statue of Liberty National Monument.*



# Encounters with Clio: the evolution of modern American historical writing

Richard O. Curry & Lawrence B. Goodheart

THE FIRST PART of this essay is an analysis of *Twentieth-Century American Historians*, edited by Clyde N. Wilson (Detroit: Gale Research Co., 1983; Volume 17, *Dictionary of Literary Biography*). The book is organized alphabetically and, unaccountably, contains no analytical introduction. In sum, the editor has nothing to say about the rise of "scientific" history in the United States, the emergence of history as an academic discipline in the late nineteenth century, or the evolution and development of various schools of historical thought during the past century. The DLB also emphasizes the work of historians (with a few major exceptions—for example: Bernard Bailyn, Eugene Genovese, Edmund S. Morgan, and Thomas C. Cochran, who continues to be productive in his eighties) whose most important writings appeared before 1960. Our first objective is to analyze the editor's choices and historiographical assumptions which determined the DLB's format and content. Part two will discuss the major trends in American historical writing before the 1960s. Our analysis is drawn primarily but not exclusively from essays in the DLB itself. Finally, our conclusion will discuss major historiographical and methodological developments during the past quarter-century and ends with a brief analysis of our view of the "state of the art" today.

The DLB contains essays analyzing the work of fifty-six American historians, one theologian (Reinhold Niebuhr), one novelist (Shelby Foote, author of a three-volume narrative history of the Civil War), and one poet (Carl Sandburg), turned Lincoln biographer. In the editor's view, these fifty-nine are the "best" twentieth-century writers on American history.

Niebuhr's inclusion is defensible since his work influenced a number of major historians: for example, Perry Miller, C. Vann Woodward, Richard Hofstadter, and Arthur Schlesinger, jr. As David L. Carlton observed, Niebuhr's history may be dated, but his

"way of viewing history is not"—that is, his emphasis on irony and ambiguity, the supreme importance of the human psyche, and the "wholeness of man" both "in his aspirations and his depravity," and his role as both "a creator and creature of history." Clyde N. Wilson's essay on Foote, however, fails to make a convincing case for his preeminence as a historian. Foote's work, Wilson wrote, is not only noted for its "responsible use of license," but is "true to fact" and carries "psychological conviction beyond fact." Wilson unrealistically argued that in time Foote, along with Alexandr Solzhenitzen, will be recognized as one of those great figures who "helped to restore the bridge between history and literature." Carl Sandburg, although a major figure in his day, hardly deserves inclusion here. As Mark E. Neely, Jr., observed, Sandburg's "criterion for evidence, especially early on, was more poetical than historical; he liked good stories."

In his introduction, the editor alluded to the existence of schools of thought, but dismissed their importance as an organizing principle. His is a "scatter-gun" approach containing analyses of the work of historians which is greatly diversified in style, methodological approach, and professional impact. "An effort has been made," he wrote, "to select the best individual historians from the point of view of published books, without regard to schools." Nevertheless, the DLB reflects to some degree the editor's own penchant for treating history as a "part of literature." Unfortunately, he fails to define what a "literary historian" is. Presumably, he means someone whose work is characterized by an unusually high quality of prose, someone who demonstrates artistry in conceptualization and/or has attracted a wide reading audience. The only criterion cited by the editor for choosing biographees was his own subjectivity, which, he admitted, is a "risky business." So risky, in fact, that the editor's subjectivity led

him to ignore critically important trends, methodological innovations, and epistemological problems since 1960. The editor provided no clear rationale for this choice but, rather, stated that "The 1960s and 1970s created other movements and schools that are not yet fully developed." Such a view is obtuse considering the emergence of quantification, especially the "new" social, political, and economic history; the widespread use of social science models and concepts; the application of psychological theory to biography and the study of group dynamics; and the flowering of black history, urban history, and women's studies, to mention only a few important recent trends in American historiography.

A volume of this scope inevitably will be characterized by peaks and valleys with ridges between. But the editor's choices and judgments turned a laudable undertaking into a dubious enterprise salvaged only by outstanding efforts on the part of several contributors. A few essays are extremely well-conceived: for example, Robert M. Calhoun's on Perry Miller; John Braeman's on Charles A. Beard; Paula Fass's on Richard Hofstadter; Milton Klein's on Carl Becker; and William Liddle's on Edmund S. Morgan. Most of the others are informative and useful. All too many essays, however, contain little more than brief summaries of the biographees' major writings, with little or no critical analysis of an author's methods, approaches, or conclusions. Elizabeth Muhlenburg's essay on C. Vann Woodward was literate, well-organized, and informative. It was seriously flawed, however, by her failure to describe much less appraise the accuracy of views expressed by historians taking exceptions with some of Woodward's finds (for example, Allan Peskin and Michael Les Benedict on the reality of the Compromise of 1877 and Joel Williamson and Richard C. Wade on patterns of racial segregation in the South). David Potter's sympathetic but critical treatment of Woodward's work in his *History and American*

*Society* (1973) was far superior.

In his introduction, the editor admitted that, with several major exceptions, "it would be easy to draw up another list of writers as numerous as those in this volume and arguably as important as some of those included herein." Unfortunately, the editor's subjective biases are so myopically Southern that twenty-nine of the fifty-nine historians included here wrote about slavery, the South, and/or the Civil War and Reconstruction era! As a result, numerous major figures writing about other fields of study are necessarily excluded. Yet, even in this category, despite its size, major problems exist in selection. The editor's myopia is compounded by excluding such important major historians as W.E.B. DuBois, Charles S. Sydnor, and John Hope Franklin among an older generation and more recent figures such as Carl N. Degler, Don Fehrenbacher, and John Blassingame. Any editor who ranks these individuals below Ralph Selph Henry, Claude Bowers, John Spencer Bassett, Carl Sandburg, Howard K. Beale, Alfred Beveridge, and William E. Dodd is not merely being subjective in our view but also demonstrates his lack of mastery of American historiography—even that written before 1960.

The DLB does contain, however, essays on numerous important historians writing about various aspects of Southern history and the Civil War and Reconstruction era: Douglas Southall Freeman, U.B. Phillips, Roy F. Nichols, Frank L. Owsley, Bruce Catton, Allan Nevins, David Herbert Donald, James G. Randall, Avery O. Craven, T. Harry Williams, C. Vann Woodward, and David Potter (whose work, of course, ranges far beyond the Civil War and Reconstruction era).

A second major implicit category which emerges from a careful reading of the DLB might well be called "Builders of the Profession," that is, individuals who served as administrators, editors, organizers, and teachers who



Hart, a founding member of  
the American Historical As-

sociation, also edited the first American Nation Series and published the Guide to the Study of American History, the forerunner to the Harvard Guide to American History. His Slavery and Abolition, 1831-1841 (1906) deserves recognition for anticipating the "western revival" thesis later made famous in Gilbert H. Barnes's seminal work, The Anti-Slavery Impulse (1934).

Woodson was not only a prolific writer but also laid the institutional foundations for black history as a major discipline through his formative role in establishing the Association for the Study of Negro Life and History, the founding of the Journal of Negro History, the Negro History Bulletin, and by inaugurating the observance of Negro (now Black) History Week.

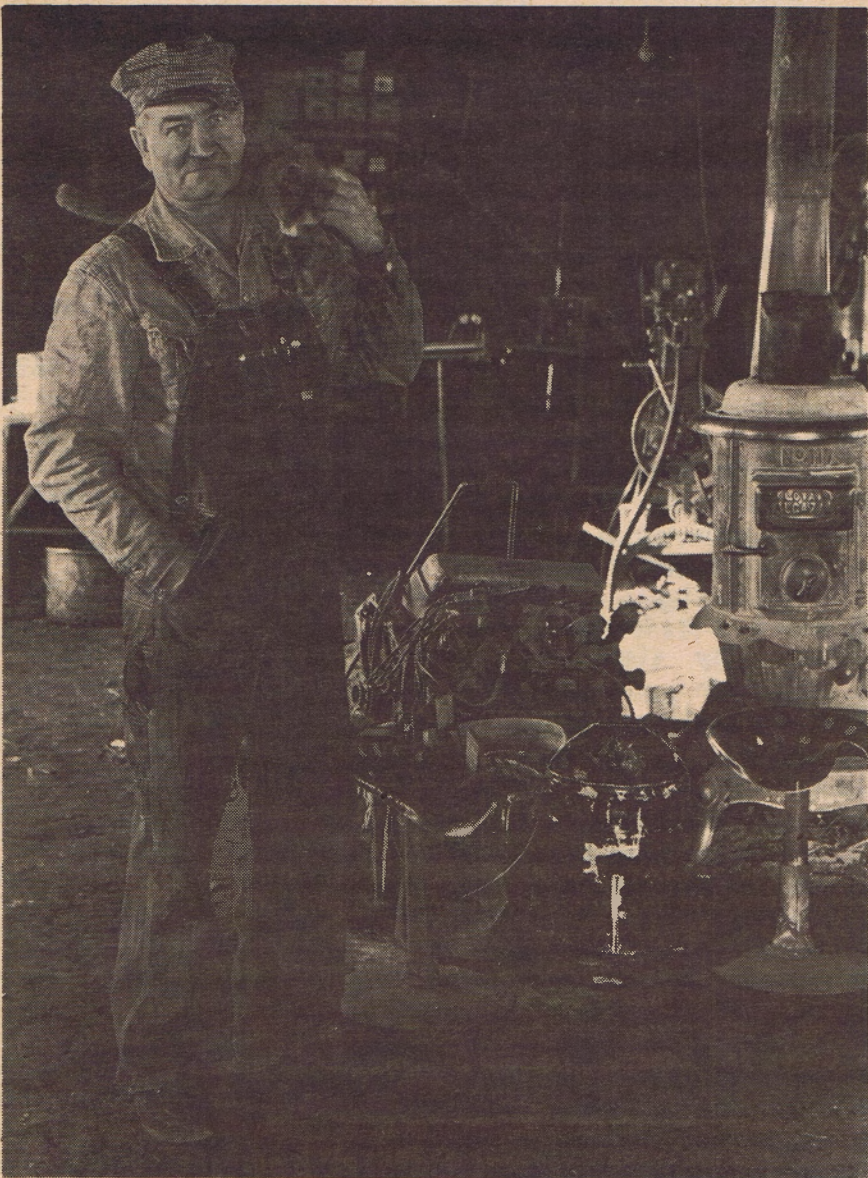
Bassett planned the AHA's endowment program and helped establish the South Atlantic Quarterly, which he also edited. His pioneering efforts also laid the foundations for establishing the Southern American Collection at Duke University and the Duke University Press.

Dunning was not only an influential teacher but was also a founding member of both the AHA and the American Political Science Association. His influence in professional societies was so great that detractors referred to him as a member of the "history ring."

Later in the century, historians Allan Nevins, Roy F. Nichols, Thomas C. Cochran, and Louis B. Wright also made important institutional or organizational contributions which reflected increasing professional growth and complexity. Nevins played a critical role in founding the Oral History Project at Columbia University and in establishing the Society of American Historians. Cochran, whose work in business, entrepreneurial, and comparative history is critically important for understanding modern American society, was a founding member of the Economic History Association. Nichols, an instrumental figure in the "rehabilitation of American political history" (to use David Potter's phrase), was an influential member of the Social Science Research Council for twenty-

two years. Wright, an extremely prolific writer, is best known for his work in developing the Huntington Library in San Marino and the Folger Shakespeare Library in Washington, D.C. Clearly, a comprehensive book-length study devoted to the multifaceted aspects involved in the professionalization and promotion of history remains to be written.

As stated earlier, the DLB's inordinant emphasis on historians of the South and the Civil War and Reconstruction era is difficult to fathom and impossible to justify. Even more baffling is the editor's arbitrary choice of the early twentieth century as a starting point. This overlooks the elemental fact that history in the United States emerged as an academic discipline in the last quarter of the nineteenth century. Logically, the volume should have begun with an analytical introduction which discussed the "scientific" history that German-trained historians brought to the United States. Herbert Baxter Adams's seminar



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at Johns Hopkins was based on the German methodology, stressed the use of original sources, developed the closely argued monograph, and had a philosophical commitment to positivism. This represented a fundamental conceptual break with previous American historiography that had been dominated by New England patricians who saw history as a sweeping pageant best told in the highly literate style of the nineteenth-century novel. With the institutionalization of scientific history in the nation's leading graduate schools by the turn of the century, Clio's domain would be divided ever after between the academic and amateur historian, and the ensuing debate as to whether history was an art or a social science would allow the Muse little rest. If the DLB had taken account of the origins of professional history, Herbert Baxter, Henry or Brooks Adams might have vied to open this alphabetically-ordered volume instead of the ephemeral popular writer James Truslow Adams, and Woodrow Wilson, an important figure associated with the Johns Hopkins seminar, could have been added to close it.

Frederick Jackson Turner and Charles MacLean Andrews, graduates of Johns Hopkins, extended the view of the narrowly-conceived scientific history by positing major theses about the nature of American history. Turner and Andrews, each in his own way, rejected his mentor's (Herbert Baxter Adams) germ theory, which traced the origins of American democracy to Germanic tribal organization in early Europe. (Forrest McDonald and Grady McWhiney have recently resuscitated Adams's germ theory in the form of an argument for the Celtic origins of Southern culture.)

Turner's celebrated frontier thesis of 1893 nationalized the American experience. Leaving German germs in dark Teutonic forests, he emphasized the exceptional environmental effects of an expanding line of western settlements from the Atlantic to the Pacific on American character and democratic institutions. For the historical profession, Turner's insight established a virtual cottage industry in which historians, especially of the West, still debate the degree to which they are Turnerian. Turner's second major thesis, contained in one of his few published books,

The Rise of the New West, 1819-1829 (1906), stressed that American history was the sum of its regional and sectional parts. Although this thesis was not received with as much enthusiasm as his frontier hypothesis by contemporaries, it has become so widely accepted a perspective that it is axiomatic.

Andrews, along with his student Lawrence Henry Gipson, inaugurated a new school of colonial history which emphasized the study of political institutions, exploited documents in the British Public Records Office, and placed American development firmly within the orbit of the British empire. Joined by Herbert Levi Osgood and his student George L. Beer, the revisionists of the Imperial School dominated the study of colonial America during the first decades of the twentieth century. Gipson's monumental fifteen-volume The British Empire Before the American Revolution (1936-1970) represented the culmination of the Imperial School's influence.

The most significant departure from the restrictive imperatives of scientific history occurred with the emergence of Progressive history during the early part of the twentieth century. Troubled by the excesses of corporate capitalism, governmental inefficiency, and urban malaise among other social ills, a second generation of professional historians espoused reform and the search for a usable past which could redirect a republic gone astray. Advances in the social sciences, particularly economics and sociology, also called for what James Harvey Robinson termed the New History, one that would not only broaden its scope but also would allow historians to diagnose more accurately the roots of current social ailments.

Charles A. Beard was, of course, the most extraordinary practitioner of this socially-engaged scholarship. By 1952 his seventy-seven books had sold over 11,000,000 copies. His classic, An Economic Interpretation of the Constitution (1913), combined a dispassionate dissection of the class consciousness of the Founding Fathers with the muckraking revelation that financial self-interest motivated the writing of the Constitution. Even Beard's major critic, Forrest Mc-

Donald, unwittingly paid him the compliment of seeking to refute the conclusions of An Economic Interpretation within the confines of its own conceptual framework. McDonald's analysis was dictated by Beardian assumptions.

In addition to Beard, other historians of the Progressive school added their voices to the chorus of class conflict. Carl Becker and J. Franklin Jameson argued that the American Revolution unleashed a social struggle over who should rule at home, and Vernon L. Parrington popularized the idea that American history could best be understood as a conflict between conniving upper-class Hamiltonians and honest Jeffersonian plain folk. Turner's equation of democracy with the settlement of the West was itself a Jeffersonian celebration—a geographic complement to the Progressives' emphasis upon the importance of economic forces. In addition, the great black historian W. E. B. DuBois (who, in his early years, belonged in the Progressive tradition), sought to recover the Afro-American past while simultaneously correcting the racist bias in the dominant southern and Reconstruction historiography of Ulrich B. Phillips and William A. Dunning. His "Reconstruction And Its Benefits" (1920), which appeared in the AHR, anticipated the revisionist school of Reconstruction Historiography by nearly forty years.

Although the Progressive historical tradition has left an enduring legacy, its romantic faith in human progress was shattered by the rise of totalitarianism and the onslaught of the Great Depression. Moreover, a changing perception of reality during the earlier years of the twentieth century as expressed in the arts, natural sciences, and behavioral sciences undermined the Progressives' essentially simplified concept of human nature and the historical process. Abstract art, the Joycean novel, Einstein's theory of relativity, Heisenberg's uncertainty principle, Freudian emphasis on the irrational, and the anthropological appreciation for primitive cultures challenged the presuppositions of the Progressives. Indeed, Beard and Becker became the foremost advocates of the relativity of historical knowledge, but in Beard's case only to reaffirm the Progressive credo that the course of

history was an upward gradient toward a better world.

The Progressive faith had worn thin, however, and a third generation of professional historians (writing in the period from the Great Depression to the 1950s) created alternate ways of explaining the American past. Although Howard K. Beale and Merrill Jensen, for example, ably continued the Progressive tradition, significant new departures in historiography occurred: for example, major reinterpretations of the "causes" of the Civil War, the development of the American Studies Program, the emergence of the myth and symbol school, and consensus history. However, the most coherent and important alternative to the Progressive world view was one that might well be labeled Niebuhrian because a number of influential historians incorporated aspects of this Protestant theologian's worldview into their writings. In his insightful essay on Perry Miller in the DLB, Robert M. Calhoun succinctly summed up the meaning of this major reorientation of American historiography. "Miller," Calhoun wrote, "was one of the handful of intellectuals—Hannah Arendt, Reinhold Niebuhr, and Richard Hofstadter were others—who mastered their craft in the 1930s and then, addressing a wide audience after World War II, reintroduced philosophical rigor and coherence into the humanities in America, brought to their work an awareness of the complexity and tragedy in human nature, and appreciated the importance of form in the expression of thought."

Miller's and Hofstadter's writings embodied Niebuhr's neo-orthodoxy that humankind is flawed and that social perfection is an illusion because good and evil are inherent potentialities in all historical events, even in the most seemingly desirable. Building upon the work of Samuel Eliot Morison and Kenneth B. Murdock in rehabilitating Puritan studies, Miller, during thirty years as a professor of American literature at Harvard, exerted an influence that went well beyond his magisterial studies of intellectual life in colonial New England. The core of his fascination with the Puritans lay in the paradox of finite man attempting to ensnare intellectually an ultimately unfathomable deity, a theme that his brilliant student Edmund S. Morgan



summed up in the title of his book The Puritan Dilemma (1958). During his long tenure at Columbia, Hofstadter, in his wide-ranging scholarship, including The American Political Tradition (1948) and The Age of Reform (1955), revised the monocausal Progressive emphasis on economics into a much more complicated world-view. There was no single Hofstadterian thesis, but as Paula Fass pointed out in a superb analysis in the DLB, "Hofstadter proposed that individuals live and act in a complex world defined by an interplay of history (traditions and myths), interests (class related values, status considerations, and the desire for material welfare) and personal psychology (anxieties, guilt, fantasies and projections)."

More politically engaged than Miller or Hofstadter, Arthur M. Schlesinger, jr.'s commitment to a liberal Democratic interpretation of American history (reading the New Deal back into the Age of Jackson and forward to the New Frontier) is also Niebuhrian in foundation. Schlesinger believed that important social problems are not ultimately solvable but best dealt with by the restrained and realistic use of countervailing governmental power that maintains a "vital center" of political liberty. C. Vann Woodward's critical reading of Southern history represented a sea change from the apologia in U.B. Phillips's writings and the reactionary views of the Nashville agrarians. Tragedy, complexity, and southerners' complicity in determining their own fate underlaid Woodward's analysis in such works as Origins of the New South, 1877-1913 (1951), "The Irony of Southern History" (a paraphrase of Niebuhr's The Irony of American History [1952] and The Strange Career of Jim Crow [1955]). A Niebuhrian perspective also influenced George F. Kennan's American Foreign Policy (1953), which argued that moralistic tendencies in American diplomacy confounded international relations in a way that realistic assessments of national interests and circumspect use of power would have prevented.

The philosophical coherence, intellectual complexity, and literary grace the Niebuhrians brought to post-World War II American historiography had a technical counterpart, a growing and

more sophisticated use of the social sciences by a variety of American historical specialists. Interest in neglected areas of the American experience such as immigration, the family, urbanization, and social mobility attracted historians who began to apply social science models to the past and build on the tradition of the old "New" history. The epistemology of the social sciences also offered to root historical inquiry more securely to verifiable hypotheses and quantitative evidence than the often vague claims intellectual and cultural historians made for the existence of a collective mind, national character, or universal symbols. For example, Oscar Handlin's Boston's Immigrants (1941) skillfully used census data and sociological constructs to explain Irish acculturation in nineteenth-century Boston. Indeed, Handlin's students including Bernard Bailyn, Anne Firor Scott, Moses Rischin, David Rotham, Stephan Thernstrom, and Sam Bass Warner--significantly furthered their mentor's exploration in various aspects of social history.

Thomas C. Cochran was also a highly influential advocate of the interdisciplinary approach to historical analysis as reflected in his studies of business, entrepreneurial and economic history, in his collected essays The Inner Revolution: Essays on the Social Sciences in History (1964), and, indeed, in his iconoclastic essays, "The Presidential Synthesis in American History" (1948) and "Did the Civil War Retard Industrialization?" (1961).

Frank L. Owsley's reliance on census data and tax records in Plain Folk of the Old South (1949) was also a landmark in innovative historiography, as is Merle Curti's use of statistical methodology to test Turner's frontier thesis in the study of Trempealeau County, Wisconsin. Moreover, Edmund Morgan's Puritan Family (1944) and "The Puritans and Sex" (1942) were among the first highly influential studies which contributed to the growth of modern social history. Richard Hofstadter's and David Donald's use of the status revolution thesis and Stanley Elkin's application of Sullivanian psychology to Slavery (1959) have been substantially revised but proved to be highly heuristic. In sum, all of the pioneering

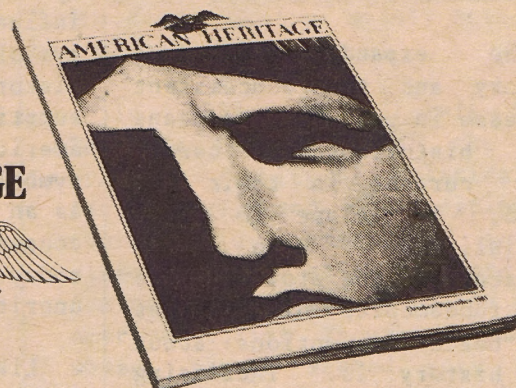
studies and many others have contributed to the growing use of the social sciences by historians and an increasing reliance on cliometric techniques, if not a tendency toward a positivism reminiscent of the scientific history of the late nineteenth century.

Although the DLB is primarily limited to historians whose major works appeared before 1960, this collective biography of past masters provides a counterpoint by which to assess the present state of the profession. The identity of the fifty-nine individuals included in the DLB is revealing as an analysis of the social composition of the historical profession then and now. The DLB contains no women, one black, one Italian-American, four Jews, and fifty-three white males of Protestant background from the British Isles whose families had lived in America for several generations. In addition, most of the fifty-nine received their highest degrees from Ivy League universities: ten from Harvard; nine from Columbia; and six each from Yale and Johns Hopkins.

With the professionalization of history in the late nineteenth century, the dominance of patrician New Englanders waned as mid-westerners Turner, Beard, Becker, and Parrington, and southerners Bassett, Dodd, Freeman, and Phillips began to achieve prominence. Parrington exemplified the populist rancor of the hinterlands toward the eastern academic establishment; he denounced the "smug Tory culture" of Harvard from which he graduated and refused to allow his son to attend his alma mater. In time, the elite eastern schools' dominance of graduate education in history would be challenged by the growth and development of prominent schools in the South, Midwest, and Far West. Moreover, since 1950, the expansion of Ph.D. programs in all sections of the nation, the sellers' market for historians in the 1960s, and the current effort at affirmative-action hiring have opened the door at least partway to a more diversified group of historians, although women, blacks, and Hispanics (among others) remain underrepresented. The changing social composition of the historical



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profession over time has generally mirrored the biases and opportunities for professional advancement found in the larger society.

The major characteristic of historical writing today is its fragmentation, an enduring legacy of the break-up of Progressive historiography. There are no towering figures at present such as Turner and Beard, nor is there a central explanatory model as pervasive as the Progressive. The variety of competing interpretations of the past, the specialization of fields, and the sophistication of technique are evidence of great vitality and creativity but also of overall divisiveness and incoherence. Not only black history but that of women, American Indians, Hispanics, Roman Catholics, and Jews have developed with their own associations and journals. So, too, there has been a proliferation of topics investigated for the first time in a systematic way: sports history, popular culture, gay culture, the family, and material culture, not to mention the new political, labor, economic, and social histories and psychohistory, which are examining old subjects from revised perspectives.

The expanded view of history and the concomitant increase in publications means that historians can barely stay current in their own field, let alone in other specialties. Even more critically, the profession is in fundamental disagreement over basic assumptions about what history is. Increasing diversity and complexity in historical analysis ought to be an object lesson illustrating the elusive nature of the Muse. Unfortunately scholars have divided into warring camps. "Monocausation" has been replaced by "mono-approachism" with too much hostility, misguided arrogance, and condescension on every side. In some circles, in some job interviews, and in the awarding of some grants, the question, "Brother/Sister, can you paradigm?" is by far the most important consideration in conferring favor or bestowing disfavor.

The collapse of the Progressive world view has left at least three major rivals for Clio's hand--the Niebuhrians, New Left, and scientific historians. Niebuhrians stress the ambiguity, irony, and contradiction in American

history in contrast to the fairly straightforward Progressive vision of competing classes, economic causation, and inevitable improvement of the American political system. Michael Kammen's People of Paradox (1972) and Edmund Morgan's American Slavery, American Freedom (1975) represent the persistent vigor of the Niebuhrian perspective. It should be noted that the myth and symbol school and consensus history, which flourished during the 1950s, shared with the Niebuhrians an interpretative emphasis on a pervasive American commitment to liberal capitalist values. An outgrowth of the American Studies movement, Henry Nash Smith's Virgin Land (1950), John William Ward's Andrew Jackson (1953) and R.W.B. Lewis's The American Adam (1955) stressed that Americans acted on the basis of strongly held beliefs in national myths and symbols that contradicted present realities and gave to these books a strong sense of Niebuhrian irony. In contrast, the celebration of the American past by consensus historians such as Louis Hartz and Daniel Boorstin lacked an appreciation for historical complexity and paradox which differentiated them from the Niebuhrians and the myth and symbol school. The present influence of the myth and symbol school and consensus history is minimal: the assumption of a collective American mind by the myth and symbol school is now regarded as an untenable construct, and consensus history appears today as little more than uncritical boosterism.

Like the Progressives, the New Left historians (who emerged in response to the social turmoil of the 1960s) are present-minded and politically engaged scholars who see confrontation and class conflict at the heart of America. From a neo-Marxist perspective, they repudiate, however, the reformist mentality of the Progressive and the liberal capitalist orientation of the Niebuhrians. Instead, they celebrate a radical tradition in American history which was in fundamental opposition to the dominant power structure. The recent election of William Appleman Williams and Eugene Genovese to the presidency of the Organization of American Historians represents the seriousness with which the New Left is regarded even by its ideological foes. In brief, differing interpretations of the American past have become

highly politicized reflecting their antagonistic assumptions about the nature of history and leading to the creation of journals such as Radical History, Continuum, and The Journal of Libertarian Studies.

The interpretive schism in the profession has a methodological counterpart. The New Left accused non-radical historians of confusing the hegemonic values of the ruling class with that of all Americans, and seeks as a corrective to write the history of the exploited from the bottom up. In turn, Robert J. Maddox in The New Left and the Origins of the Cold War (1973) sharply attacked the diplomatic revisionists, notably, W.A. Williams, for sloppy, self-serving documentation, an indictment that Oscar Handlin in Truth in History (1979) and The Distortion of America (1981) broadened to include the whole New Left.

The scientific historians, who have emerged during the last twenty years in response to advances in the social sciences, have placed a pox on everyone else's methodology. Although most historians have made interdisciplinary raids on the social sciences, the goal of behavioralists and structural-functionalists, as exemplified in Allan Bogue's "The Attempt to Write a More Scientific History" (1967) and Lee Benson's Toward a Scientific History (1972), is to place the study of history on a purely objective basis. They seek to frame hypotheses about the past that can be verified by quantifiable data in contrast to what they charge is the impressionistic form of the narrative in which history has been traditionally written. The speculations of humanists are faulted not only because they are unprovable, but also because the study of ideas or perceptions is seen as much less significant than the underlying social structures that ultimately shape people's lives and thoughts. Although the New Left also emphasizes the study of systems and masses, the scientific historians fault their radical ideology for being nonempirical and moralistic. In response, humanists accuse the scientific historians, in spite of their claims for multivariate analysis, with reductionism and narrow-minded positivism, while the New Left indicts them as bourgeois apologists who deny the

primacy of class struggle in history.

The state of the profession today is marked by centripetal forces, narrow specialization, and isolation from the larger society. At best, the competing paradigms and differing methodologies have sparked intellectual ferment and critical self-awareness, and, at worse, internecine war and empire building. Even various specialties are factionalized within themselves: different agendas led to the creation of The Journal of Psychohistory and The Psychohistory Review; fellow leftist Herbert Gutman has indicted Eugene Genovese for being conceptually bound by the theory of Antonio Gramsci; cliometricians thoroughly picked apart the statistical analysis in Time on the Cross (1974); and Robert F. Berkhofer, Jr., has concluded in the OAH Newsletter of May 1983 that two mutually exclusive explanatory models exist in the "new histories" emanating from the 1960s. In addition, declining student enrollments, a dismal job market, financial retrenchment, and the lack of significant influence on the general public and on government policymakers have contributed to the isolation of the academic historian in ivy-covered and red brick ghettos. The latter trend is partly offset by the efforts of public historians in historical commissions and museums and parks, and through the continued publication of popular and regional historical journals. Yet, the current nature of historical analysis, however sophisticated, informed or obscurantist, raises the perennial question: for whom are historians writing? Having lost a popular audience, professional historians now risk losing each other as well.

Richard O. Curry is a professor of history at the University of Connecticut, Storrs. Lawrence B. Goodheart is a lecturer at the University of Connecticut, Avery Point and at Eastern Connecticut State University. They frequently collaborate, and their most recent joint publications include "The Trinitarian Indictment of Unitarianism: Letters of Elizur Wright, Jr., 1826-27," "Knives in Their Heads": Passionate Self-Analysis and the Search for Identity in American Abolitionism," and "The Complexities of Factionalism: Letters of Elizur Wright, Jr. on the Abolitionist Schism, 1837-1840."



## Professional Opportunities

### University of Utah, Marriott Library

is seeking someone to manage their collection of 800 manuscripts related to Utah and the Intermountain West and to supervise a staff of six. Responsibilities include accessioning, processing, and classifying manuscript materials following general manuscript and archival principles.

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### Massachusetts Historical Society

seeks an Editor of Publications to begin January 1, 1985. The Editor is responsible for production and oversight of all printed publications. Qualifications: Ph.D. in American history or American Studies preferred; editorial experience is essential. Salary is commensurate with experience and qualifications. Send resume before July 6, 1984 to Director, Massachusetts Historical Society, 1154 Boylston Street, Boston, Massachusetts 02215. An Equal Opportunity Employer.

### The Winterthur Museum

seeks a Teaching Associate with specialization in American historic furnishings and decorative arts. Duties include teaching M.A. and Ph.D. candidates, advising theses, assisting with institutes and conferences, and sharing other departmental responsibilities. Commitment to productive research and Ph.D. in American Studies, History, Art History or relevant discipline required.

Start August 1984. Equal Opportunity Employer. Application deadline May 30. Send resume and salary requirements to Kenneth L. Ames, Chair, Office of Advanced Studies, Winterthur Museum, Winterthur, Delaware 19735.

### JAH Editor

Announcing a joint position at Indiana University to begin in August 1985. It includes the editorship of the *Journal of American History*, connected with an appointment in the Department of History. The appointee will be a tenured, teaching member of the department at either the full or associate professor level. Applicants should be established scholars in American history; editorial experience is desirable. The deadline for applications is October 15, 1984. Send curriculum vitae, personal statement, and names of referees to the JAH Search Committee, Department of History, Indiana University, Bloomington, Indiana 47405.

## KRIEGER PRESENTS . . .

### URBAN BOSSES, MACHINES, AND PROGRESSIVE REFORMERS

Bruce M. Stave and Sondra A. Stave

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This collection of readings considers the roles that bosses, machines, and reformers have played in the shaping of urban America, especially during the PROGRESSIVE era. After the Progressive view of boss politics is investigated, the editor considers the issues of the latent and manifest functions of the machine, the interaction of bosses and reformers and the concomitant questions of the boss as reformer and the reformer as boss, the nature of Progressive and later urban reform, and the role of municipal socialism as a reform movement.

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| <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• <b>PROCREATION OR PLEASURE? Sexual Attitudes in American History</b><br/>Thomas L. Altherr<br/>Orig. Ed. 1983 180 pp. Ppb. \$8.50</li> <li>• <b>SOUTHERN POLITICS SINCE THE CIVIL WAR</b><br/>Monroe Billington<br/>Orig. Ed. 1984 In Prep.</li> <li>• <b>THE PERIPHERAL AMERICANS</b><br/>Frank J. Cavaoli &amp; Salvatore J. LaGumina<br/>Orig. Ed. 1984 250 pp. Ppb. \$9.50</li> <li>• <b>PROGRESS AND CHAOS</b><br/>Alexander J. Groth<br/>Orig. Ed. 1982, Reprint 1984 w/corrections 242 pp. Ppb. \$9.50</li> <li>• <b>MAJOR IDEOLOGIES</b><br/>Alexander J. Groth<br/>2nd Ed. 1983 256 pp. Ppb. \$11.50</li> <li>• <b>MUTUAL AID FOR SURVIVAL: The Case of the Mexican American</b><br/>Jose Amaro Hernandez<br/>Orig. Ed. 1983 170 pp. \$11.50</li> </ul> | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• <b>COMMAND OF THE SEA: The History and Strategy of Maritime Empires</b><br/>Clark G. Reynolds<br/>Vol. I - to 1815 336 pp. \$19.50<br/>Vol. II - since 1815 357 pp. \$19.50<br/>Orig. Ed. 1974, Reissued 1983 w/new material<br/>SET OF STRATEGIC MAPS \$3.50<br/><i>*Maps are provided gratis with the 2-volume set</i></li> <li>• <b>COPERNICUS AND THE SCIENTIFIC REVOLUTION</b><br/>Edward Rosen<br/>Orig. Ed. 1984 224 pp. Ppb. \$6.50</li> <li>• <b>NATIONAL SOCIALIST GERMANY</b><br/>Louis L. Snyder<br/>Orig. Ed. 1984 212 pp. Ppb. \$6.50</li> <li>• <b>A SHORT HISTORY OF THE INDIANS OF THE UNITED STATES</b><br/>Edward H. Spicer<br/>Orig. Ed. 1968, Reprint 1983 320 pp. Ppb. \$9.50</li> </ul> |
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# Upcoming Meetings & Conferences

## ★ MAY ★

"PRESERVING WOMEN'S HISTORY: ARCHIVISTS AND HISTORIANS WORKING TOGETHER" is the topic of a conference co-sponsored by the Sophia Smith Collection of Smith College and the Schlesinger Library of Radcliffe College at Smith College, May 30-31, 1984. For more information, contact Virginia Christenson, the Sophia Smith Collection, Smith College, Northampton, Massachusetts 01063.

## ★ June ★

"WOMEN IN NATO FORCES" is the topic of a conference to be held at George Washington University on June 2, 1984. The conference is free-of-charge; however, reservations must be made in advance because of seating limitations. For more information, contact Linda Grant DePauw, Department of History, George Washington University, Washington, D.C. 20052.

THE 18TH ANNUAL ARCHIVES INSTITUTE will be offered by Emory University June 4-15, 1984. The institute is sponsored by the Division of Library and Information Management and the Georgia Department of Archives and History. For further information, contact Archives Institute, Division of Library and Information Management, Emory University, Atlanta, Georgia 30322.

THE WORLD FUTURE SOCIETY will present as part of its Fifth General Assembly an exposition entitled "World View '84: A Global Assessment of Problems and Opportunities" on June 10-14, 1984 at the Washington Hilton. For more information, contact Exhibits Committee, World Future Society, 4916 Saint Elmo Avenue, Bethesda, Maryland 20814.

MARYMOUNT MANHATTAN COLLEGE announces a summer 1984 London seminar, Women and International Public Policy, to be held June 28-July 19, 1984. For more information and a detailed brochure about the seminar, contact Dr. Gurcharan Singh, Director, International Studies Program, Marymount Manhattan College, 221 East 71st Street, New York, New York 10021.

## ★ July ★

THE NEW YORK STATE HISTORICAL ASSOCIATION AND THE FARMERS' MUSEUM will present the 37th Annual Seminars on American Culture on July 1-6, July 8-14, and July 25-27. For information, write to Seminars on American Culture, New York State Historical Association, Box 800, Department N, Cooperstown, New York 13326.

THE STATE HISTORICAL SOCIETY OF WISCONSIN is again conducting the Community Historians in Residence Project on July 7-21, 1984. To receive further information about the program, write to Michael Gordon, Project Coordinator, Community Historians in Residence Project, State Historical

Society of Wisconsin, 816 State Street, Madison, Wisconsin, 53706.

THE UNIVERSITY OF PENNSYLVANIA will hold the first of three NEH-supported summer institutes for high school teachers from the state of Pennsylvania on local history study and classroom applications on July 9-August 3, 1984. For information and application forms, contact Professor Walter Licht, Program Director, Penn Institute in Local History, 112 Logan Hall/CN, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania 19104.

THE WOMEN'S WEST 1984 will take place July 11-14, 1984 at the Yarrow Inn, Park City, Utah. The conference is free and is co-sponsored by the Coalition for Western Women's History and Culture and the Institute of the American West. For more information, contact Marcia Jones, Institute of the American West, P.O. Box 656, Sun Valley, Idaho 83353.

THE SENECA FALLS NATIONAL WOMEN'S CENTER AND EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTE is planning Unity Day, 1984. On July 21, 1984 women all over the nation will sign an updated Declaration of Sentiments in memory of the 1848 Declaration of Sentiments which marked the beginning of the American Women's Movement. For further information, contact Pauline Ginsberg, Vice President for Communications, 540 Pleasant Street, Manlius, New York 13104.

THE APPALACHIAN STATE UNIVERSITY HISTORY DEPARTMENT AND THE NEW UNIVERSITY OF ULSTER are co-sponsoring the Fifth Symposium on Ulster American Heritage. The Symposium will be held in the New University of Ulster, Coleraine, County Londonderry, Northern Ireland from July 30-August 4, 1984. For more information, contact History Department,

Appalachian State University, Boone, North Carolina, 28608.

## ★ August ★

THE NATIONAL PARK SERVICE will sponsor a symposium on the French and Indian War in Southwestern Pennsylvania on August 4, 1984 near Farmington, Pennsylvania. To obtain more information, write to Fort Necessity National Battlefield, R.D. 2, Box 528, Farmington, Pennsylvania 15437.

THE SUMMER INSTITUTE OF LOCAL HISTORY will be held at Salem State College August 6-10, 1984. The theme will be "The Living Past." Registration information is available from Professor John J. Fox, The Summer Institute of Local History, Department of History, Salem State College, Salem, Massachusetts 01970.

THE INSTITUTE OF THE AMERICAN WEST AND THE LINCOLN INSTITUTE OF LAND POLICY are sponsoring a conference on Parks in the West and American Culture on August 15-18, 1984. The conference will be held at the Elkhorn Hotel in Sun Valley, Idaho. For more information, write to E. Richard Hart, Director, Institute of the American West, Box 656, Sun Valley, Idaho 83353.

THE ROCHESTER INSTITUTE OF TECHNOLOGY will hold a conference on the Preservation of Black-and-White Photographic Images on August 19-24, 1984. For further information about the content of this program, write to George T. Eaton, 699 Heritage Drive, Rochester, New York 14615. For information on registration or lodging, write to William Siegfried, T&E Center Seminar Director, One Lomb Memorial Drive, P.O. Box 9887, Rochester, New York 14623-0887.

## Calls for Papers

### ★ July ★

THE SOUTHEASTERN AMERICAN SOCIETY FOR EIGHTEENTH CENTURY STUDIES will hold its annual meeting in Athens, Georgia on March 7-9, 1985. Proposals for papers on any eighteenth-century topic are solicited. A two-page prospectus containing the theme of the proposed paper and the way it will be developed should be submitted by July 1, 1984 to Carl R. Kropf, Department of English, Georgia State University, Atlanta, Georgia 30303.

THE RHODE ISLAND HISTORICAL SOCIETY will sponsor a public lecture series on aspects of Rhode Island's early eighteenth-century history in January and February 1985. Scholars interested in presenting their research on Rhode Island topics (pre-1750) should contact Carol Hagglund, Curator for Education, Rhode Island Historical Society, 110 Benevolent Street, Providence, Rhode Island 02906 by July 1, 1984.

THE SONNECK SOCIETY will hold its 1985 annual meeting with the Southern Chapter of the College Music Society on March 21-24, 1985. Abstracts for papers or proposals for workshops, lectures, recitals, performances about American music should be submitted to Frank Hoogerwerf, 1985 Sonneck Society Program, Department of Music, Emory University, Atlanta, Georgia 30322.

THE LIBRARY HISTORY SEMINAR VII "BOOKS, LIBRARIES & CULTURE" will be held March 1985 in Chapel Hill, North Carolina. The conference will explore the role and significance of graphic records in society. Prospecti should be sent to Donald G. Davis, Jr., Graduate School of Library & Information Science, University of Texas at Austin, Box 7576, University Station, Austin, Texas 78712 by July 1, 1984.





**Calls for papers**★ **September** ★

THE NEW-YORK STATE HISTORICAL SOCIETY is organizing a conference on the subject, "The Law in America, 1607-1861." The program committee welcomes proposals dealing with any aspect of American legal history and historiography before the Civil War. The conference will take place on May 17-18, 1985. Submit proposals by September 15, 1984 to Conrad E. Wright, New-York Historical Society, 170 Central Park West, New York, New York 10024.

THE NATIONAL COUNCIL ON PUBLIC HISTORY will meet in Phoenix, April 25-27, 1985. Papers are requested on public history. Three copies of two-page proposals for papers or complete panels should be sent to: Program Co-Chairs Noel Stowe and Arnita Jones, History Department, Arizona State University, Tempe, Arizona 85287. Deadline for submissions is September 15, 1984.

★ ★ ★

**Any notice or announcement to be included in the Newsletter must be received at least six weeks prior to publication. Those received later will not be included.**

**Grants, Fellowships, & Awards**★ **June** ★

THE MASSACHUSETTS HISTORICAL SOCIETY will be offering The Society of Cincinnati Fellowship to advanced graduate students enrolled in an American university and working on a doctoral dissertation about some aspect of the American Revolution. To qualify for the \$2,500 fellowship, applicants must reside within at least 100 miles of Boston, must spend at least six weeks in residence at the Massachusetts Historical Society engaged in relevant research, and must conduct the research in 1984-85. Applications should be postmarked no later than June 1, 1984 and those interested should apply to the Director, Massachusetts Historical Society, 1154 Boylston Street, Boston, Massachusetts 02215.

THE COUNCIL FOR INTERNATIONAL EXCHANGE OF SCHOLARS, through the United States Information Agency, has received from agencies and embassies abroad the list of Fulbright Scholar Awards available to American Scholars. The awards cover periods of two to ten months and are available for postdoctoral research, college and university lecturing, or for consultative or teaching positions with governmental bodies or other professional

institutions. Over 100 countries offer awards under the Fulbright program, and about 750 awards are available this year. Application deadlines for 1985-86 are: June 15, 1984--Australasia, India, Latin America, and the Caribbean; September 15, 1984--Africa, Asia (except India), Europe, and the Middle East. Information and applications can be obtained at graduate institutions from the offices of the Graduate Dean, International Programs, or Research and Sponsored programs. On undergraduate campuses, they are available from the office of the Chief Academic Officer. They can also be obtained directly from the Council for International Exchange of Scholars, 11 Dupont Circle, Washington, D.C. 20036.

THE INDO-U.S. SUBCOMMISSION ON EDUCATION AND CULTURE is offering twelve, long-term (six to ten months) and nine, short-term (two to three months) awards for 1985-86 for research in India. Applicants must be U.S. citizens at the postdoctoral or equivalent professional level. The fellowship program seeks to open new channels of communication between academic and professional groups in the United States and India.

**1984 OAH Award Winners**

**DISTINGUISHED SERVICE AWARD:** Thomas D. Clark, Professor of History (Emeritus), Indiana University-Bloomington and University of Kentucky.

**ERIK BARNOUW AWARD:** WGBH-Boston for "Vietnam: A Television History."

**BINKLEY-STEPHENSON AWARD:** Peter Kolchin for "Reevaluating the Antebellum Slave Community: A Comparative Perspective."

**MERLE CURTI AWARD:** Dino Cinel for From Italy to San Francisco: The Immigrant Experience.

**RICHARD W. LEOPOLD PRIZE:** J. Merton England for A Patron for Pure Science, The National Science Foundation's Formative Years, 1945-57.

**LOUIS PELZER MEMORIAL AWARD:** Wayne K. Durrill, University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill, for "Producing Poverty: Local Government and Economic Development in a New South County, 1874-1884."

**CHARLES THOMSON PRIZE:** Ruth Anderson Rowles and Kenneth C. Martis, West Virginia University, for "Mapping Congress: Developing a Geographical Understanding of American Political History."

**DOUGLASS ADAIR PRIZE:** Gordon S. Wood, Brown University, for "Conspiracy and the Paranoid Style: Causality and Deceit in the Eighteenth Century."

**THE FLOWERING OF THE MARYLAND PALATINATE**

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The classic biographical and genealogical account of the 200 adventurers who accompanied Leonard Calvert on the Ark and the Dove, this work also contains a succinct history of the Calvert family in England and a discussion of colonial Maryland's feudal manorial system.

359 pp., illus., indexed, cloth. (1961), repr. 1984.

\$21.50

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The starting point for all Maryland genealogical research, this work consists of an alphabetically arranged and cross-indexed list of some 20,000 Maryland families with references to the sources and locations of the records in which they appear, as well as a bibliography of Maryland research materials which identifies all genealogical manuscripts, books, and articles known to exist when the book was first published in 1940.

478 pp., cloth. (1940), repr. 1984.

\$25.00

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One of the basic source books of Maryland history and genealogy, *EARLY SETTLERS* is an alphabetical index to over 25,000 persons, or virtually all of the immigrants to Maryland for its first fifty years. Early Marylanders are identified by name, approximate date of immigration, residence, family relationships, and record sources.

525 pp., cloth. (1968), repr. 1979.

\$21.50

**PASSENGER ARRIVALS AT THE PORT OF BALTIMORE, 1820-1834**

Edited with an Introduction by Michael H. Tepper

Compiled from Customs Passenger Lists, *PASSENGER ARRIVALS AT BALTIMORE* identifies 50,000 immigrants by name, age, sex, occupation, country or place of origin, etc. Future volumes in this series will concentrate on arrivals at Boston, New York, Philadelphia, and New Orleans, as well as Baltimore.

768 pp., cloth. 1982.

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1001 North Calvert Street, Baltimore, Md. 21202



### Grants

Fellowship terms include \$1,500 per month, an allowance for books and study/travel in India, and international travel. The application deadline is June 15, 1984. Application forms and further information are available from the Council for International Exchange of Scholars, Attention: Indo-American Fellowships Program, 11 Dupont Circle, Suite 300, Washington, D.C. 20036.

THE ASSOCIATION FOR NORTHERN CALIFORNIA RECORDS AND RESEARCH announces its annual and on-going Local History Competition for the best written account, photo essay, or oral history of some phase of Northeastern California local history. There will be a cash award of \$500, and entries may be submitted at any time. Judging will occur annually in July and August for all entries received prior to June 30. Request entry form and competition rules from ANCRR, c/o Special Collections, Meriam Library, Chico State University, Chico, California 95929.

#### ★ July ★

THE AMERICAN ASSOCIATION FOR STATE AND LOCAL HISTORY announces the availability of research grants for individuals and organizations working in state, regional, local, and

community history. At least twenty-five research grants of up to \$3,000 each will be awarded on a competitive basis in 1984. Criteria for selection include the need for the project, the capacities of the applicant, and the potential value of the research results. The application deadline is July 1, 1984. For information, contact James B. Gardner, Assistant Director, Education Division, AASLH, 708 Berry Road, Nashville, Tennessee 37204.

#### ★ August ★

EASTERN NATIONAL PARK AND MONUMENT ASSOCIATION has announced the establishment of the Ronald F. Lee Graduate Research Fellowships. The \$5,000 fellowships will be granted to graduate students whose doctoral theses deal with the conservation, geological, archeological, architectural, ecological, historical, biological, environmental, scientific, and preservation interests of the national parks. Applicants must present a comprehensive statement on their thesis proposal together with a research and writing schedule. Letters and applications should be sent no later than August 1, 1984 to F. L. Rath, Jr., Executive Director, Eastern National Park and Monument Association, P.O. Box 671, Cooperstown, New York 13326.

THE UNIVERSITY OF ARKANSAS AT LITTLE ROCK will be awarding annually and on a competitive basis the Winthrop Rockefeller Research Fellowship in the amount of \$4,000. The award is for a scholar of demonstrated competence and publication record for research on a topic that makes significant use of the UALR Archives and Special Collections and other research facilities in the greater Little Rock area. In addition to the Winthrop Rockefeller Research Fellowship, UALR also makes available each year several smaller research grants (a maximum of \$500 each). These projects must also involve research in the UALR Archives and Special Collections and other research opportunities in the greater Little Rock area. For further information, contact the UALR Archives and Special Collections, University of Arkansas at Little Rock, 33rd and University, Little Rock, Arkansas 72204.

**"Restoring Women to History: Materials for U.S. History II" is ready to be mailed. Total price is \$10 for 4th class mailing, \$11 for first. If you previously paid for a packet, please remit additional monies to cover the cost of postage.**

# OAH Publications

To order any of the OAH Publications listed below just clip and return the coupon with a check or money order to the Organization of American Historians. Please include an additional \$1.00 per publication for foreign postage.

### American History Through Film

An anthology of eight essays originally published in the OAH Newsletter. This guide to using film in teaching American history, (26 pp.) available for \$4.50, is published in a convenient three-ring binder. Please include \$1.25 for postage and handling.

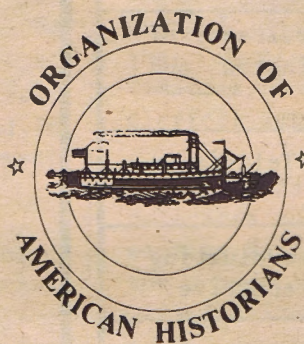
### Public History Pamphlets \*

A series of publications by the OAH Committee on Public History. Each pamphlet describes a different area in which historians can be trained by history departments for public history careers. The first two publications are currently available: "Historic Preservation: A Guide for Departments of History" (12 pp.) and "Educating Historians for Business: A Guide for Departments of History" (30 pp.) at \$2.50 per pamphlet. Please include 50¢ for postage and handling.

### Restoring Women to History

A series of guides for integrating women's history into history survey classes. These guides were produced with the help of a grant from the Lilly Foundation and the Fund for the Improvement of Post-Secondary Education. They provide method and documentation for incorporating women's history in American and European history. The publications are available in three-ring binders at a cost of \$8.00 each. Please include \$2.00 for postage (\$3.00 if first-class delivery is desired).

Publication Schedule:  
Western Civilization I (355pp.) — Now available  
Western Civilization II — Summer 1984  
U.S. History I — To be announced  
U.S. History II — Now Available



### Sport History in the United States:

#### An Overview

A survey of sport in America from the earliest settlers through modern-day Olympics and sport as big business. This pamphlet facilitates integration of sport history into a survey of American history. It is especially applicable to the high school classroom, and includes sample discussion questions and a selected bibliography. Currently available at \$2.50 ppd.

### Rights of Passage

An anthology of essays on aspects of the Equal Rights Amendment. Many of the articles originally appeared in the OAH Newsletter. Available Summer 1984.

### Computer Applications for Historians

A collection of essays about uses of computers for historians and people in the humanities in general. Several of the essays originally appeared in the OAH Newsletter. Coming soon.

### Mail In Coupon

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American History Through Film — \$4.50 each (\$1.25 for postage and handling)	_____	\$ _____
Public History Pamphlets — \$2.50 each (\$.50 for postage and handling) *	_____	\$ _____
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Educating Historians for Business	_____	\$ _____
Restoring Women to History — \$8.00 each (\$2.00 postage and handling, \$3.00 for first-class delivery)	_____	\$ _____
Western Civilization I	_____	\$ _____
U.S. History II	_____	\$ _____
Sport History in the United States: An Overview	_____	\$ _____
<b>TOTAL</b>		\$ _____

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Please enclose check or money order to: Organization of American Historians, 112 N. Bryan, Bloomington, IN 47401

\* The Public History pamphlet, "Educating Historians for Business: A Guide for Departments of History," is currently out of stock.



# Activities of Members

PAUL ANDERSON, Washington University School of Medicine, has received a fellowship from the Bentley Historical Library of the University of Michigan to support research on appraisal problems of modern historical documentation.

★

JOHN F. BLUTH, Archives of Recorded Sound, Brigham Young University, has received a fellowship from the Bentley Historical Library of the University of Michigan to support research on appraisal problems of modern historical documentation.

★

COLLEEN A. DUNLAVY has received a Fulbright Full Grant (Graduate Fellowship) for West Germany for 1983-84, and the SSRC/ACLS International Doctoral Research Fellowship, for Western Europe. These will support the first (Prussian) phase of the research for her Ph.D. dissertation, "Nineteenth-Century State-Economy Relations: A Comparative Study of Railway Development in the United States and Prussia."

★

SUSAN R. FALB was appointed Historian of the Federal Bureau of Investigation by FBI Director William H. Webster. She is the first person to occupy that position. Dr. Falb will provide assistance to those seeking historical or archival information about the FBI.

★

MEYER FISHBEIN, The American University, has received a fellowship from the Bentley Historical Library of the University of Michigan to support research on appraisal problems of modern historical documentation.

★

JACQUELINE GOGGIN, Manuscript Division, Library of Congress, has received a fellowship from the Bentley Historical Library of the University of Michigan to support research on appraisal problems of modern historical documentation.

★

LEWIS L. GOULD will leave his position as Chair of the

History Department at the University of Texas August 1 to devote more time to several projects, including an article and book on Lady Bird Johnson and her beautification program; a book on the Presidency of Theodore Roosevelt; and another book on First Ladies of the twentieth century.

★

TED C. HINCKLEY is the recipient of a major fellowship grant from the Alaska Historical Commission. The grant will enable Professor Hinckley to use the 1984-85 academic year to complete his book-length manuscript on the Tlingit Indians.

★

TERRY S. LATOUR, University of Southern Mississippi, has received a fellowship from the Bentley Historical Library of the University of Michigan to support research on appraisal problems of modern historical documentation.

★

GERDA LERNER, Robinson-Edwards Professor of History, has been appointed the WARF Senior Distinguished Research Professor at the University of Wisconsin in Madison.

★

WALTER LICHT has received a grant of \$265,000 from the National Endowment for the Humanities to establish an institute at the University of Pennsylvania to assist high school teachers to create local history projects with their students.

★

DOYCE B. NUNIS, JR., professor of History at the University of Southern California, received the Pontifical Honor, the Benemerenti Medal, on February 3. The medal was bestowed by Pope John Paul II on Dr. Nunis for his outstanding contributions to scholarship and teaching, as well as a distinguished record of service both to the secular community and the Church, notably his long service on the Board of Trustees for Santa Barbara Mission Archive Library.

★

HENRY LEWIS SUGGS has been awarded an exploratory grant

of \$1200 by the Clemson University Research Committee to research the legal cases of William Harper and George Crawford.

★

GERALD THOMPSON, associate professor of history at the University of Toledo, has been named editor of *The Historian*, the quarterly journal of Phi Alpha Theta.

★

BRYANT F. TOLLES, JR., executive director and librarian of the Essex Institute Museum, Salem, Massachusetts, has announced his resignation. He will assume the position of director of the Museum Studies Program at the University of Delaware in Newark in April 1984. Tolles will be the chief administrator of the University Galleries, Associate Professor of History, and

Adjunct Professor of Art History.

★

WILLIAM M. TUTTLE, JR., professor of history at the University of Kansas, was awarded an NEH Fellowship for Research and Independent Study for the 1983-84 academic year. He is spending the year as an associate fellow at the Stanford Humanities Center. His topic of research is "Children on the Home Front During the Second World War: The History and Life-Span Experiences of an American Generation."

★

ARTHUR ZILVERSMIT of Lake Forest College is currently Fulbright Senior Lecturer in American Studies at the University of Rome.

## 10% DISCOUNT FOR OAH MEMBERS

# HARRY S. TRUMAN:



## A Bibliography of His Times & Presidency

Edited by Richard Dean Burns

This fully annotated bibliography guides researchers to over 3,000 primary and secondary sources on the life, administration and times of Harry S. Truman. Concentrating especially on the years 1945 to 1953, Burns's new work covers every important aspect of this very active period in modern US history. A sampling of the Table of Contents:

Chap. 1: Harry S. Truman—Biographies, Political Life, Chap. 2: Overview of Truman's Presidency—President as Commander-in-Chief, Executive Office & Cabinet, Truman & Congress. Chap. 3: Administration Personalities—Executive Branch, Diplomats, Military, Congressional & Political Leaders. Chap. 4: Domestic Affairs—Reconversion & Decontrol, Agriculture, Business, Trade, Industry, Labor, Veterans. Chap. 5: Domestic Affairs—Arts, Health & Welfare, Education, Science & Technology. Chap. 6: Domestic Affairs—Civil Rights, Public Opinion, Internal Security, Civil Liberties, Supreme Court. Chap. 7: Foreign Affairs—National Security Council, Congress, End of WW II, Beginning of the Cold War, Containment, International Economics. Chap. 8: Foreign Affairs—International Relations. Chap. 9: Military Affairs—Policies, Programs, & Strategies, Postwar Planning, Defense Economics, Atomic Weapons & Policy, Arms Control. Chap. 10: The Korean War—General Accounts, US Politics & Public Opinion, Military Dimensions. Chap. 11: General Reference Works.

### OAH MEMBERS:

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Telephone: 302-654-7713



## American History and Social Science Films and Video

**America Lost and Found**

The Depression Decade  
CINE Golden Eagle  
American Film Festival  
Blue Ribbon 1980



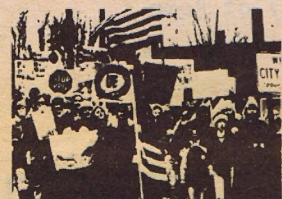
This compilation of rare footage conveys the psychological impact of the economic and social collapse which accompanied the Great Depression.

"An especially fine new documentary feature...It beautifully evokes the era." Vincent Canby, *New York Times*.

Media Study Production  
Produced and Directed by  
Lance Bird and Tom Johnson  
59 minutes  
Black & White 1980  
\$800/85 Video \$250 jscag

**Hazardous Waste**

The Search for Solutions



Hal Holbrook narrates this probing documentary about concerned citizens successfully organizing at the local level to clean up some of the 17,000 toxic chemical dumps which have littered the countryside. Specific ideas are presented from the different perspectives of government, industry, and community. The film cuts across all boundaries, making it useful for everyone.

A film by Nicolas J. Kaufman  
35 minutes Color 1983  
\$545/55 Video \$250 jscag

**Karl Hess: Toward Liberty**

Academy Award 1980  
Best Documentary Short



Mixing right and left wing political ideas with equal parts of common sense and wit, Karl Hess, a former Goldwater speech writer, explains why he traded his suburban Washington, D.C. house and three-piece suit for a West Virginia homestead and overalls.

A film by Roland Hallé  
and Peter Ladue  
26 minutes Color 1980  
\$450/40 scag

**No Place To Hide**

Growing Up in the  
Shadow of the Bomb  
American Film Festival  
Red Ribbon 1982



Vintage film clips show how America was sold on the idea that nuclear attack is survivable in a fallout shelter. Martin Sheen's narration recreates the nightmares of a child growing up during the cold war.

"Devastating!" *Vincent Canby*,  
*New York Times*  
"Extraordinary...Provocative!"  
*The Village Voice*  
Media Study  
Produced and directed by  
Lance Bird and Tom Johnson  
29 minutes Color 1982  
\$495/45 scag

**Titanic in a Tub**

The Golden Age  
Of Toy Boats  
Cine Gold Eagle



Academy Award-winner Rex Harrison narrates this delightful film of a time when the world was fascinated with the great ocean liners and naval vessels of the 19th and 20th Centuries. Charming vignettes of children at play with toy boats alternate with vintage film clips of the world's most famous maritime sea vessels and sea battles. Evokes the timeless joys of childhood fantasy.

A film by Tim Forbes  
28 minutes Color 1983  
\$495/45 Video \$100 ijscag

## Exclusive from Direct Cinema Home Video

**Being with John F. Kennedy**

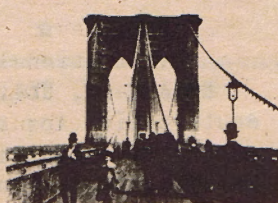
This new intimate view presents a behind the scenes look at JFK, the man and his times. The film documents the history-making Kennedy style from young senator to candidate battling religious prejudice, through the glories of the New Frontier, to burdened President in crisis, to the tragedy in Dallas. You'll get closer to the Oval office than you've ever been.

SPECIAL PRICE \$79.95  
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Free study guide/poster  
available

Golden West Television  
Produced by Nancy Dickerson  
and Robert Drew  
100 minutes B&W/Color 1983  
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**Brooklyn Bridge**

Florentine Films  
Academy Award Nomination  
Feature Documentary 1981  
Barnouw Prize 1983



That beloved landmark and technical feat of unparalleled scope, the Brooklyn Bridge, is lionized in this visually brilliant, critically acclaimed Academy Award-nominated documentary. "For the layman, the technical information in Brooklyn Bridge is wonderfully simple; for us engineers, it's simply wonderful." Robert Vogel, *Smithsonian*

A film by Ken Burns  
58 minutes Color 1982  
\$895/100 Video \$250 jscag

**If You Love This Planet**

Dr. Helen Caldicott  
on Nuclear War  
Academy Award 1982  
Best Documentary Short



In a campus talk, Dr. Helen Caldicott, noted author and pediatrician, clearly emphasizes the perils of nuclear war and reveals a frightening progression of events which would follow a nuclear attack.

"...She hammers out facts about the effect of a nuclear holocaust with the rapidity of a machine gun and a passion that stuns her listeners." J. Stone,  
*San Francisco Chronicle*  
Directed by Terri Nash NFBC  
26 minutes Color 1982  
\$495/45 scag

**The Life & Times of Rosie the Riveter**

Clarity Productions



In this valuable history of working women, five former "Rosies" movingly recall their experiences during World War II when women gained entry into major industrial plants for the first time. Their testimony is interwoven with rare archival recruiting films, posters and music of the period.

"Extraordinary, enlightening, and engrossing."  
Janet Maslin, *New York Times*  
Produced and directed by  
Connie Field  
65 minutes Color 1980  
\$850/85 jscag

**Number Our Days**

Academy Award 1976  
Best Documentary Short



This compassionate look at a California community of elderly Eastern European Jews show how they sustain a vivid cultural heritage while contending with poverty and loneliness in modern America. Captivating personal portraits mix with a broad social background to form a unique urban ethnography.

Based on fieldwork by anthropologist Dr. Barbara Myerhoff

A film by Lynne Littman  
29 minutes Color 1977  
\$495/45 Video \$150 scag

**Vietnam Requiem**

Peabody Award 1983  
Emmy Award 1983  
Outstanding Program  
Achievement



In this ABC News Special, five Vietnam veterans, all decorated war heroes, now serving prison terms are interviewed. With the combination of real combat footage and the veterans' personal experiences, the film relays the horrors of war and the unhappiness and bitterness felt by these heroes returning home from an unpopular war.

Produced and directed by  
Bill Couturié and Jonas McCord  
58 minutes Color 1983  
\$895/100 Video \$250 scag

## Readers' responses

**Literature in American Democratic Thought**

I read the article "Literature in American Democratic Thought" (November 1983) with interest, but I was surprised to see that "twenty-seven percent [of the students] knew that Herman Melville lived in the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries." According to my information, Melville died in 1891 some ten years before the 20th century started.

Bernard Sinsheimer, History  
Department, University of  
Maryland, European Branch

**Forging the Past**

John Poster is incorrect in his criticism of my communication to the November Newsletter (Readers' Responses, February issue) regarding Samuel N. Harper's role in authenticating the Sisson documents. Instead of trying to determine the "likelihood that Harper could have considered. . . the letters credible" on the basis of the documents' manifest absurdity, Poster should consider what Harper himself said about the subject, which provides the foundation for my assertions about the contribution of anti-bolshevism to Harper's views, his gradual disbelief in the documents after 1920, and the limitations of his memoirs as a source for what he believed at the time of the events in question. (Evidence and documentation may be found in my book, *Mars and Minerva*.)

There is no inconsistency in the "knowledgeable russophile" having been anti-bolshevik; indeed, Professor Poster provides us with a paragraph of evidence of Harper's anti-bolshevism.

I fail to see the point of Professor Poster's letter, and I think that he missed the point of mine. My purpose was not to debunk a myth, but to draw attention to a far from singular example of a thinking person believing the unbelievable.

Carol S. Gruber, Professor  
of History, The William  
Paterson College of New Jersey

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REMEMBER  
TO VOTE



## OAH Bicentennial Committee seeks teaching participants for grant

THE OAH'S COMMITTEE on the Bicentennial of the Constitution has received a grant from the Hewlett Foundation to conduct two year-long pilot projects involving university faculty and secondary school teachers. The pilot projects, which will be conducted by the departments of history at the University of Florida and Iowa State University in conjunction with the School Board of Alachua County Florida and the Des Moines, Iowa Public Schools, will begin this summer and continue through the academic year. The OAH's Bicentennial Committee concluded that a systemic and institutional approach involving close cooperation between history faculty and secondary school teachers held the greatest promise for not only strengthening teaching about the Constitution in public schools but also fostering closer professional contacts between secondary American history teachers and professors.

The two pilot projects involve a one-week seminar during August followed by ten sessions during the school year. A particularly important feature of the Hewlett grant is funds for release time for teachers during the school year in

order that all teachers in a given system may attend the seminars. The grant also enables teachers to spend time with distinguished participants--senators, representatives, judges, governors--in the constitutional system. The seminar's broad purpose is both make secondary American history teachers more familiar with the main themes of American constitutional development and to expose them to many of the ongoing problems in the constitutional order. The seminars, which will be based on the inquiry method of learning, are meant to be testing grounds for much of the new curricular materials developed for teaching the Constitution and constitutionalism in secondary schools. Because the seminars follow an institutional rather than an individual approach, they are expected to enhance teaching about constitutionalism throughout an entire school district.

The OAH Bicentennial Committee plans to expand the program by seeking greater funding support. It hopes to be able to conduct many such projects through the years leading up to and including the Bicentennial in 1987. To do so, the Committee seeks applications from

members of the Organization interested in conducting a year-long seminar with a nearby school district. Based on the pilot projects and responses from members, the Committee will develop a major grant proposal late in 1984 and early 1985. The program will require university faculty to join in a cooperative relationship with a nearby school system. History faculty must have a demonstrated competence in the field of American constitutional history, a strong interest in secondary education, and must be willing to work within the guidelines developed by the Bicentennial Committee. One of the features of the program deemed essential by the Hewlett Foundation is the willingness of departments, faculty, and school systems to make contributions of resources and time toward the project.

People interested in the program should contact Professor Kermit L. Hall, Chair, OAH Committee on the Bicentennial, Department of History, 4131 GPA, University of Florida, Gainesville, Florida 32611. In view of the time necessary to prepare grant proposals, the OAH Committee urges those interested in participating in the program to respond promptly.

## New York Public Library explores 500 years of censorship

Whether intended to shelter the innocent, defend the guilty, or protect religious or scientific institutions, censorship has always been surrounded by controversy. Starting on June 1, 1984, the New York Public Library will explore five centuries of this controversy with the first major exhibition to examine censorship in western civilization. Censorship: 500 Years of Conflict will open in the newly renovated D. Samuel and Jean H. Gottesman Exhibition Hall, drawing from the New York Public Library's collection of rare books, manuscripts, pamphlets, and prints to examine political, scientific, religious, and moral censorship from the advent of the printing press to the 1949 publication of George Orwell's 1984.

The Library's exhibition will provide a historical background to censorship in present times while attempting to answer such questions as: What are the intellectual origins of censorship? What historical circumstances brought them to life? What effect has censorship had on the creative arts and scientific thought? What ideas have institutions and thinkers advanced for and against censorship? The exhibit will contain nearly 300 items drawn exclusively from the New York Public Library's collections including books, documents, prints,

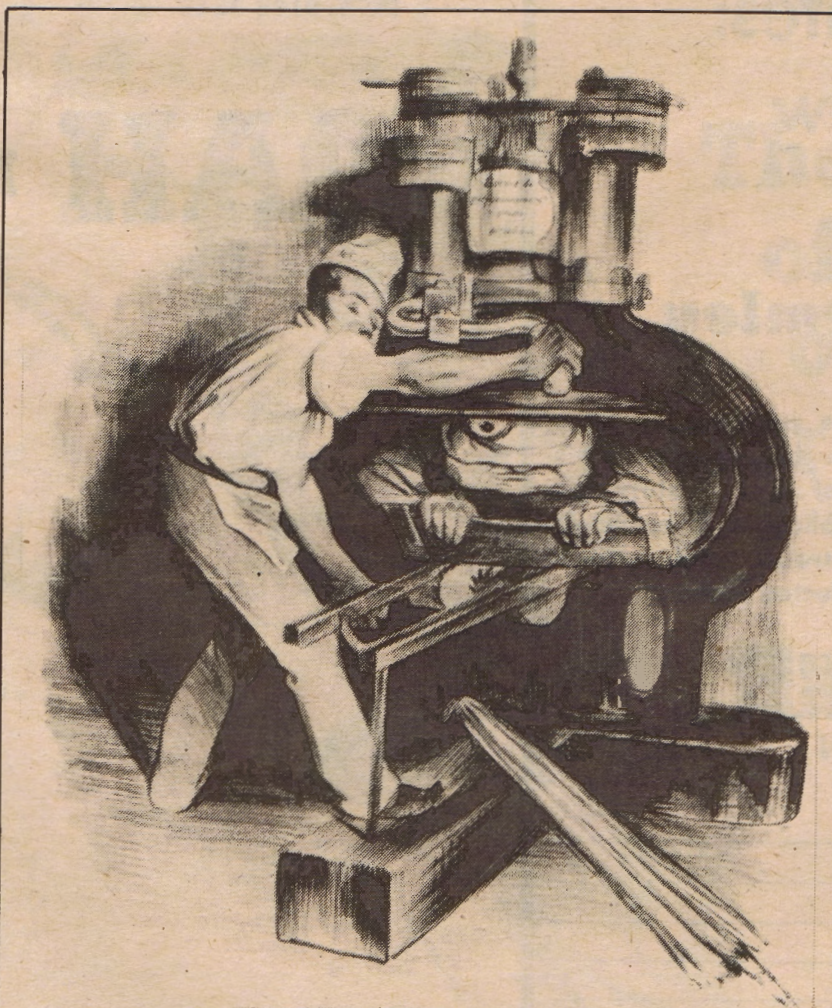
drawings, pamphlets, and broadsides. Such landmark texts as the Gutenberg Bible, Thomas Paine's The Rights of Man, and James Joyce's Ulysses will be supplemented by

prints, maps, or other graphics to interpret central themes.

In addition, Censorship: 500 Years of Conflict will be an inaugural exhibition for the recently restored Gottesman Exhibition Hall. The hall, closed since World War II, was renovated through a grant from the D.S. and R.H. Gottesman Foundation and contributions from the Rockefeller Brothers Fund, the Uris Brothers Foundation, and Harold W. McGraw, Jr. The funding is part of a \$44.6 million program to preserve, restore, and repair the Central Research Library, which the Library's founders envisioned as an important center for public learning. As such, the 6,400 square-foot marble exhibition hall is considered one of New York's most significant public spaces.

In conjunction with the inaugural exhibition, the Library will also launch a series of public programs on censorship.

Censorship: 500 Years of Conflict will run until October 15, 1984 and will be followed by other exhibitions in Gottesman Hall such as: Master Works from the Collections of The New York Public Library; Japanese Scrolls, Prints and Books; and Islamic Manuscripts from the Spenser Collection of The New York Public Library.



*Lithograph by Honore Daumier, 1834, included in Censorship: 500 Years of Conflict; illustrates the artist's response to newly introduced laws which restricted freedom of the press in France.*



# BALLOT

**EXPLANATION:** There are five service committees that perform equivalent work and receive the same degree of OAH funding (travel only). These committees vary in membership between five and six members who serve two- or three-year terms. The size and term of these committees have been established over the years without any relationship to each other or to optimum size and length of service. The following by-laws will make each of these committees five members serving three years.

- By-law 4e: Public History. Delete "The committee is composed of six members, three appointed each year for two-year terms." Insert "This committee shall have five appointed members serving three-year terms."
- By-law 4f: History in the Schools and Colleges. Delete "The committee is composed of five members. Each member serves a two-year term, two being appointed in even-numbered years and three in odd-numbered years." Insert "This committee shall have five appointed members serving three-year terms."
- By-law 4g: Status of Women in the Historical Profession. Delete "This committee is composed of five members. Each member serves a two-year term, two being appointed in even-numbered years and three appointed in odd-numbered years." Insert "This committee shall have five appointed members serving three-year terms."
- By-law 4h: Television, Film, and Radio Media. Delete "The committee is composed of six members, each appointed for a three-year term." Insert "This committee shall have five appointed members serving three-year terms."

- By-law 4r: Committee on Access to Documents and Open Information. Delete "The committee is composed of six members, both historians and archivists, two of whom should be located in the Washington, D.C. area." Insert "This committee shall have five appointed members, both historians and archivists, serving three-year terms. At least one member of the committee should be located in the Washington, D.C. area."

**YES** \_\_\_\_\_ **NO** \_\_\_\_\_

**EXPLANATION:** ABC-Clio has offered to fund a biennial prize for the best article in an OAH determined developing field of historical scholarship. A five-member prize committee appointed by the President will decide the criteria for each competition and judge the entries. This will be a prize to reward and encourage new scholarship. ABC-Clio will fund both the prize (\$750) and the administrative expenses of the prize committee. The OAH will establish the prize committee and publicize the competition.

- By-law 4u: The President will appoint a five-member prize committee for a two-year term to administer the ABC-Clio America: History and Life Award. The prize will be given biennially for the best article published in a developing field of history. Every other year, the committee will determine and announce its prize criteria. The same committee will judge the competition the following year.

**YES** \_\_\_\_\_ **NO** \_\_\_\_\_

**Clip (or copy) and return by September 1** \_\_\_\_\_

**Now Available**

## Sport History in the United States: An Overview

by  
**Mary L. Remley**

A new OAH pamphlet surveying the evolution of "play, games, and sporting pastimes" through the nation's history. It facilitates the integration of sport history into surveys of American history. The publication is especially applicable to the high school classroom, and includes sample discussion questions and a selected bibliography.

**Price: \$2.50 ppd.**

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# OAH

 Newsletter



# INDIANA UNIVERSITY PRESS AMERICAN HISTORY

... see last page for books in  
Military History

## EVERYWOMAN

Studies in History, Literature, and Culture

Susan Gubar and Joan Hoff-Wilson, general editors

Indiana University Press takes great pleasure in announcing a new women's studies series, dealing with women's contributions and concerns throughout history and across cultures, including works in the humanities, the social sciences, and interdisciplinary studies.

## Without Precedent

*The Life and Career of Eleanor Roosevelt*

Edited by Joan Hoff-Wilson and Marjorie Lightman

Foreword by Joseph P. Lash

Published in celebration of the centennial of Eleanor Roosevelt's birth, this is a comprehensive and authoritative study of her public career. Eleanor Roosevelt's long involvement in public affairs yielded many contradictions. The authors examine her views and actions against the background of both her personal life and the general circumstance of women in American society during those years. It is a book for the student, scholar, and all those who admire or remember "the first lady of the world."

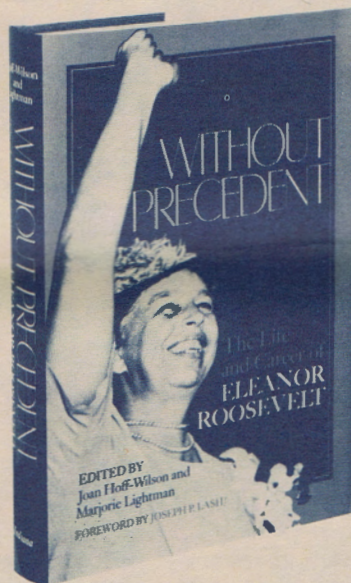
"This is compelling reading—a landmark volume which brings to new polish the many facets of Eleanor Roosevelt's life, and in the process epitomizes the vigorous complexity of the new women's history." —Nancy Cott

"Without Precedent: The Life and Career of Eleanor Roosevelt is an important contribution to the literature of political history, social history, and women's history." —Lois W. Banner

Books available in May 1984

272 pages, 16 photos, index LC83-49062

cloth #19100 \$17.50



Lake Success, New York, November 1949



World Wide Press



Eleanor Roosevelt with Mary McLeod Bethune addressing the 2nd National Conference on Negro Youth in Washington, DC, January 1939.

Eleanor Roosevelt, Melvyn Douglas, and Helen Gahagan Douglas visiting a Farm Security Administration Camp in California, 1940.



Western History Collections, University of Oklahoma Library



## THE AMERICAN WEST IN THE TWENTIETH CENTURY SERIES

Martin Ridge, editor

The American West has undergone dramatic changes since 1900. Books in this series will describe and analyze these changes and ascertain their total impact on the political, social, economic, and cultural contours of the American West in the twentieth century.

### The New Deal and the West

By Richard Lowitt

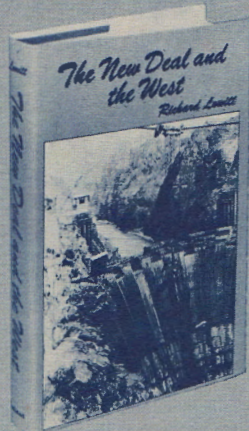
Foreword by Martin Ridge

By the 1930s, the grass, soil, timber, and watersheds of the West had been exploited, some to the point of serious depletion. With the onset of the Great Depression and repeated natural disasters, the West recognized that intervention on a grand scale by the federal government was necessary to lead their economy back to prosperity. Lowitt's description and analysis of the New Deal's vast network of programs designed to revitalize and restore the West shows how the federal government encouraged a sound and rationally based productivity upon which a new western prosperity could firmly rest. Despite the impediments militating against the smooth implementation of their policies and programs, the New Dealers managed to extricate the West from the depths of the depression and lift it to a new and higher plateau.

Books available in May 1984

304 pages, 40 photos, bibl., notes, index LC83-48188

cloth #34005 \$25.00



## INTERDISCIPLINARY STUDIES IN HISTORY SERIES

Harvey J. Graff, editor

Books in this series focus on important themes and topics in European and North American interdisciplinary and comparative social history. Each book will offer a critical review of scholarship in its area, a discussion of various approaches and modes of analysis, examples of empirical studies, and a sketch of the emerging synthesis in that field of history.

### The Authority of Experts

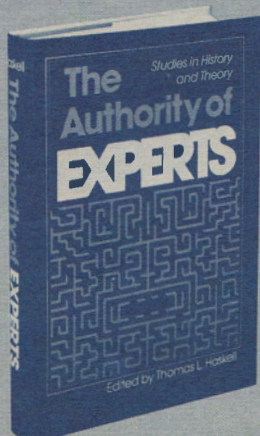
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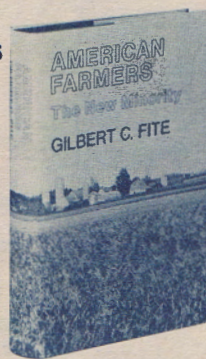
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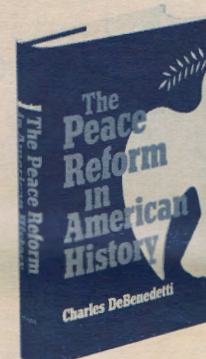
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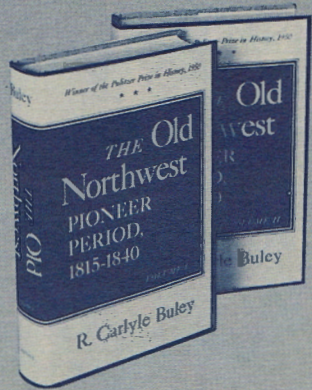
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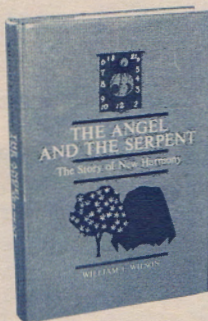
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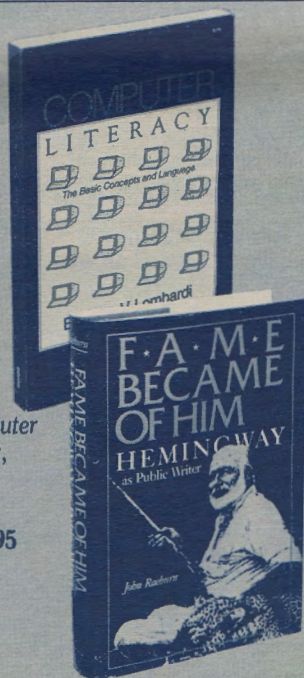
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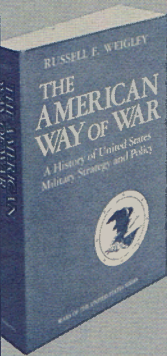
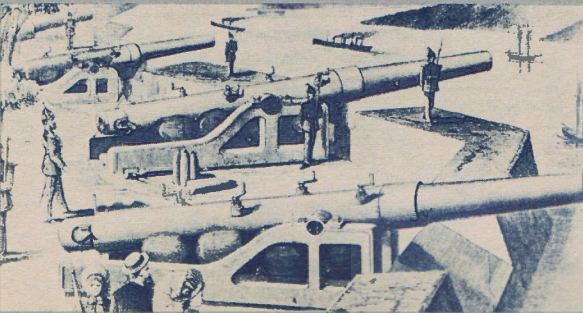
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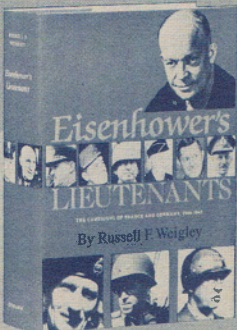
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