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Book Reviews

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Book Reviews

The Letters of Pierce Butler, 1790-1794: Nation Building and Enterprise in the New American Republic. By Terry W. Lipscomb, Editor. (Columbia: University of South Carolina Press, 2007. Introduction, Notes, Index. Pp. xv, 370. \$39.95 cloth.)

In this volume, Terry Lipscomb provides readers with insight into the world of Pierce Butler, an outspoken South Carolinian participant at the Constitutional Convention. Limited surviving primary sources regarding Butler make him an elusive Founder. Malcom Bell's *Major Butler's Legacy: Five Generations of a Slaveholding Family* (University of Georgia Press, 1987) is the only scholarly book published on Butler in the last twenty-five years. Lipscomb's collection of correspondence reveals not only insight into Butler's character and sentiments, but provides a glimpse into the early days of the young republic, 1790-1794, a time when nothing seemed certain.

Pierce Butler strove earnestly to pay his bills, unlike many members of the southern gentry who accepted debt as part of life. In a letter of October 31, 1790, Butler remarked, "It is the first wish of my breast . . . to pay every person I am indebted to" (74-75). On September 23, 1790, Butler responded to a rude letter from an English haberdasher who claimed Butler owed him £2.5.6 for the purchase of a hat. Butler took great offense; he had often done business with this hatter but always paid in cash. To insinuate that Butler owed money for a hat was a personal affront. Butler's silent partnership with Daniel Bourdeaux, head partner of a European shipping firm, troubled Butler greatly throughout 1790 and 1791. Bourdeaux was unable to repay a loan and avoided his creditor, jeopardizing Butler's good name and credit. "Can You lay Your

head on Your pillow and sleep while such an Acct remains unsettled," he wrote to Bourdeaux on January 29, 1791 (96), signifying Butler's sense of betrayal.

This collection also addresses national economic issues. Concerning Hamilton's proposed Bank of the United States, Butler feared the abuse that would come from such a powerful institution. Butler repeatedly demonstrated apprehension over the issue of the federal assumption of state debts in return for a southern national capital. He realized that the bill would bring financial relief to his home state but also believed that Carolinians would regret it in the future. "Nothing ever appeared more clear to me," he presciently observed on March 31, 1790, "than that posterity will be sorry for the assumption, that is in Carolina" (22). Both of these financial issues were indicative of his anxiety over the "self-interestedness of the Eastern States" (15).

Sprinkled throughout Butler's correspondence the reader finds references to the Indian problem. As a Carolinian, he primarily wrote concerning the Creeks. While he hoped for peace between whites and the Creeks, he firmly believed that peace would only come when Indians lived in fear of whites. "There will be no lasting peace with the Creeks," he wrote on November 22, 1792, "till we convince them we can flog them" (214).

Whether one was pro-French or not, American politicians closely followed the events of the French Revolution. Many hoped that republicanism would flourish in France as in the United States. Butler's continued references to France bears witness to his close attention to events there. He believed the French cause was just and prayed for their deliverance.

Senator Butler felt those entrusted with public office had a great responsibility to the citizenry. Not to work on behalf of the people was unconscionable. Life as a politician in the 1790s was much less glamorous than it is today and commonly came at great personal expense. Several times, Butler lamented the Senate's lack of progress and communicated his desire to return to private life unless the Senate passed noteworthy legislation. While this was partially a self-interested concern, Butler's willingness to give up his office demonstrated that voters could trust him.

In preparing this work, Lipscomb employed many other sources that complement Butler's letters, a total of over sixteen pages worth of primary sources. These documents place the contents of Butler's letters in their proper context. Rarely is the read-

er puzzled by a passage. The explanatory notes are useful and enlightening and demonstrate many hours of outside research. Additionally, the introduction—although a bit lengthy—helps the reader gain maximum benefit from the remainder of the text. This reviewer favors a topical arrangement of the letters rather than a chronological one. This, however, is a matter of personal preference and not a deficiency. This work is heavy on the first three years with much fewer letters for the last two, a matter of the survival of documents rather than a deletion by the editor.

A brief review cannot cover the many topics Butler addresses. Thanks to Lipscomb, readers also learn of Butler's unease over European events, his character, his sense of obligation and honor, and his esteem for those he loves—both friends and family. The polarization of American politics saddened Butler. He believed that Americans should respect John Adams for his contributions as a Founder, for example. Although Butler personally disagreed with Adams's politics, he was appalled at the non-Federalists who treated Adams disrespectfully. Most touching is Butler's grief over his wife's death. The reader senses Butler's grief and is filled with compassion as he reads these heart-rending letters.

Lipscomb has edited a volume that benefits history hobbyists as well as academics. These letters capture the outlook of a noteworthy—yet underutilized—Founder. The reader does not merely learn about Butler, but he gains insight into southerners, the gentry, non-Federalists, and the apprehensions—foreign and domestic, social and economic—Americans faced in this era. Readers see Butler as a husband, father, and friend as well as a senator, landholder, businessman, and civic leader. Lipscomb's presentations of Butler's letters describe not only an admirable man but also the nation in which he lived. This work is a fine addition to any library.

Rusty Bouseman

Oklahoma State University

The Metal Life Car: The Inventor, the Impostor, and the Business of Lifesaving. By George E. Buker. (Tuscaloosa: The University of Alabama Press, 2008. Acknowledgments, illustrations, notes, bibliography, index. Pp. 224. \$29.95 cloth.)

In "The Metal Life Car," George Buker recounts the ingenuity and struggles of Joseph Francis, inventor of the corrugated metal

boat. In the process, Buker also makes a significant contribution to the history of Florida's Seminole Wars. Francis, born in 1801, entered boatbuilding at an early age and focused his endeavors on manufacturing a better life boat. In the days before radar and electronic navigation, shipwrecks along the dangerous capes and shoals of the eastern seaboard were common and very often resulted in significant loss of life. One of the factors that made these wrecks so tragic was that many of the victims died within sight of land, their demise witnessed by anguished onlookers who had no way to cross the sandbars, reefs, or pounding surf to reach those who were stranded on the doomed vessels. Francis understood that one of the problems was the inability of wooden boats to withstand the pounding that often accompanied abandon-ship or rescue operations. He also realized that sturdy wooden boats tended to be very heavy, often too heavy to be handled effectively in rough seas or when a ship was grounded and listing far over or breaking apart. Francis's solution was to construct boats out of stamped sheets of iron or copper. His real breakthrough, however, was in the use of large hydraulic presses to form the plates and corrugate them, making the boats both light and strong. To a lesser degree, the book also tells the parallel story of the founding of the United States Live-Saving Service, a government agency instituted to help in the rescue of passengers and crews of shipwrecked vessels. The result of Joseph Francis's efforts to produce a better lifeboat culminated in the Metal Life Car, a totally enclosed boat that was used to carry survivors from ship to shore in conditions that would have been impossible for any other vessel. After telling the tale of how Francis's life boats came to be, the author goes into their many applications, from exploring the Dead Sea to use by the army in the Third Seminole War. He also gives details of their evolution into wagons and pontoon bridges and relates how bureaucratic problems excluded these valuable vessels from widespread use in the Civil War.

Any good story must have a villain, and Buker supplies him in the form of Capt. Douglass Ottinger of the United States Revenue Marine Service, the forerunner of the Coast Guard. Ottinger was one of the officers who helped found the Life-Saving Service, and when applying for a pension from Congress, Ottinger claimed he had invented the enclosed Metal Life Car, and that his vessel instead of Francis's had been used in one of the most celebrated rescues. The final portion of this interesting volume is devoted to

the legal battles between these two proud men, a confrontation often carried out in the halls of Congress.

If the book has a fault, it is in the lack of information that would have answered some inevitable questions. How extensive was the loss of life and property from shipwrecks in the early nineteenth century? A few statistics would have filled in the gaps, and some details concerning the most tragic losses would have drawn the reader more emotionally into the story. How did the Revenue Service and the Life-Saving Service evolve into the Coast Guard? A paragraph or two would have helped close the tale.

One of the book's major strong points initially appears to be a minor distraction. Many students of Florida history are familiar with Buker's *Swamp Sailors of the Second Seminole War* (University Press of Florida, 1997), the authoritative work on the role of the U.S. Navy in that tragic conflict. In *The Metal Life Car* two of the twelve chapters are devoted to the use of Francis's boats both before and during the Third Seminole War. Indeed, the author seems to spend more time on the causes, strategy, and campaigns of the war than in relating how Francis's boats were used in the conflict. While some readers may see this as an annoying distraction, we believe many will see these two chapters as a sequel to the excellent work done in *Swamp Sailors*. It isn't often we can recommend a book on maritime history to people who study the Indian Wars.

John Missall

Ft. Myers, Florida

Florida's Civil War: Explorations into Conflict, Interpretations and Memory. By Irvin D. S. Winsboro. (Cocoa, Fl: Florida Historical Society Press, 2007. Foreword, introduction, acknowledgements, map, epilogue. Pp. vi, 219. \$14.95 paper).

Zack Waters' statement that "Florida...had contributed much to the southern cause and had been consistently treated as the stepchild of the Confederacy" is the focal point of *Florida's Civil War: Explorations into Conflict, Interpretations, and Memory* (151). Most Civil War studies leave out Florida. Many texts, including the seminal work published by William Watson Davis in 1913, *The Civil War and Reconstruction in Florida*, give specifics of wins and losses, and detail the loss of real and personal property in Florida. Beyond this, Florida is largely overlooked, perhaps due to its small

population and geographic distance from major battles. Irvin D.S. Winsboro has compiled twelve articles from the archives of the *Florida Historical Quarterly* to demonstrate the importance of Florida's role within the larger view of the Civil War as well as the evolution of scholarship on Florida.

These selections show that in omitting Florida, Civil War historians have done an injustice to the historical record. A deeper understanding of the Civil War in Florida is necessary, and to this end Winsboro has selected works that demonstrate the impact events in Florida had upon the entire conflict. Each generation of Floridians since the close of the war has been affected by the event, in turn reshaping the state's culture and consciousness. In addressing the narrowly focused issue of Florida's role in the Civil War through well-selected articles such as Ella Lonn's "The Extent and Importance of Federal Naval Raids on Salt Making in Florida" and Tracy Revels' "Grander in Her Daughters: Florida's Women during the Civil War", this work contains original scholarship and critical shifts in the interpretation of the war.

Drawing upon writings spanning over ninety years of published Florida history, Winsboro elects to organize the articles in chronological order, packaging each of them in the order of their publication date. While this method helps in illustrating the shifts in thought prevalent among Florida historians, a thematic approach would have lent greater clarity and synthesis among the arguments. The compilation does successfully add needed depth to this topic by bringing under-analyzed aspects of the war to the forefront, evidenced in two poignant pieces discussing the oft-overlooked Battle of Olustee, and calling for Civil War historians to explore Florida's legacy to "The Cause." Providing scholarly views of overlooked historical topics, rather than conjectural recounting and interpretations of the Civil War in Florida, the information provided will be of special interest to scholars hoping to glean a fuller picture of America's great sectional crisis. Many of these articles center on groundbreaking new aspects of the conflict, such as Robert A. Taylor's discussion of food supplies in "Rebel Beef: Florida Cattle and the Confederate Army," and they add significantly to both the theoretical and practical discussions of both Florida history and Civil War history.

This work offers a portal to an expanded future historiography of Florida's involvement in the Civil War, and should impact the next generation's definition and redefinition of the struggle in the

southernmost Confederate state. Winsboro offers a valuable tool, which could be used in the high school or college classroom. Educators will put the innovative perspectives offered within this work to great use, further developing the knowledge of how the Civil War affected this region directly, and how this region directly affected the Civil War. Aficionados, scholars and laypersons should be able to overcome the limitations imposed by its composition of dissimilar essays to find that the book gives them reason to reconsider and expand their conceptions of regional history.

The twelve articles expand our understanding of Florida's Civil War legacy by pushing Florida-specific history to the forefront and encouraging a re-evaluation of the interdependent structure of the South. Weaving the theme of Florida's vital importance to the Confederate war effort throughout the book, the authors show that Florida beef and fish kept the Rebel army provisioned; Florida troops gallantly fought and defended Richmond itself against the strong Union armies; and Florida actions forced the Union army occupy large stretches of territory and the Union Navy to blockade and destroy profitable salt operations on the coasts.

Like many compilations of this sort, the articles, while linked by the common theme of Civil War and Florida history, do not always fit together. Some arguments are stronger than others, and the book presents an unbalanced glimpse into a hidden historiography. Early popular observations on the region are presented Sarah L. Jones' diary excerpt titled "Governor Milton and Family: A Contemporary Picture of Life in Florida During the War, by an English Tutor," and revisionist opinions are captured in "Deprivation, Disaffection, and Desertion in Confederate Florida" by John E. Reiger. The organizational clarity lacking in this work is unintentionally representative of the ambiguity that characterizes Florida historiography. The beginning of the century saw the *Florida Historical Quarterly* publishing military and political commentary in a narrative form. By the turn of the next century, discussion had evolved into scholarly, professional social-cultural history. Winsboro brings this transformation to light in a well presented anthology delivering upon its promise; that the next generation of Floridians will re-evaluate the state's history and role during the Civil War. That generation will find this book a useful tool to draw upon when attempting to deliver their charge.

Daniel R. Lewis

University of Central Florida

Fenians, Freedmen, and Southern Whites: Race and Nationality in the Era of Reconstruction. By Mitchell Snay (Baton Rouge: Louisiana State University Press, 2007. Acknowledgments, introduction, illustrations, bibliography, index. Pp ix, 218. \$40 Cloth.)

Mitchell Snay attempts to reexamine the tumultuous period of Reconstruction in terms of nationalism. In particular, he tries to figure out if European-style ethnic nationalism played any role in the events of the era. To achieve this, he examines three “minority” groups, Irish Americans, African Americans, and southern whites. Each one had a heightened sense of identity after the War and all three, but particularly southern whites and blacks, saw themselves on the margins of Reconstruction politics dominated by northern white Republicans and sought to change that status. As a result, Snay concludes, the Reconstruction era “was not so much a question of home rule but who should rule at home” (176).

Snay begins by trying to place these three groups in the context of Reconstruction politics. The massive post-War changes in legal status, race and class relations etc., made it extremely difficult for a group such as Irish-American nationalists to separate their cause from the dominant political narrative. The Fenian Brotherhood, for example, a mass organization of Irish-Americans dedicated to the violent overthrow of British rule in Ireland, tried to separate Irish causes from American ones, but the leadership found it impossible to do so. Having set the Reconstruction scene Snay looks for commonalities in the structures of the three groups, focusing on the Union League representing African Americans, the Ku Klux Klan for southern whites, and the aforementioned Fenian Brotherhood for Irish Americans. He analyzes their organizational and political activities in a chapter entitled: “The Political Culture of Countersubversion.” This title is apt because he finds similarities in their secretive nature (although the Fenians were fairly open in America and thus riddled with paid British informers), their organizational structures, and in their rhetoric extolling a glorious past and a promising future. He makes a strong case for the ideological significance of both the Klan and the Fenians, who are often dismissed in the scholarship as merely a group of violent thugs in the Klan’s case, or quixotic romantics in the case of the Fenians. For the Union League, which scholars have long recognized as politically significant, Snay takes the oppo-

site tack and acknowledges the often militant and military nature of that organization.

Accepting Eric Foner's charge that scholars of Reconstruction take class seriously in their analysis, Snay devotes a chapter to the subject. He usefully focuses on how land, and who controlled it, comprised a major element of southern white and black identity. It was also rapidly becoming one in Irish identity, which resulted in the formation of the Irish Land League in 1879. This date, however, shows that in the late 1860s and early 1870s, land reform was not central to Fenian ideology. Although most members had been Irish tenant farmers or their sons, the movement's leadership still focused on a political nationalism. Indeed, only John Mitchel, who had been a leader of the "Young Ireland" rebellion of 1848 and an ardent Confederate endorsed a economic nationalism.

Moving from class to ethnicity, Snay finds, to his surprise, "the relative weakness of ethnic nationalism" during Reconstruction. Although many Union leagues contained white members, he, nonetheless, believes, they offered the best chance of a viable ethnic nationalism. The leagues became synonymous with black political activity and some white opponents even accused them of trying to ignite a "race war" (122). Despite their encouragement of a black political identity, however, Snay shows how African-American leaders refused to endorse a racial separatism as the solution to their problems. On the contrary, for the most part, they remained married to the idea of biracial society. Somewhat ironically, it was white southerners who "came closest to achieving some semblance of ethnic nationalism during Reconstruction," but they too eventually rejected it (131). The racism often central to their opposition to Radical rule, as well as efforts to attract immigrant white labor to replace blacks, indicate an attempt to truly make the South a "white man's country." But, Snay notes, most whites accepted that blacks could not be removed from the South and the region would have to remain a biracial one, although with white supremacy at its center. The Fenians also embraced a certain universal type of nationalism rather than just an explicit Irish one, expressing support for causes of national independence beyond Ireland.

Having rejected class and ethnicity, Snay finds that the most common expression of nationalism during Reconstruction was a civic one. The roots of this strong civic nationalism lay in the outburst of patriotism during the Civil War. This patriotism led to a more active

central state, a state that eventually organized a massive and unprecedented war effort and freed the slaves. This civic nationalism linked to emancipation was very attractive to African Americans. They adopted all the icons of the United States; the flag, the Fourth of July, etc., and most importantly the American republican system. In particular, African Americans embraced the franchise granted to them under the Fourteenth and Fifteenth amendments. Southern opponents of Reconstruction, in turn, replied in civic terms. They saw the Fourth as a symbol of their own impotence in the post-Civil War South with one commentator calling for "the sack cloth of humiliation" (146) to be worn on the national holiday. They also complained of the disfranchisement of former Confederates. These whites, however, eventually accepted the republican system mixed with targeted violence as the way to "redemption" from Radical rule. The Fenians also endorsed some of the republican ideals of the United States as a role model for how to run an independent Ireland. They also claimed the benefits of American citizenship when arrested by the British in Ireland or Canada. In conclusion, Snay believes that "the normative nationalism represented by the Republican Party thus channeled separatist impulses along the lines of civic nationalism while discouraging them along ethnic lines" (170).

Snay has produced a provocative and innovative book. His examination of Reconstruction through the milieu of nineteenth-century nationalism is valuable. His comparative use of Irish and American nationalism helps him in that task. As a result, he places the Reconstruction story in a much broader context and tries to move us away from American exceptionalism. Despite this increased contextualising, however, Snay ultimately comes down on the side of Reconstruction being a unique American story. His emphasis on civic nationalism leads him in this direction. He, however, dismisses ethnic/racial nationalism too easily. Racial solidarity rather than true faith in the American system is what united white opposition to Reconstruction. This opposition succeeded because many in the North, including strong Unionists, embraced the racism implicit and explicit in the redeemer cause. Use of Ed Blum's work *Reforging the White Republic: Race Religion and American Nationalism, 1865-1890* (Baton Rouge: Louisiana State University Press, 2005), would have been instructive here.

Similarly, his belief in Irish Americans' embrace of civic nationalism is too strong. He relies heavily on Michael Scanlon, editor of the *Irish Republic* in Chicago. Scanlon was a rare com-

modity in post-Civil America, a devout Irish-American Republican. Most Irish Americans opposed Radical Reconstruction seeing it as akin to British rule in Ireland. Snay does recognize the virulent Republican opponent John Mitchel as "influential" but he was more than that. He became part of the pantheon of nineteenth-century Irish nationalism getting himself elected and reelected as M. P. for County Tipperary in 1875 despite being declared a felon by Parliament. He remained a hero of Irish nationalists into the twentieth century and was seen as one of the intellectual founders of the movement, which scholars are increasingly recognizing as very racial in nature. Nonetheless, despite this criticism, Snay is to be commended for exploring nationality in Reconstruction and for providing scholars with a new angle in which to look profitably at an old topic.

David T. Gleeson

College of Charleston

Florida's Big Dig: The Atlantic Intracoastal Waterway from Jacksonville to Miami, 1881-1935. By William G. Crawford, Jr. (Cocoa, FL: Florida Historical Society Press, 2006. Acknowledgements, illustrations, notes, index. Pp. xxiii, 371. \$34.95 cloth, \$29.95 paper.)

Today, the Intracoastal Waterway is as much a part of Florida as the Everglades and Disney World. As pleasure boats ply this protected passage along the state's east coast, few give any thought to the long and difficult process of its construction and development. Those with some knowledge of Florida history recognize the importance of Henry Flagler, through his building of the Florida East Coast Railway, to the establishment of modern Florida in the years surrounding the turn of the 20th century. In this book, William Crawford makes a convincing case that the almost forgotten developers of the Intracoastal Waterway, through their Florida Coast Line Canal and Transportation Company, deserve a place next to Flagler as important figures in turning Florida from an isolated backwater frontier to a vacation paradise and a state with a population of over 18 million people.

Crawford's tale is a well-documented narrative of the waterway from its inception in the 1880s until its takeover by the federal government in 1929. The author spends little time on the social context of this enterprise; instead he crafts a composite biography of the

entrepreneurs who saw the building of this waterway as “the greatest enterprise of the day” (19). Gilded Age Florida was a state with little economic growth and few sources of capital to stimulate the moribund economy. But it did possess hundreds of thousands of acres of uninhabited land, much of it labeled as “swampland,” which the state would grant or mortgage or sell to northern capitalists in exchange for promises of future development. Historians are still debating whether these individuals were visionaries or exploiters, or some combination of both, but they were crucial in providing economic opportunity to Florida. Among them were the New Englanders associated with the Florida Coast Line Canal and Transportation Company. Crawford goes into voluminous, at times mind-numbing, detail about the personal and financial lives of these individuals, but he remains right on target as he fills in the missing pieces of the tangled web of relationships between them and influential Florida lawyers, businessmen, and government officials. Without government backing, the waterway enterprise would never have achieved any measure of success. Company officials remained amazingly adept at convincing state officials that completion of dredging and digging was right around the corner and the granting of more state land was essential to the finalization of the project. Crawford is especially good at pointing out the close, almost incestuous, relationships, between government and private business—there certainly was no clearly delineated line between public interest and private gain, as in the case of Pleasants White, a canal company lawyer and former Florida judge and Commissioner of Lands and Immigration.

Like Flagler’s railroad, the canal project was as much a land company as a transportation network. Assuming the waterway would provide access to lands in central and southern Florida, company owners and investors spent much of their time in the selling of property granted to them by the state. Under the auspices of the Boston and Atlantic Coast Land Company (owned and operated by canal backers), thousands of acres of land from Titusville to Miami were offered in small parcels to farmers and potential homeowners. This acreage, of course, would only have value if it were linked to northern markets. These connections would be made by either Flagler’s railroad or the waterway itself, as the enterprises competed in their quest to develop southeast Florida. In 1910 and 1912, Flagler went to court in Florida and sued the canal company over disputed lands granted by the state. A year later, both suits were dismissed, but the company had to turn over

20,000 acres to Flagler's railroad. "In the final analysis," Crawford concludes, "competition between the two enterprises lowered land prices and transportation charges for newly arriving settlers all along the Florida east coast" (342).

While opportunities for land development certainly enticed investors in the canal company, the construction of the project remained paramount to the ultimate goal of a profit-making connected waterway between Jacksonville and Miami. Company officials consistently underestimated the time, effort, and expense necessary to complete the Intracoastal. Though it appears today as a seamless, continuous, almost natural "river," it took much digging, dredging, and re-shaping of the land to complete the project. Especially difficult was establishing the 30-mile connection between the Halifax and Matanzas River, from St. Augustine to Ormond Beach. Originally planned to take less than five years, this part of the project took over 30 years and finally was completed in 1913. This timing was propitious, as the nation was overtaken with a second bout of "canal fever" in the 1910s (the first occurring in the 1820s with the completion of the Erie Canal). National experts saw cheap water transportation as an alternative to the monopolistic practices of railroads and organized in groups like the Atlantic Deeper Waterways Association to encourage the continued development of rivers and canals. With this support, the project was finally opened as a toll waterway in 1913. Little profit was realized and, almost immediately, company officers and state officials pushed for a federal takeover. After years of bureaucratic wrangling and contentious litigation, the Army Corps of Engineers assumed control in 1929 and made the waterway a free route. It remains in that capacity today.

This is an important and under-examined topic of Florida history. Crawford is to be commended for his diligent and comprehensive research, especially examining the arcane real estate transactions between the company, investors, banks, and the state of Florida. At times, however, he becomes entangled in the complex webs of business dealings and loses sight of the big picture of the importance of this project to the development of Florida. More judicious editing would have caught many of these indulgences and given the book a tighter, and stronger, focus. That said, this work is the starting point for anyone interested in the story behind the Atlantic Intracoastal Waterway.

Steven Noll

University of Florida

If It Takes All Summer: Martin Luther King, the KKK, and States' Rights in St. Augustine, 1964. By Dan Warren, Foreword by Morris Dees. (Tuscaloosa: University of Alabama Press, 2008. Foreword, acknowledgments, introduction, notes, index, photographs; Pp. ix, 210. \$29.95 cloth.)

St. Augustine, Florida, was a dangerous city in the summer of 1964. I know: as an adolescent, I visited there with my family, including my father, who was a *New York Times* correspondent covering the civil rights demonstrations and their bloody aftermath. I recall the terrifying experience in "Battle for St. Augustine 1964: Public Record and Personal Recollection" (*Florida Historical Quarterly* Spring 2006). To provide context for the article, I relied heavily upon *Racial Change and Community Crisis: St. Augustine, Florida, 1877-1980* (1985) by David Colburn. In *If It Takes All Summer*, Dan Warren also cites Colburn; however, Warren's book is the first to concentrate solely on St. Augustine 1964. Also, Warren provides a unique insider's perspective—that of a state attorney at the time, a white southerner "morally inoculated" against "the virus of racism" (140) by his parents' teaching of tolerance, and his education at Quaker-founded Guilford College. Though much of the book's information is not new, Warren's observations and personal reflections make it a compelling read and, as Morris Dees states in the foreword, "an important addition to the historical record of the [civil rights] movement."

Warren breaks his well-written and compelling memoir into nine chapters, which follow his book's subtitle in concentrating on the characters in this drama: Martin Luther King, the Ku Klux Klan, and those taunting states' rights. "It takes all summer" is a quote from King, revealing his determination to break the segregationists' hold on St. Augustine that summer of 1964. Warren begins by establishing the backdrop for the racial tension there: a highly segregated city whose city leaders were intent on excluding blacks, one quarter of the city's population, as they made preparations for the 1965 quadricentennial celebration of the founding of St. Augustine, the nation's oldest continuously occupied city. In contrast, Warren points out, the leaders in neighboring counties made inroads into creating a dialogue between the races and breaking down racial barriers. Symbolic of the intractability of the white establishment in St. Augustine was the *St. Augustine Record*, the city's segregationist newspaper, whose articles Warren com-

pares to the more moderate and more accurate *Daytona Beach News-Journal*, which Warren frequently cites as a cross reference to his own recollections.

After setting up the background of the exclusion of the black community that fueled black protest and in turn ignited nightly acts of violence by the Klan, Warren details his own involvement in the struggle. He explains his "Birth of a Social Conscience" (the title of the third chapter), how he became such a progressive southerner and an important player in 1964. He grew up in Greensboro, North Carolina, and did not challenge racial segregation until he attended Guilford College, where he learned to question the status quo. In 1961 after completing law school and opening a private practice in Daytona Beach, Florida, Warren at thirty-six was appointed by Governor Bryant as state attorney of the large Seventh Judicial Court. When matters reached a boiling point in St. Augustine, in June 1964, Bryant named Warren as his personal representative to deal with the crisis. Warren proceeded to take immediate action toward establishing a St. Augustine bi-racial committee, one of King's demands. Warren believed that one of his duties was to protect demonstrators, including the Klan, whom he documents were rarely peaceful. Due to threats from Klan members, Warren was so frightened for his safety and that of his family that he carried a gun in his car. Ultimately, he acted as a middleman in negotiations with both Martin Luther King and Hoss Manucy, a St. Augustine pig farmer who led the local Klan that ultimately terrorized and took over the city.

As state attorney, Warren, not surprisingly, details the conflict between dictates of a federal judge vs. executive orders from the governor on the subject of night-time marches by civil right demonstrators. The chapter "State Versus Federal Control" at first gets a bit bogged down in the legal process for the lay reader but does clarify the importance of the states' rights argument and also includes fascinating description of the behind-the-scenes success of infiltration of the Klan. Warren's emphasis remains with the local scene, of which he had first-hand knowledge, but he does admit that he "had failed to understand or even consider the national implications of King's movement" (120) and thought that the events in St. Augustine were only of local importance. Only later did he realize that, actually, the city was a microcosm of the conditions throughout the segregated South and that King was thinking beyond Florida to the Civil Rights Act of 1964, which

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mandated integration of all public establishments and prohibited segregation in public schools. Only in hindsight did Warren understand the “dimension” and “wisdom” in King’s statement, “I want out of St. Augustine, but I must come out with honor” (174). Warren says, “There wasn’t much honor for anyone in St. Augustine, but there is no question in my mind that King came out a winner and with honor” (174-5). Some of the most intriguing parts of the book are Warren’s honest reflections four decades after the events as he juxtaposes the past and the present.

Warren highlights the important role of the everyday heroes who put themselves in harm’s way during the summer of 1964, such as Robert Hayling, a local black dentist, whose activism resulted in Klan beatings, and George Allen, a white reporter at the *Daytona Beach News-Journal*, who wrote a series of articles that “revealed to his readers the story behind the headlines” (157). Others did not act so courageously, according to Warren: St. Augustine’s elected officials, businessmen, and local white clergy were often silent, guilty of an “absence of authority” (177).

Warren concludes with the chapter “Reckrimination and Recovery,” where he discusses his February 1965 speech to Boston College of Law and School of Theology on the theme of the “moral dilemma of a southern prosecutor during times of racial crisis” (176). In this act of speaking up, Warren begins the process that he continues by writing his memoir: providing context and insight into a tumultuous, and ultimately very significant, year in Florida history.

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Telling Histories: Black Women Historians in the Ivory Tower. Deborah Gray White, ed. (Chapel Hill: University of North Carolina Press, 2008). Pp. 305. Acknowledgements, introduction, notes, contributors. \$21.95 cloth.

Black women’s graduate school attendance, faculty participation, and published scholarship have increased significantly since the 1980s. *Telling Histories: Black Women Historians in the Ivory Tower* offers personalized insights from seventeen women who have been central to the growth of this knowledge base. Sharing stories that are deeply personal, theoretically intriguing, and powerfully political, these authors illuminate how, first as graduate students and

then as professional historians, they navigated institutions of higher education, a world mainly concerned with and dominated by whites and men. Organized by the years contributors earned their PhDs, the contribution is multi-generational, acknowledging distinguished professors who built the "infrastructure" of Black women's history (77, 151).

The contributors (in alphabetical order) are Mia Bay, Elsa Barkley Brown, Leslie Brown, Crystal N. Feimster, Sharon Harley, Wanda A. Hendricks, Darlene Clark Hine, Chana Kai Lee, Jennifer L. Morgan, Nell Irvin Painter, Merline Pitre, Barbara Ransby, Julie Saville, Brenda Elaine Stevenson, Ula Taylor, Rosalyn Terborg-Penn, Deborah Gray White. The chapters represent chronological bookends: Painter was the first of this group to earn the degree and in turn mentored Feimster, the final chapter contributor, at Princeton. Whether at Howard, Harvard, or Berkeley, Duke or Yale, these women have survived professionally, in part, because they are affiliated with elite institutions.

Though the overarching story represents Black women as a group, rich contrasts exist in research interest, essay style, and identity characteristics revealed. Dissertation foci include biography (Frederick Douglass, Ella Baker, Amy Jaques Garvey, Fannie Lou Hamer), geographical studies (Washington, DC, Durham, NC, Indiana, Texas, North Carolina, Kansas migration, Virginia), social/political topics (suffrage, labor, race ideologies, enslaved women, and lynching), or some combination of black women in a particular space, movement, and time. The books and journal articles subsequently published extended the original dissertation contributions to compile a cornerstone bibliographic reference to major works in the foundation of the field. There are also personal differences between women, where African American woman often means southern or urban, it means also interracial, lesbian, or immigrant. Discussions take place, about hair texture or skin color for example, that simply do not occur in any depth from scholars who have no experiential connection to black families and communities. While these scholars often operate outside of the mainstream discipline of U.S. history, these are insider perspectives of black history.

Some essays detail thought processes behind directions in research; some open doors into the wave of emotions behind why fabled strong black women are reluctant to "cry wet tears" or admit being frail and dejected by the strain of academe (99, 173). Some

authors were mentored by heavy hitters like John Hope Franklin, August Meier, and John Blassingame; yet one of the main observations is the lack of black women faculty mentors to help offer perspectives of both race and gender dynamics. Often they experienced being the only black student, woman, or black faculty in a department but as the book unfolds, we witness the emergence of a body of role models for the next generation.

For these women, the sacrifice of training for a PhD entailed ignoring family pressures to do something more “productive,” and constantly having to defend their work from attack because it de-centered white male structural approaches to history. There was also the demand to prove their worth to those who believed they were undeserving affirmative action hires (73, 152, 156, 161). Even within black history circles, it was necessary to legitimate a focus on women, which some considered “Mickey Mouse” scholarship (51, 77, 94, 152, 194). Though some experienced measured encouragement, most had to fight inside and outside of the job. Many authors represent the “desegregation generation” (60, 73, 137, 158, 253) and having overcome systemic barriers, were then told they were “womanish” or “arrogant” when they insisted on doing their work their way (167, 255).

In *Telling Histories*, authors also show how students often denigrate black women professors to first name basis when other professors are addressed as “Professor X or Professor Y” signaling an almost universal understanding that black women professionals are not as qualified as their peers and deserve less respect. One student felt empowered to scrawl on a public wall “I hate professor so-and-so, she is a stupid liberal bitch” (144). Students in survey classes challenge professors in overt ways boldly questioning authenticity, facts, or judgment, present especially inappropriate attacks on course evaluations or, on the other spectrum, become enamored with the professor as a confidant, only to seek personal counseling instead of academic advising (154-55).

Publishing has offered unique barriers. Investigation, construction, and interpretation of history is a matter of perspective. How historians have approached the relationship of Thomas Jefferson and Sally Hemings offers a prime example. Initially some esteemed historians refused to admit any relationship between the two and when DNA evidence was presented, the some mainstream historians attempted to characterize the relationship as a “romance” and go so far as to comment that Hemings was “barely

a slave" (197). The women in this volume offer U.S. history alternative interpretations by establishing a body of work focused on black women.

Black women's work does not garner adequate professional citation or acknowledgement (141). "Peer review" for professional journals is sometimes based on racist and sexist opinions of perceived readers' interest and lack of diversity on review boards (or a token few) translates into what I have called "extraordinary scrutiny" for black women's work (11, 97, 165, 195). Access to sabbatical, admittance to archives and historical societies, conference invites, distinguished professorships, and fellowship or grant awards are also prohibitive, discriminatory, and exclusive areas for these authors (156-57). To move beyond these exclusions, most authors mentioned two organizations that have been essential to their networking abilities: the Association for the Study of African American Life and History (ASALH) and the Association of Black Women Historians (ABWH). Visibility and agency are strong themes, as are vindication and professional autonomy.

Barriers to becoming a tenured full professor include marriage, motherhood, family care taking responsibilities, campus service or administrative duties, race uplift efforts, and community activism (4, 62, 117-18, 162, 175). In some cases health issues played a significant role. A stroke (of which one author's colleagues doubted the severity and demanded her immediate return to work), loss of a close relative (being orphaned young or in one case losing a father and a sister on the same day), or a miscarriage (or multiple miscarriages) impacted professional development. Dealing with human tragedy is hard enough without oppressive attitudes and behaviors at work. These stories closely resemble past memoirs and autobiographical reflections by historic black women scholars like Fanny Jackson Coppin, Mary Church Terrell, Zora Neale Hurston, Rose Butler Browne, Lena Morton, and Pauli Murray. Some seem to tell this personal side with reluctance, anger, frustration, and some also with relief—as if to lay a burden down.

Though countless affronts plague Black women regularly, this book is not simply a log of grievances. The detailed accounts offer theoretical alternatives to top-down approaches to historical scholarship. In particular, authors challenge the longstanding "objective" approach in favor of intimately identifying with their work as "relational and contradictory, defined more by historical process of interaction and encounter than by actualization of preformu-

lated, individual tendencies" (135). These authors represent scholarship of connection rather than scholarship of abstraction. Most importantly, there are a range of historiographical approaches and a spectrum of insights specifically regarding black women's formal and informal intellectual history (195).

Campus climates in the South did not allow black students to enroll until the 1960s, making academic paradigm shifts a continuing struggle, so it is not surprising that only three of the seventeen women earned their graduate degrees in the South. To bring the topic close to home, Florida hosts few black women historians. A survey of the Florida State University System history department website faculty listings shows that out of approximately two hundred twenty-one history faculty listed in the state, only six Black women historians or those *explicitly* studying Black women's history are present. These numbers show that in Florida, as on the national level, "could-be" black women historians, experience a "gulf between exceptional qualifications and muted professional opportunities" (1).

Telling Histories is dedicated to Anna Julia Cooper and Marion Thompson Wright, the first two black women to earn the doctorate in history (Cooper in 1925 and Wright in 1941), neither of whom were afforded formal positions as esteemed professors of history. The book also appears to be dedicated to numerous contemporary black women scholars who labor in obscurity with low pay, no prestige, and little time to hone their craft. This book argues for a change in the intellectual landscape; perhaps the next generation of scholars will be allowed to contribute to the discipline in a manner fitting their capacity. In addition, a disciplinary comparison might be of interest: a new edited volume of black women law professors, *Outsider Within: Black Women in the Legal Academy after Brown v. Board*, could allow stunning contrast and confirmation of these perspectives.

There should be multiple audiences for this text. It is written in a straightforward manner and published at a paperback price, so it will be easily accessible for undergraduate courses as well as for popular audiences. However, ample theoretical and methodological questions are raised and answered in the work making it valuable for graduate student training as well. Though the format is descriptive, authors provide analysis about evolution in trends of scholarship and lessons in historiography valuable to historians at all professional stages.

Stephanie Y. Evans

University of Florida

Southern Comforts: Rooted in a Florida Place. By Sudye Cauthen. (Santa Fe, NM: The Center for American Places, 2007. Preface, illustrations, maps, notes, glossary, index. Pp. xvii, 194. \$29.95 cloth.)

Memoirs of place often tend to trade on a sense of nostalgia, loss, change, and regret. The place is always one diminished in some way, in comparison with its past. The tone of Sudye Cauthen's *Southern Comforts* is refreshingly more complex than that. As one might expect in a good memoir, the author comes to understand her place, including its contradictions and hidden aspects, as the book develops. The loss of place she inevitably documents is ultimately the occasion for freedom rather than regret, as she finds ways to incorporate what was, both the good and bad, with what is, both the good and bad. And her Uncle Orion's answer to her question "is this all there is?" could serve as epigraph to the quest at the core of the book: "Oh, Hon-eee, you in this with the rest of us" (156).

Cauthen's memoir is about Alachua, both the county and the town. The book is organized into two major parts, one focusing on the countryside and the other on the town, and a third briefer part that revisits the changed place today. The two major parts can be seen as relating in several ways – a move from the wider rural area to the narrower "urban" area; a move in time, from an account of the layers of meaning of the land to a more conscious perspective brought by the distance of the author in later years; and, a move from the construction of a set of primary documents of the author's past, having the feel of immediacy, to a more aware account of the social factors that made the place what it is. Race, for instance, plays only an implicit role in the first part, but is explicit (indeed, central) in the second. In the first part, Letha DeCoursey tells stories of raising kids and making do as the granddaughter of emancipated slaves; in the second part, the stories Letha's sister Rebecca and others tell about injustice and marginalization serve to highlight the racial divide that lingers and is inscribed on the town's geography.

So, what kind of a place is Cauthen's Alachua? It is a place of back roads, and the people who choose to live on them. Culture bends to nature, rather than dominating it. She compresses a long history in well written scenes that draw connections over time (I kept thinking of John Hanson Mitchell's *Ceremonial Time*, which

charts one square mile, "Scratch Flat," over 15,000 years of history). Cauthen both sketches the activities of ordinary people and also shows how those activities change over time and evolve into new ways. But, for Cauthen, what ties all this together is the question of why she keeps being drawn back to a place which, consciously, she has tried to leave for decades.

Cauthen's self-questioning moves *Southern Comforts* out of straight memoir and toward something else. The dust jacket pegs that "something else" as social analysis, and one reviewer quoted on the back calls it "history and wisdom." As the alternate focus to memoir, neither of these feels quite right. The sensibility shares more with nature writing than it does with anything as systematic as social analysis; Cauthen allows the familiarity of her home ground to become unfamiliar, both through her physical distance from the place throughout her life and the reflective distance evidenced as we move through the book, and she also allows the unfamiliarity of that little old place to become familiar, through narratives which create compelling characters and, more important, which create a place that is not so much lost in the past as it is woven into her life.

One strength of this book is that the picture of Alachua becomes a layered and complex one. While there may have been good old days, we get a sense of struggle and pain right from the beginning. While there is loss over time—"Being back in Alachua is like that, like watching a loved relative die, bit by bit" (9)—there is also realization. The loss of place, like the loss of the many relatives Cauthen chronicles, is never just personal tragedy, but is always the occasion for recognizing another layer of meaning that those who live in a place intuitively feel. The kind of people introduced in the first half as just characters in a reminiscence raise questions in the second half about what it means to be from a place and who gets to define what that place means. While there are elements of oral history and personal memory in this book, it should be taken first as creative non-fiction, in the sense that the craft of writing and the attention to structure are what makes the points here, rather than any deliberate sense of argument.

And so, what does this work contribute to the historical project, and has Cauthen succeeded in making us care about this place? Clearly, the more one is familiar with Alachua, the more resonant the writing will be. But *Southern Comforts* simultaneously evokes a complex Florida that is neither just a place of regret nor

of desire. By the final part of the book, there is certainly regret, as the Alachua of back roads has given way to restaurants and stores. Cauthen's home, both literally and figuratively, has become a memory—her house was moved and became “Angel Gardens Café” and Alachua town itself is unrecognizable. But there is also hope—she has to chasten herself for thinking negatively, and is glad that “the 1980s face of Alachua with its boarded-up buildings and small thinking appears to have been replaced by so handsome and striking a visage” (151-2).

Cauthen's Alachua might have been reduced to an elegy, and that would have been the easy story. Instead, she gives us a good example of how creative work can provide a historically rich view of a place.

Bruce B. Janz

University of Central Florida

Beach Racers: Daytona Before NASCAR. By Dick Punnett. (Gainesville: University Press of Florida, 2008. Pp. 168. Acknowledgments, introduction, prologue, epilogue, photographs, appendix, bibliography, index. \$25.00 paper.)

In 1997 Dick Punnett, with the assistance of Yvonne Punnett, released *Racing on the Rim: A History of the Annual Automobile Racing Tournaments Held on the Sands of the Ormond-Daytona Beach, Florida, 1903–1910*. The Punnetts published the book through their own Tomoka Press in Ormond Beach. The University Press of Florida has now re-released the book, virtually unaltered, as *Beach Racers: Daytona Before NASCAR*. Though the original edition is still available (according to the Global Books in Print database), the new version makes conveniently accessible this valuable and interesting work.

Automobile racing in Florida grew out of the state's tourism industry. In December 1902 C. W. Birchwood, a tourist who brought a car to the Ormond-Daytona beach as early as 1900, published an article in *Automobile Magazine* touting Florida and the Ormond-Daytona beach as a good spot for a wintertime automobile racing meet. Another tourist and retiree took up the cause in early 1903 and published similar articles in several publications around the country. It was *Automobile Magazine* that took the initiative, though. It sent one of its correspondents, “Senator” William J. Morgan, to Florida to arrange a meet. It took place March 26–28,

1903, and each winter through 1910 likewise featured a series of races and time trials on the beach, usually under Morgan's management.

The racing meets comprised a wide variety of events. Initially racers focused on time trials, trying to lower the time needed to cover one mile, five miles, ten miles, and so on. The long expanses of hard sand made the beach the ideal place for flat-out speed runs by both automobiles and motorcycles. By 1908 the format had shifted to emphasize distance racing. Short bursts of speed by steam-powered cars or massive vehicles designed especially for brief sprints would no longer grab all the headlines. The highlight of that year was a 300-mile race won at a record-setting pace by Emanuel Cedrino. In fact, records of one sort or another fell virtually every year, and an appendix explains these records in detail. The gatherings waned as the sport of racing evolved toward closed circuits, such as the one that debuted at Indianapolis in 1909.

The historic racing tournaments in Florida took place due to the interest of two groups of men: northern sportsmen who could afford to ship racing machines and the latest stock models to Florida and budding industrialists looking to test their latest creations. Men such as William K. Vanderbilt Jr., Alfred G. Vanderbilt, David Bruce-Brown, and Hugh de Laussat Willoughby pursued automobile racing for the thrill of it. But not all racers were wealthy amateurs. The meets also included a who's who of the pioneers of automobile design and manufacturing. Americans Henry Ford, Louis Chevrolet, Ray Harroun, and J. Walter Christie piloted cars, as did Italy's Vincenzo Lancia. Other manufacturers, such as Ransom E. Olds and the twin brothers F. E. and F. O. Stanley, put their cars into competition with hired drivers at the wheel. Early aviation industrialist Glenn H. Curtiss, who was first a motorcycle maker, drove his motorcycles in races and time trials on the beach, while Guy Vaughan, future president of the Curtiss-Wright Corporation, raced a Darracq car in 1906. Of course, some drivers took the events more seriously than others did. In 1906 Ralph Owen, driving an Oldsmobile, competed in a 100-mile race while accompanied by two women as passengers.

Punnett aims this book squarely at a general audience. There are no footnotes (though there is an informative bibliography), and the writing is crisp and the stories well told. He

organizes the narrative around the annual events, with a chapter devoted to each year. Scattered throughout the text are a plethora of informative sidebars, historical vignettes, and personality profiles that enrich the basic year-by-year layout. Perhaps most interesting, though, are the well-chosen photographs that bring to life these men and, more important, their fabulous machines. The great variety within early automotive design comes to light here, and one senses the excitement that must have greeted the arrival each year of these fast, loud vehicles and their goggle-bedecked chauffeurs. Photographs of the remains of spectacular crashes remind one too of the dangers these men faced.

Professional historians are not the readers for whom this book is intended, but they will nonetheless turn up rich material for analysis if they are interested in the development of the tourist industry, automobile racing, or automotive technology. And professionals and laypersons alike will find plenty of fine racing tales in this labor of love by Dick Punnett.

Randal L. Hall

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The Rise and Fall of Dodgertown: 60 Years of Baseball in Vero Beach.

By Rody Johnson. (Gainesville: University Press of Florida, 2008. Pp. 312. Preface, acknowledgements, afterword, photographs, bibliographic essay, references, index. \$24.95 cloth.)

In the preface to this often absorbing saga about one of Florida's oldest and most revered training sites, Rody Johnson shares a warm personal detail. As a teenager in 1948 when Dodgertown first opened, "Branch Rickey helped me pick out a catcher's mitt in my father's sporting goods store" (xi). It had long been a dream of the legendary baseball executive to find a college-like center where the hundreds of his minor and major leaguers could learn the game properly. When Rickey learned that a World War II naval training base was available in Vero Beach, he made fast friends with Bud Holman, a local aviation executive and member of the board of Eastern Airlines. "My dad didn't know first base from second base," Bud's son Bump, who later became the pilot of the Dodger team plane, told Johnson, "but he got on an Eastern flight out of Vero to New York" to meet Rickey in Brooklyn (9). What resulted soon thereafter was an

unusual arrangement in which the Dodgers would pay the city of Vero Beach a rental fee of only one dollar a year for use of the base's facilities, but agreed to pay for improvements to the housing and playing fields and to donate the proceeds from one exhibition game to the city's airport fund.

How appropriate it was that in the first exhibition game played by the Dodgers in Vero Beach in 1948 Jackie Robinson, fresh off his sensational 1947 Rookie of the Year season, hit Brooklyn's first home run. Locally, segregation was still in full flower, and drawing on an unpublished manuscript by sportswriter Joe Hendrickson who covered many Dodgertown spring trainings, Johnson adds revealing detail to the pressures, inconveniences and lingering threats faced by Robinson, pitcher Don Newcombe and other pioneering Brooklyn black players.

In bringing back to life Bud and Bump Holman, Johnson has done another good deed for history. Bud Holman may not have known much about baseball when he got involved with Dodgertown but he was soon on the team board of directors. When a 6,000 seat stadium was erected in time for 1953 spring training, Walter O'Malley, who had ousted Branch Rickey from power after the 1950 season, insisted that the new field be called Holman Stadium. Initially opposed to Dodgertown because of its expense, O'Malley grew to love the facility and he happily wrote out a check for \$21 to extend the lease through 1974. Johnson provides another good detail about the creation in 1954 of a Dodgertown Summer Camp for Boys at which Walter's son Peter O'Malley received his first executive experience on his path towards the team presidency. Three years later it was at Bud Holman's ranch 30 miles outside Vero Beach that O'Malley met secretly with officials from Los Angeles to finalize the plans for the stunning uprooting of the franchise from Brooklyn to southern California after that season.

Maybe because the author could not find enough drama in the transplanted Los Angeles Dodgers' first decades in Vero, his narrative loses bite in its middle sections. It becomes largely a chronological listing of events in Dodger seasons and occasionally in Vero Beach politics without much analysis. There are unfortunate lapses in the writing. Where in 1956 Walter O'Malley is vividly quoted exhorting his Brooklyn Dodger players before an exhibition series against the Japanese, "I want you to remember Pearl Harbor" (59), O'Malley is reduced in 1970 to superficial

praise by the builder of a Dodgertown golf course as "an inspiration during the construction" (115).

Another missed opportunity is Johnson's failure to probe the social issues that beginning in the 1960s engulfed the previously cloistered world of baseball, among them, racial protest, the rise of a strong players union, and the growth of drug usage. He does make mention of lifelong Dodger player and coach Al Campanis's unfortunate comment on national television in 1986 that black people lacked the "necessities" to work in the front office. He concedes that Campanis had always treated black players fairly, helping Jackie Robinson to learn to play second base and recommending Jim Gilliam as a coach. But Johnson closes his brief discussion by citing Peter O'Malley's defense of firing Campanis because his remarks were "so far removed and so distant from what this organization believes" (153).

When the author turns to the last chapters of his story, the perhaps inevitable departure of the Dodgers to an Arizona home closer to their fan base, Johnson's narrative happily picks up again. His portrait of Peter O'Malley is engaging and poignant as the heir to the last family-run business in baseball became increasingly outside the loop of the baseball hierarchy. A moderate on labor issues, he was in the minority of owners who tried to avoid the crippling 1994 baseball strike that led to the cancellation of the World Series. In 1998 O'Malley finally sold the team yet before the sale to Rupert Murdoch's Fox News Corporation was completed, O'Malley gave three-year contracts to some loyal executives to provide security in a time of upheaval. Once Murdoch took over, the drumbeat for a spring training center closer to Los Angeles increased. Johnson chronicles well the almost comical game of musical chairs among Fox executives during Murdoch's unsuccessful tenure that ended in 2004 with the sale of the team to Boston real estate developer Frank McCourt. Johnson also does a good job at explaining both the tug of war among different potential spring training suitors in Arizona and the labyrinthine relationships among Vero Beach city government, Indian River county authorities and local aviation interests. With the paternal leadership of the Dodger organization under Rickey and then O'Malley long gone so was the larger sense of baseball's importance in the Vero Beach community.

After 2008 spring training the Dodgers made the official announcement that they were heading to the Phoenix suburb of

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Glendale to share a new complex with the Chicago White Sox. The future of Dodgertown and baseball in Vero Beach remains at press time very much in limbo. But thanks to Rody Johnson's book we will always be able to remember a special time of the last part of the 20th century when "the crack of bats, the voices of the coaches, the chatter of the infielders swept across the fields . . . [and] the air smelled of freshly cut grass . . . and of orange blossoms from the nearby citrus trees" (12).

Lee Lowenfish

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