

BOEKBESPREKINGS/BOOK REVIEWS

M BROODRYK, *Geskiedenis in perspektief. St. 3*, Perskor, 1981, 143 pp.

M BROODRYK, *History in perspective. Std. 4*, Perskor, 1981, 179 pp.

AP VAN NIEKERK, H G J LINTVELT, K O'KENNEDY, R G GALLIERS and A J K SKILLIKORN
Yesterday's World 3, Maskew Miller, 1981, 78 pp.

A P VAN NIEKERK, H G J LINTVELT, K O'KENNEDY, R G GALLIERS and A J K SKILLIKORN
Yesterday's World 4, Maskew Miller, 1981, 86 pp.

Two sets of school textbooks for standards 3 and 4 have just been published, one by Perskor for use in white schools in the Cape, the other by Maskew Miller for the Transvaal market. They invite comparison.

The author of the Perskor books, M Broodryk, seems incapable of seeing South Africa's history in any but racist terms. Contrary to the title, his view of the past shows a distinct lack of perspective. It is highly emotive, grossly distorted and can do nothing but harm to young and impressionable minds.

Maskew Miller's production, written by a panel of five authors, is also not without its faults, but is much less subject to the kind of manipulation of historical material which mars the other work. The books in this series provide a new look at South African history for the young and show that some recent academic research at least has filtered down to school level.

This review is concerned exclusively with the sections on South African history in the two sets. Both cover the period from our earliest beginnings until 1961. There, however, the similarity ends. We can only highlight some of the more glaring inconsistencies and contradictions to which primary school children, compelled to study the Perskor texts in particular, may be exposed.

We draw attention first to the point of departure of the two series. The authors of the Maskew Miller books try to show South African society in its totality. They speak of the original inhabitants of South Africa before 1652, the Khoisan. They also look at the way of life of both black and white South Africans and show the interaction between them.

There is also some attempt to explain why black groups retaliated against white encroachment. Blacks are not always depicted as villains, e.g. the writers point out that on the eastern frontier the Xhosa had valid claims to the Zuurveld region where they had been wont to graze their cattle, just as the whites had done: "The Xhosas were supposed to stay to the east of this river. However, the Xhosas were used to grazing their cattle in the Suurveld (sic) ... so they felt that the white stock-farmers who had settled there were intruders stealing their grazing land. This led to constant clashes between the Xhosas and the frontier farmers". (Std 3 book, p.48.)

On the other hand, Broodryk is solely preoccupied with white history. Not only are the blacks seen as playing a secondary if not minor role in the development of the country, but they are constantly denigrated. There is no attempt to see their point of view. We have repeatedly been warned against such a perversion of South Africa's past. If these books are anything to go by, the warnings have gone unheeded — blacks are still shown as the "native problem". Examples of this abound. We are told that "farmers had experienced problems with the Xhosas" (Std 4, p.6); "The Hottentots roamed around the country getting up to mischief and stealing. So they went from bad to worse" (Std 4, p.11); "the freed slaves did not know how to behave" (Std 4, p.14); "The Black people in Natal cause problems" (Std 4, p.71); "Many [Indians] moved to other areas and created problems there" (Std 4, p.98). From these and numerous other instances, Broodryk shows black and brown races in a bad light. In an example of sheer racism he writes: "The frontier farmers knew these people well and knew they were different to the whites" (Std 4, pp.15/16). To Broodryk, different unfortunately implies inferior. He also stresses the "cruelty" and "barbarism" of the black tribes. Highly emotive language is used: "Horrible scenes of murder and bloodshed [during the Zulu attack at Weenen] ... Even today these stories cause cold shivers to run down our spines. But we are proud of the heroism of our forefathers" (Std 4, p.55). Is this not inevitably to foster racist feeling and encourage racist invective among white school children? The polemic of the following extract seems to confirm our suspicion: "Die regering gee vir hulle meer grond en dit gaan beter met hulle nuwe soort boerdery. Maar o wee, nou begin die Xhosas hulle vee steel. Die Xhosas het nie gevra of dit 'n Setlaar of 'n Afrikaner se vee was nie. Hulle het voor die voet gesteel. Ook die Setlaars se huis word afgebrand en hulle vroue en kinders soms in Xhosa-aanvalle vermoor. Saam met die Afrikaners veg hulle skouer aan skouer teen die Xhosas. Baie van hulle het seker spyt gekry dat hulle nie maar liewers in Brittanje gebly het nie!" (Std 3, p.81).

British officials, missionaries and English-speaking South Africans fare little better. There are no direct indictments against the latter but the insinuations are everywhere to be found. Not least of these is the startling statement: "Another disadvantage about Natal was that a number of Englishmen already lived in this area" (Std 4, p.21).

The author constantly shows the British government as blundering and its officials incapable of understanding the South African situation. His treatment of the missionaries is equally one-sided and

simplistic: "The attitude of the missionaries and the lies they spread was one of the reasons for their decision rather to trek" (Std 4, p.15). A contrast is also drawn between Boer courage and British cowardice during the siege of Congella. Apparently when "... the Boers started firing. The British fled in panic" (Std 4, p.73), whereas "The ships' cannons thundered their deadly fire upon the Boers ... [they] were forced to retreat" (Std 4, p.74).

It is a relief to turn to the more balanced approach of Maskew Miller's *Yesterday's World*. Here the authors give a more dispassionate account of the missionary and official British contribution. For instance, philanthropists are described as "people who wanted to see that the Blacks in British colonies were treated justly" (Std 3, p.49). The role of Cecil Rhodes too, is treated objectively (Std 4, pp.36/7). It is obvious, therefore, that the authors try to see developments through British as well as Afrikaner eyes.

However, the authors are sometimes guilty of over-simplification, especially in their handling of the Mfecane and the Uitlander question (Std 4). This may be understandable in terms of their concern not to complicate the various historical issues. There is no overt propagandizing. By contrast, *History in perspective* is riddled with half-truths and the most blatant evasions of the truth, e.g. in dealing with conditions on the eastern frontier, Broodryk ignores the fact that whites were no less responsible than blacks for cattle theft. Similarly, in the section on the Voortrekkers in Natal after the British annexation, he writes: "Andries Pretorius still tried ... to improve the situation. He even rode more than a thousand kilometres to Grahams-town to see the new British governor. He did not even want to receive Pretorius" (Std 4, p.75). But he does not explain the reasons for this refusal, nor does he mention Sir Harry Smith's visit to Natal during which he tried to persuade the trekkers, including Pretorius, not to leave the colony. Also, in his treatment of the "Ncapai" commando of 1840, he implies that in indenturing "starving" black children as labourers, the Voortrekkers were showing their magnanimity! Broodryk is apparently not aware of the latest findings of historians in this connection; or perhaps the findings did not fit his bias.

Perhaps the most damning final comment on *History in perspective* is simply to allow Broodryk to speak for himself. The distortions and questions that are begged in the following extract are too self-evident to deserve further discussion: In speaking of modern South Africa and the policy of separate development he writes: "After the Second World War, the Blacks of many other areas of Africa were allowed to govern themselves. Their countries became independent. Lesotho, Swaziland and Botswana also received their independence. Because the Black nations who lived inside our borders also wanted self-government, the South African government started the policy of separate development. According to this policy the reserves were changed to homelands now known as Black states. The Blacks in these Black states were taught by the Whites how to govern themselves. If they wished it, they could develop into fully independent states" (Std 4, pp.111/112).

Finally, in respect of presentation: there are numerous spelling and translation mistakes in Broodryk's books and the illustrative material and layout lack imagination. About all one can say is that the quality of the paper is superior to that of its Maskew Miller counterpart. *Yesterday's World* has some unfortunate gremlins like the negative print of C J Langenhoven in the Standard 4 book (p.51). Linguistic oddities also detract from the overall quality of this series. One wonders what a small pupil will make of "Life was not easy and it was simple" (Std 4, p.19).

With a careful revision, *Yesterday's World* should provide an adequate alternative to other current school history textbooks at this level. The one-sided interpretation of *History in perspective*, on the other hand, makes one realize why children with a balanced upbringing find it difficult to identify with the textbook versions of the history of their country and why it has become so difficult to break down racial barriers in South Africa.

J LAMBERT and G C CUTHBERTSON
University of South Africa

C F J Muller (red.), *500 Jaar Suid-Afrikaanse Geskiedenis*, Academica, Pretoria, 1980, 643 pp., R15,50 +

Die feit dat hierdie boek vir die derde keer sedert 1968 verskyn, getuig van sy nut vir studente in die Suid-Afrikaanse geskiedenis. Die kaart en foto-illustrasies verhelder die teks. Die nut lê in die tematiese en tydperk-benadering. Verskeie historici het daaraan meegewerk soos W J de Kock, A J Böseken, C F J Muller, M C van Zyl, C R Kotzé, P L Scholtz, M C E van Schoor, J S du Plessis, S B Spies, B J Liebenberg en A M Davey. Hulle is van verskillende universiteite wat die bruikbaarheid van die boek landswyd bevoordeel. Die medewerkers is spesialiste op verskillende gebiede wat sy wetenskaplike gehalte waarborg. Die tematiese en geografiese indeling bring eenheid in die geslotenheid van die gebiede, terwyl die groter strominge in aparte hoofstukke behandel word, sodat die gang van die ontwikkeling behoue bly.

Die boek is dikwels gekritiseer omdat dit die verhaal vertel "van die doen en late van die witman in Suid-Afrika". Die redakteur wou egter die vraag beantwoord: "Hoe het dit gebeur dat so 'n handjievol

blankes so 'n magposisie verwerf het, en as gevolg daarvan in die sewentigerjare van die twintigste eeu kontinentaal en internasionaal van soveel betekenis geword het?", en erken: "Hierdie is 'n blanksentriese benadering." Sy regverdiging daarvoor is dat daar te weinig 'kontroleerbare feitemateriaal op skriftelike stukke gegrond,' bestaan om 'n gesaghebbende geskiedenis van die nie-blanke te skryf, wat myns insiens nie 'n oortuigende argument is nie. Macmillan en De Kiewiet het aangetoon dat die geskiedenis van Suid-Afrika alleen verstaan kan word indien ook die nie-blanke komponent sy regmatige plek in die spel van historiese kragte inneem.

Dit bring die probleem na vore of 'n 'algemene' Suid-Afrikaanse geskiedenis moontlik is, en of dit steeds standpunt-bepaald moet wees óf uit die blanke óf uit die nie-blanke se standpunt. Buitendien is die ou blanksentriese benadering onder invloed van dekolonisasie in die buiteland omgekeer tot 'n swartsentriese siening wat die tradisionele blanke beeld van die Suid-Afrikaanse geskiedenis daar vervang het. Muller het die hoofstuk oor die etniese geskiedenis wat as aanhangsel by sy blanke geskiedenis verskyn het, laat verval, miskien onder die besef dat sy uitgangspunt eenzijdig was.

Die slotgedeelte van die boek, opgestel deur prof. Liebenberg, is uitgebrei en aangevul wat sy waarde verhoog. Prof. Muller sluit die boek met 'n denkende deurdringing van die geheel af en sien die toekoms van die blanke Republiek as geleë tussen twee uiterste moontlikhede nl 'die lot van Karthago' wat na 700 van die kaart van Afrika verdwyn het, en die voortbestaan van 'die magtigste draer van die Westerse beskawing' in 'n Swart kontinent. Hy toon nie dat hy bewus is van 'n nuwe geskiedsbeeld wat by die verskuiving van die historiese kragte wat die oue tevoorskyn gebring het, stadig besig is om vorm aan te neem nie en wat om 'n derde pool gaan wentel, nl dié van Afrika wat die Republiek geïsoleer en omsingel het soos dit was in die geval van die stryd van die S A Republiek teen die Britse ryk.

Die bydraes tot die geheel van die boek wissel in kwaliteit. Studente aan residensiële universiteite vind die styl en aanbieding nie altyd geskik vir leerdoeleindes nie. Dit het egter sy weg tot die "algemene" geskiedenis van Suid-Afrika gevind. Die boek bestaan ook in 'n Engelse vertaling (1981³).

F A VAN JAARVELD
Universiteit van Pretoria

A L HARINGTON, *Sir Harry Smith, bungling Hero*, Tafelberg, Kaapstad, 1980, 299 pp., R22,50.

Die boek is van die hand van dr. A L Harington, senior lektor aan die Universiteit van Suid-Afrika, op grond waarvan hy in 1978 gedoktoreer het. Dit handel oor die lewe van sir Harry Smith wat aan elke skoolkind bekend is. Hy het 15 jaar in Suid-Afrika gewoon, van 1829 tot 1840 en van 1847 tot 1852, toe hy as Britse goewerneur en hoë kommissaris gedien het. Assosiasies met sy bestaan is sy heroïese reis te perd gedurende die Sesde Grensoorlog van 1835 – 36, die dood van Hintsas, die hoof van die Xhosas, en Boomplaats, waar hy met Andries Pretorius militêr gebots het.

Harington het die lewe van sir Harry opnuut in hierdie biografie bekyk en sekerheid probeer bring waar daar twyfel was. Hy behandel sy jeugjare as jong soldaat in die oorlog teen Napoleon, toe hy met 'n Spaanse meisie getroud is. Daarna dien hy as wnd. kwartiermeester-generaal. Vyf jaar na sy aankoms in Suid-Afrika, neem hy as "redder" deel aan die Sesde Grensoorlog wat die Oostelike Provinsie veilig teen die Xhosas gestel het. Daarna vertrek hy na Indië en by Aliwal word hy 'n Britse held, wat weer eens Kaap toe gestuur word. Sy lewe as goewerneur word grondig behandel en daar word aangetoon dat hy so oorheers is deur graaf Grey, die Britse Minister vir Kolonies, dat hy 'n mislukking daarvan gemaak het.

Sy biograaf noem hom 'n "bungling hero". Hy beskou Smith nie as groot nie, maar belangrik in sy tyd. Die skrywer ag 'n psigologiese ontleding waardeloos en beoordeel sy optrede slegs in verband met die Suid-Afrikaanse geskiedenis. Vir Smith se lewensloop buite Suid-Afrika was hy aangewese op sekondêre bronne, vir die res het hy alle moontlike primêre bronne hier en in die buiteland benut, veral in private versamelings aldaar.

Interessant is die skrywer se beoordeling van die werk wat plaaslik en oorsee oor sir Harry Smith aangebied is. Sy eie relaas is saaklik en gaan hoofsaaklik oor Smith as soldaat, administrateur en goewerneur. Besondere aandag is gewy aan die dood van Hintsas met die doel om vas te stel wat nou werklik gebeur het, en aan Smith se ontmoeting met Andries Pretorius aan die Tugela in 1848, waaroor daar heelwat teenstrydige verslae in ons geskiedenis bestaan. In dié verband is hy erkentlik teenoor proff. J G Pretorius van die Universiteit van die Noorde en B J Liebenberg van die Universiteit van Suid-Afrika, wat aandag aan bogenoemde aspekte van sir Harry se optrede gegee het. Die boek is objektief geskryf en laat sy held as mens met voortrefflikhede en gebreke verskyn, wat invloed op sy tyd uitgeoefen het.

F A VAN JAARVELD
Universiteit van Pretoria

ANONYMUS, *Hoe men in Zuid-Afrika fortuin kan maken, Betrouwbare gids voor aanstaande emigranten, door iemand die lang in de Transvaal gewoond heeft*, Wilms & Co., Amsterdam, zonder jaar (omstreeks 1885), 33 pp., herdruk door de Staatsbibliothek te Pretoria, met inleiding van P E Westra, 1981.

De oplaag van herdrukken door de Staatsbibliothek is gewoonlijk klein. Dit rechtvaardigt een ietwat uitvoerige bespreking van dit voor Nederlanders belangwekkende geschrift. De onbekende schrijver is volgens Dr J Ploeger te Pretoria misschien Hendrik Stiemens, 1822 – 94, geboren in Nederland. Hij vestigde zich in 1856 als huisonderwijzer in Natal en enige jaren later in Transvaal, waar hij onder meer Staatssecretaris was. De schrijver vertelt namelijk van zijn ervaringen als huisonderwijzer eerst in Natal en daarna in Transvaal en is bekwaam met de pen. Maar wij zullen waarschijnlijk nooit zekerheid over zijn identiteit krijgen. We zullen hem kortweg Mnr. A noemen.

Zijn brochure dateert van omstreeks 1885 kort voor de opkomst van de goudmijnbouw aan de Witwatersrand in 1886. Hij vermeldt dit heel belangrijke feit namelijk niet. Hij beschrijft een overwegend agrarisch Transvaal. Voor de ontdekking van goud aan de Rand was de economische ontwikkeling van Zuid-Afrika langzaam. Toch ziet Mnr. A kansen voor Nederlandse immigranten, mits zij aan de volgende voorwaarden voldoen. Zij moeten bij hun aankomst over wat geld beschikken om niet geheel van de steun van ingezetenen afhankelijk te zijn. Voorheen zijn Nederlanders zonder een cent geïmmigreerd en daarom waren ze onder de Afrikaners weinig in tel. Zij moeten ook bereid zijn om zich buiten Transvaal te vestigen. Transvaal was namelijk vóór de ontdekking van het goud het meest achtergebleven gebied in Zuid-Afrika en tamelijk overvoerd met Nederlanders, uitgezonderd handwerkslieden: aan hen bestaat in heel Zuid-Afrika grote behoefte. Nederlanders die geen ambacht hebben geleerd, moeten over een goede opleiding beschikken, welke hen in staat zal stellen huisonderwijzer bij Afrikanerboeren te worden, want dezen hebben grote behoefte aan onderwijzers voor hun kinderen, omdat analfabeten geen kerklidmaat kunnen worden. Kennis van Engels, muziek en zang en bezit van een muziekinstrument en van eenvoudige leer- en leesboeken en afbeeldingen uit het buitenland strekken daarbij tot aanbeveling. (Daaruit blijkt, dat de boeren hun kinderen tot beschaafde mensen wilden opvoeden, en daarvoor graag aanzienlijke gelduitgaven doen, in weerwil van de eisen van het boerenbedrijf en de aantrekkelijkheden van het buitenleven.) Voorheen waren te vele Nederlandse onderwijzers in Zuid-Afrika weggelopen matrozen zonder behoorlijke schoolopleiding en van berispelijk gedrag, waarvan de boeren uiterst afkerig zijn, aldus Mnr. A.

Andere eisen aan Nederlandse onderwijzers gesteld zijn de volgende. Zij moeten leren paardrijden om mobiel te zijn en bereid zijn om vee als salaris te aanvaarden en daarmee een kudde te vormen voor extra inkomsten. Zij moeten zich na enige jaren op veeteelt en akkerbouw toeleggen en gaan boeren door land bij een boer te pachten en later te kopen en een eigen huis betrekken. Het onderwijzerschap kan daarbij een gerieflijke nevenbetrekking blijven.

Zij moeten liefst een Zuidafrikaanse echtgenote zoeken (vanzelfsprekend blank), maar daarbij heel behoedzaam te werk gaan. Zij moeten als goede Afrikaners optreden en de schrijver beduidt op Victoriaanspreutse wijze, dat sexueel verkeer vóór het huwelijk door de boeren niet wordt geduld. Met inachtname van al deze wenken maakt een ontwikkelde Nederlander een goede kans op een rijk huwelijk. Dan zal de weg naar welstand voor hem open zijn, behoudens bijzondere tegenspoeden (welke helaas dikwijls voorkwamen, zoals droogten, veeziekten en natuurrampen – C. de J.).

Mnr. A raadt aanvankelijke vestiging als onderwijzer in Natal aan, omdat de reis naar Transvaal duur is en de Kaapkolonie reeds redelijk goed onderwijs biedt. Merkwaardig is, dat de boeren in de Oranje-Vrijstaat een huisonderwijzer £4 tot £5 per maand plus kost en inwoning betaalden, en in Transvaal £3. (Was Transvaal voor onderwijzers aantrekkelijker en waarom?)

Mnr. A beseft gelukkig, dat niet alle Nederlandse immigranten lust en aanleg voor het boerenbedrijf bezitten en wijst daarom ook een andere weg om te slagen aan. Men kan ook algemene handelaar in een dorp worden en een "general store" openen, omdat de ruilhandel met de boeren, die hun produkten aanbieden, heel voordelig is. Winstgevende bijbedrijven zijn handel in struisvogelveren en ruil van kralen en gebruiksvoorwerpen met zwarten. Mnr. A merkt op, dat hij in Natal en de Vrijstaat van geen enkele Nederlandse algemene handelaar weet. Zo 'n handelaar is in de dorpen steeds een Brit en aan de hoofdwegen dikwijls een Duitser. Toch zal een Nederlandse winkelier bij de boeren gewoonlijk meer sympathie en klanten dan een andere Europeaan vinden.

Geneesheren, vooral verloskundigen, zullen overal in Zuid-Afrika gemakkelijk een praktijk kunnen vinden, evenals rechtskundigen (procureurs) in de Vrijstaat. Getrouwde mannen hebben meer kans om vooruit te komen dan ongetrouwde, want de boeren wantrouwen vrijgezellen.

Mnr. A waarschuwt tegen hooggespannen verwachtingen bij immigranten inzake een avontuurlijk leven met jacht op leeuwen, tijgers en beren. Hij schrijft op p.24: "Over het geheel leeft men in Zuid-Afrika frank en vrij en kan er welvaren zonder overmatigen, ja vaak met zeer weinig arbeid. Juist voor bedaarde lieden is Zuid-Afrika een uitnemend land." Hij vindt aanschaf van vuurwapens slechts nodig als men veel te

paard en des nachts rondtrekt. Er is dus in Zuid-Afrika veel na de mijnbouwomwenteling (ontdekking van diamanten en goud) veranderd.

C DE JONG
Universiteit van Suid-Afrika

J L BOLTON, *The Medieval English economy 1150—1500*, J.M. Dent & Sons, London Rowman & Littlefield, Ottawa, New Jersey, 1980, 400 pp., 3 maps, index, £19,95.

The author teaches at Queen Mary College, London. He has written a voluminous and comprehensive work about England excluding Wales, during the middle and late Middle Ages. The titles of several chapters, e.g., "Patterns of demand", "The growth of the market", "Supplying the market", "Freedom versus restriction", are familiar themes to the economist, but the contents give him less information than the historian. The author offers a host of facts and details about individual nobles, clergymen and merchants and local situations, and adds general statements and opinions enabling the reader to obtain a comprehensive view of the period.

One of the virtues of this book is the critical attitude to the sweeping statements which abound in textbooks on economic history, especially with regard to Antiquity and the Middle Ages — generalizations which are to a certain extent unavoidable in teaching students who are no historians. Bolton emphasizes the endless variety and change in Medieval society which is too often represented as static and uniform. He objects to the view that the 12th and 13th centuries were an age of continuous expansion and general prosperity and the 14th and 15th centuries an age of general stagnation and even decline, "the waning of the Middle Ages". His description of these centuries is far more nuanced. At any time, prosperity in certain regions and trades was accompanied by stagnation or decline in others, as he shows by many examples.

Presumably the slow growth of national product, income and wealth and the more regional than national and international exchange of most goods were responsible for the trend of frequent local stagnation and regression.

Bolton is very cautious in his generalized conclusions and honestly states more than once that the available evidence is inconclusive because of lack of adequate information. But he does admit that the central Middle Ages enjoyed more growth and prosperity than the late Middle Ages and that the image of the 14th and 15th centuries as an age of many economic and social difficulties and retarded growth remains true, despite the revival of the cloth industry and cloth export and the extension of the capital, London.

He describes the 15th century, when England was expelled from France and suffered from the civil war of the Roses in less dark colours than is often done. He points to the recovery of the cloth industry outside the towns and refutes in pp.232—234 a general agrarian depression in the late Middle Ages. But he admits that many towns and lords of manors encountered serious economic problems and became impoverished, while the extension and prosperity of London occurred partly at the expense of other English towns and ports.

What retarded development in the late Middle Ages, according to the author on p.282, was not so much lack of potential supply and demand for consumption goods as well probably lack of national capital. Capital tended to be diverted from commerce and trade unto conspicuous consumption, war and investment in land of doubtful productivity, because the landed gentry enjoyed greater social prestige than the merchants and craftsmen. The author plays down the contribution of technical innovations to production in the late Middle Ages, e.g. the waterwheel to drive the fulling mill, a.o. (p.157).

He emphasizes England's dependence on foreign know-how and capital, imported by Italians and North Germans or Hansards. But he refutes the popular belief that the revival of the English cloth industry was largely due to the immigration of Flemish craftsmen.'

He concludes on p.349: "Indeed, compared not only with modern industrialized countries but also in relation to the standards of 'developed' countries of that time — Italy, the Low Countries and Southern Germany — England was an underdeveloped country." English export products of importance were few in numbers, mainly wool and cloth; the cloth to a large extent a semi-manufactured product, to be finished and re-exported by the Low Countries.

A summary containing general statements and a survey of the period 1150—1500 is regrettably absent. Bolton's book is a very interesting and stimulating work.

C DE JONG
University of South Africa

ERIK P HOFFMANN en FREDERIC J FLERON, Jr. (reds.), *The Conduct of Soviet Foreign Policy*, Aldine Publishing Co., New York, 1980, x + 761 pp., \$34.95.

Dit is seker onnodig om te beklemtoon hoe belangrik 'n kennis van die buitelandse beleid en beleidsoogmerke van die Sowjet-Unie is. Tans is daar verskeie lande ter wêreld wat direk of indirek deur Sowjet-imperialisme bedreig word, of hulle bedreig voel. Sedert die ontstaan van die na-oorlogse bipolarêre wêreldorde speel Rusland een van die hoofrolle in die drama van internasionale betrekkinge. So onlangs as Desember 1981 het die Sowjet-Unie onomstootlik aan die Poolse onafhanklike vakbond "Solidariteit" getoon watter "agting" die Kremlin het vir enige afwyking van die Brezhnev-doktrine in Oos-Europa. Trouens, nog lank voor die Poolse krisis breekpunt bereik het, het Russiese troepe vir die eerste keer sedert die Tweede Wêreldoorlog 'n onafhanklike staat — Afghanistan — binnegeval.

Die stelselmatige agteruitgang van die eens magtige "Pax Americana" beklemtoon verder die aktualiteit van die huidige Russiese buitelandse beleid. Ten spyte van al De Gaulle se pogings om in die sestigerjare 'n Europese "derde mag", onafhanklik van Amerika, tot stand te bring, weet ons vandag dat Europa se opsies nog steeds vasgevang is in die bipolarêre wêreldorde, en dat kanselier Helmut Schmidt se pogings om die Duitse Bondsrepubliek in die sfeer van buitelandse politiek meer "onafhanklik" te laat optree, uiteindelik net in óf die guns van Moskou óf dié van Washington kan geskied. In ander wêreldstreke is dié opsies nie veel anders nie.

Dat daar in die lig van hierdie omstandighede en die onsekerheid oor die toekomstige lotgevalle van die mensdom 'n intense belangstelling in Rusland bestaan, is begryplik. In die V.S.A. neem die aantal studente wat jaarliks die Russiese buitelandse beleid bestudeer, steeds toe. Die aanvraag na geskikte literatuur oor die onderwerp neem daaglik toe. Verder verskyn daar feitlik daaglik nuwe gewewens oor die Russiese buitelandse beleid. Dit word al hoe moeiliker om aan studente geskikte leesstof oor so 'n wye onderwerp te verskaf.

Erik P Hoffmann en Frederic J Fleron poog om met hierdie werk dié leemte te vul. Dié boek is in alle opsigte 'n bloemlesing wat in die eerste plek diens as naslaanwerk moet doen. Studente ontvang die geleentheid om in een band kennis te maak met 39 skrywers se siening van die sewe mees omstrede aspekte van die Russiese buitelandse beleid. Dit stel hulle nie net in staat om met verskillende vertolkings kennis te maak nie, maar kan ook dien as basis vir seminare en groepsbesprekings.

Studente wat belangstel in die Russiese buitelandse beleid en die Russe se formulering en benadering daarvan, behoort ongetwyfeld van hierdie werk kennis te dra.

WERNER VAN DER MERWE
Universiteit van Suid-Afrika

A M FAURE e a (reds.), *Die Westerse Politieke Tradisie*, H en R Academica, Pretoria, 1981, 469 pp.

Hierdie werk is saamgestel om as 'n handleiding vir studente in die Staatsleer en Filosofie te dien. Albei hierdie dissiplines stel uit die aard van die saak belang in die wordingsgeskiedenis van die Westerse politieke tradisie en die teoretiese gedagte-wêreld wat dit ten grondslag lê.

As die doel van hierdie boek in ag geneem word, kan 'n mens weinig fout daarmee vind. Die skrywers het geen volledige sintese van die ontwikkeling van die Westerse politieke tradisie beoog nie en selfs die inleiding bied eerder 'n kennismaking met die terrein as 'n vertolking daarvan. Ons het dus hier bloot 'n handboek — en niks meer en niks minder nie.

WERNER VAN DER MERWE
Universiteit van Suid-Afrika

KARL A WITTFOGEL: *Oriental Despotism. A Comparative Study of Total Power*, Vintage books, New York, 1981, 556 pp., Prys onvermeld.

Die skrywer is in 1896 in Woltersdorf, Duitsland gebore en het in die twintigerjare as intellektueel en politieke figuur beroemd geword veral deur sy boeke oor Sjina en die wêreldgeskiedenis. Hy is deur Hitler geïnterneer en verban. In 1939 het hy 'n genaturaliseerde Amerikaanse burger geword. Die boek is vir die eerste keer in 1957 gepubliseer en verskyn in hersiene vorm vir die eerste keer in slapbandvorm. Hoewel akkuraat gesien die magtige wêreldposisie wat die Ooste vandag inneem, is dit nie 'n maklike boek om te lees nie. Dit berus op groot belesenheid, soos die bibliografie van 30 bladsye getuig, en is die produk van werklike geleerdheid.

Die skrywer ondersoek die ekologiese oorspronge van self-voortplantende, totalitêre regering, ontleed antieke ryke soos Sjina, Egipte, Indië, Persië, Mesopotamië, Inka-Peru en Meso-Amerika en verduidelik die politieke imperatiewe van "hidroliëse" samelewings, d.w.s. samelewings wat in droë of half-woestynlande ontstaan het, waar die landbou hoofsaaklik deur besproeiing in plaas van reënval beoefen is.

Wittfogel beantwoord vrae soos welke toestand het na ekstreme vorme van despotisme in die Ooste gelei, maar nie in die Weste nie? Waarom is "Westerse" regte soos die onskendbaarheid van die individu en private eiendom dwarsdeur die Ooste nie toegelaat nie? Die skrywer ontleed die besondere nie-Westerse semi-bestuurstelsel van despotiese mag en die vertolking van kommunistiese totalitarisme as 'n totale bestuurs- en veel meer despotiese variant van daardie sisteem. Die skrywer is besorg oor die kommunistiese regime in Sjina en die eks-koloniale Oosterse lande, en beskuldig die Weste van 'n ambivalente houding teenoor die opkoms en groei van die Oosterse magte.

Hy vra of die Oosterse despotisme sy burokratiese staat-slawerny oor die Weste gaan uitbrei: "Time is running out. And opportunity, if it is to be seized with any chance of success, pre-supposes a West whose attitude toward bureaucratic totalitarianism is both informed and bold. Today, the attitude of the West is neither" (p.447).

F A VAN JAARVELD
Universiteit van Pretoria

H FRANSEN, *Drie Eeue Kuns in Suid-Afrika, beeldende kuns, boukuns, toegepaste kuns*, Anreith Uitgewers, Pietermaritzburg, 1981, x + 230 pp., illus., R18,92.

Hans Fransen is welbekend as museumkurator in Stellenbosch en Kaapstad, en vir sy publikasies in verband met die Kaaps-Hollandse boukuns, ou meubelkuns, en foto's van Elliott. Tans is hy senior dosent aan die Universiteit van Natal. Na jare het nou 'n kunsgeskiedenis van Suid-Afrika van sy hand verskyn. Inderdaad bestaan daar aan so 'n kunsgeskiedenis vir baie jare reeds 'n ernstige behoefte, veral vir onderwysdoelindes. Nog altyd is in hierdie behoefte slegs ten dele voorsien deur studies oor tydvakke, afsonderlike kunstenaars, sekere kunsuitings, aangevul deur tydskrif- en koerantartikels. 'n Ervare navorser en skrywer soos Fransen was nodig om vir die eerste keer 'n alomvattende oorsig van ons kunsgeskiedenis aan te durf. In hierdie geval bly dit ook nie net by die boukuns, beeldhoukuns en skilderkuns nie, maar is daar ruimskoots aandag geskenk aan die toegepaste kunste, grafiese kunste, ens.

Die skrywer het hom origins nie uitsluitend tot die Suid-Afrikaanse kunsgeskiedenis beperk nie. Hy het spesiale aandag gegee aan die kulturele en historiese agtergrond, die invloed van die ekonomiese en politieke groei deur die jare en die sosiale verskynsels en omstandighede teen die agtergrond waarvan die Suid-Afrikaanse kuns tot stand gekom het. Dit is nie 'n sagvloeiende relaas waarin die een verskynsel netjies oorgaan in die volgende nie. Eerder het ons te doen met 'n ontwikkeling vol plotselinge invloede, dikwels van elders, skokke, oorloë, terugslae en weer voorspoed, deurgaans kragtiger as wat in baie ander westerse lande die geval is.

Gemakshalwe en eweredig met die historiese verloop in die suidelike deel van Afrika, is hierdie oorsig van die kuns in drie periodes ingedeel. Dit word voorafgegaan deur 'n opsommende inleiding oor die westerse kuns in die algemeen.

Gedurende die bewind van die Oos-Indiese Kompanjie kom veral twee stylrigtings na vore. Daar is die Barok, wat Fransen uitvoerig, met verwysing na Anreith, aandui in die boukuns en meubelkuns en in silwer en glas. Die Neo-Klassisisme tref ons ook weer aan in die boukuns en die meubels, nou met verwysing na Thibault. Silwer ontwikkel verder en daar is die eerste voorbeelde van die skilderkuns, hoe maer en veelal primitief ook.

In die vorige eeu, ná die koms van die Engelse, is 'n duidelike verandering in agtergrond merkbaar. Tegelykertyd vang nou ook die boukuns en meubels in die oostelike en noordelike Kaap en naderhand in Natal, die Vrystaat en Transvaal, die oog. Almal van ons wat al in die Noord-Kaap en die Karoo gereis het, ken die neo-Gotiese spogkerke in die kleiner en groter dorpe.

Hierop volg die huidige eeu tot in ons eie tyd, met 'n ontwikkeling in die beeldende kunste, van romantiese realisme na realisme, impressionisme, ekspressionisme, abstraksie en verder. Veral in die afgelope tientalle jare is 'n strewe na eie uiting en meer tipiese Suid-Afrikaanse kuns merkbaar.

As nawoord het Fransen nog 'n hoofstuk oor die rotsgraverings en skilderinge en een oor die tradisionele swart boukuns en versierings toegevoeg.

Die benadering van die onderwerp is breed en uitvoerig, sonder eng plaaslike oriëntering. Daar is waardevolle definisies oor kuns en kunstegnieke en die boek bevat meer as 500 afbeeldings, waarvan 'n dosyn in kleur, sodat die leser hom beter in die onderwerp kan inlewe, waar sommige geboue of kunswerke nie aan hom bekend is nie.

Wat het ons nou aan hierdie boek? Ons moet bo alles erken dat Hans Fransen 'n taak aangepak het, wat nog deur niemand anders aangedurf is nie. Enige opmerkings kom gevolglik onvermydelik van persone wat dit nie self gewaag het om 'n derglike omvattende oorsig saam te stel nie, die skrywer van hierdie artikel inbegrepe. Gaan ons van hierdie beginsel uit, kan ons 'n paar opmerkings maak. Soos reeds genoem, is die benadering van die onderwerp vanuit 'n breë gesigspunt, wat steun op agtergrondstudie, soos die uitstekende bronneverwysings telkens getuig. Al hierdie verwysings saam vorm 'n vrywel volledige oorsig van watter boeke in die loop van die jare almal oor Suid-Afrikaanse kuns verskyn het.

In die geheel is tog onvermydelik te hoog gegryp. Dit is onmiskenbaar dat die hoofstukke oor die bou- en meubelkuns, terreine waarop Fransen deskundig is, heelwat uitvoeriger en omvattender is as dié oor die beeldende kunste. Gevolglik het ons hier 'n onewewigtigheid in die verhouding tussen die hoofstukke onderling asook die kunswerke self. Dit is m.i. die belangrikste beswaar wat teen die boek aangevoer kan word. Dit is egter nie onoorkomelik nie. Veral wat betref die beeldhoukuns en skilderkuns sal heelwat meer en dieper studie verwag word en sal aanvullings in 'n volgende uitgawe gemaak moet word.

Die laaste twee hoofstukke, oor die rotskuns en die tradisionele swart kuns, veral die eerste, staan te los van die res en kan moontlik beter by die geheel geïntegreer word.

Vir my was dit 'n boeiende boek om te lees, maar ek kan my indink dat party skoolkinders 'n bietjie moeite kan ondervind met die relas en die opeenhoping van feite. Vir die gemiddelde skoolkind sal hierdie vloed van gegewens moontlik oorstelpend wees. Sekerlik help die illustrasies om die betoog toe te lig, maar 'n aantal skematiese vergelykende oorsigte wat teen 'n agtergrond van tyd en die belangrikste historiese gebeurtenisse gestel word, sou wonderre kon verrig.

Inderdaad is dit in alle opsigte lofwaardig dat die boek eers in Afrikaans verskyn het. Vir onderwysgebruik moet 'n vertaling in Engels nogtans sterk aanbeveel word.

Ten slotte kan die woordelys moontlik uitgebrei word. Dit is egter 'n spesialistewerk en daar kan nouliks van die skrywer verwag word om op hierdie gebied ook nog baanbrekerswerk te verrig.

Hoewel daar dus plek is vir verbetering, is met hierdie boek 'n eerste en baie groot stap geneem om in 'n groot behoefte te voorsien. Iemand moes eendag daarmee begin en aan Fransen kom die eer toe dat hy tot die daad oorgegaan het.

F G E NILANT
Universiteit van Pretoria

UNIVERSITEIT VAN PRETORIA, *Anton van Wouw 1862—1945 en die Van Wouwhuis*, Butterworths, Durban, 1981, vii + 48 pp., illus., R12,00.

Hierdie publikasie is bedoel as 'n gids vir die besoeker aan die Van Wouw-huis in Pretoria. In 1973 is die Van Wouwhuis in Clarkestraat deur die Rembrandtgroep aangekoop en die merkwaardige plek is op 21 Mei 1974 aan die Universiteit van Pretoria oorhandig. Daar is beoog dat hier 'n so uitgebreid moontlike versameling van werke deur Van Wouw opgebou sou word en dat die huis tegelykertyd 'n plek vir uitstallings van kunswerke sou word.

'n Goeie begin is gemaak met 'n uitstalling van werke deur Van Wouw, wat in 1974 deur M G Schoonraad, nou professor aan die Universiteit van Natal, georganiseer is. Hierdie eerste uitstalling is gevolg deur 'n menigte ander, met groot verskeidenheid.

Inmiddels is voortgegaan met die versamel van werke deur die ou beeldhouer en dit is veral deur die toedoen van die huidige rektor van die Universiteit, professor D M Joubert, asook deur private skenkings dat die versameling in die afgelope jare tot so 'n indrukwekkende omvang kon uitgroeï. Nie alleen bronsbeelde nie, maar uiters belangrike gipsmodelle behoort reeds tot die versameling.

Die versameling het ook nie tot beeldhouwerke van Van Wouw self beperk gebly nie, maar bevat ook werke van tydgenote, foto's, eretekens, gereedskap en ander curiosa van die beeldhouer. Die Van Wouwhuis besit ook verskeie van sy skilderye en tekeninge.

Die teks in hierdie katalogus kon uiteraard slegs oppervlakkig en inleidend bly en in wese verskaf dit niks wat nie alreeds in verband met Van Wouw en die Van Wouwhuis bekend was nie. Dit is bedoel as 'n gids vir die gewone besoeker en as sodanig beantwoord dit uitstekend aan wat van 'n katalogus verwag kan word.

Professor Joubert verduidelik byvoorbeeld in die voorwoord die herkoms van die skenking van die Van Wouwhuis aan die Universiteit van Pretoria en die bedoeling wat die Rembrandtgroep daarmee gehad het. Daarna gee hy 'n vlugtige oorsig van die lewe van Van Wouw met verwysing na sy belangrikste werke. Dit word gevolg deur 'n lys aanwinste van 1974 tot 1981 en 'n lys skenkers. Die katalogus is beknopt en oorsigtelik en dit gee die nommer en titel van die werke, die afmeting en die materiaal waarvan dit gemaak is. Vervolgens is daar klein afbeeldings van die meeste van die werke in die versameling. Dit was 'n baie goeie

gedagte om die nuttige portretoorsig en die vier panele met 'n lewensoorisig van Van Wouw, saamgestel deur A E Duffey in 1980, ook te reproduseer.

Die publikasie is van 'n kort bibliografie voorsien. Dit lê egter buite die bestek van 'n kort gids soos hierdie om enigsins dieper in die onderwerp in te gaan. Ons bly wag op die eerste grondige en diepgaande studie van die lewe en werk van Anton van Wouw, beeldhouer en pionier-kunstenaar van Suid-Afrika.

F G E NILANT
Universiteit van Pretoria

RICHARD HOLT, *Sport and society in modern France*, Macmillan (in association with St Antony's College, Oxford), London and Basingstoke, 1981, xiii + 256 pp., illus., bibl., index, R25,95.

Dr Holt of the University of Stirling has made a useful contribution to a relatively neglected area of research in his published thesis. Although histories of specific sports and sporting organizations abound, little attempt has hitherto been made to discuss the evolution of sport in historical perspective. There is now, however, a growing awareness of the significance of the subject, illustrated in the South African context by the activities of the National Sports Investigation of the Human Sciences Research Council.

Holt has chosen to examine sport in modern France with the emphasis on the years of the Third Republic. He is, perhaps, more familiar with the British sporting scene in the period and his work suggests at times that he would have been happier with a comparative approach to his theme. Indeed, much that he has to say has a relevance not restricted to the country under his spotlight. This leads on occasion to surprisingly trite observations on the social scene and some unnecessary repetition concerning the evolution of modern sport in France from an era of more violent and unregulated games and pastimes.

The sporting activities Holt has selected for special attention do not in all respects merit such exhaustive treatment. He has rightly given prominence to cycling and gymnastics; the introduction and development of the British importations, soccer and rugby, are also discussed at some length. We question, however, the validity of devoting an entire chapter to such regional survivals as bullfighting in the *Midi* and cockfighting in the north-east. The game of bowls, on the other hand, less exotic but more national and equally steeped in tradition, is given scant attention.

In the course of his analysis, Richard Holt touches upon a number of significant social issues: sport and status, professionalism and the growth of spectator sports, the cult of violence and sport and sociability. It is, however, in his concluding chapters (pp. 190–220) that he makes a major contribution, expanding his earlier comments on the stimulation of gymnastics for patriotic motives after 1870. More might have been said about the encouragement of sport as a measure of social control, but Holt's examination of the Popular Front's sporting programme of 1936 and the subsequent adoption of similar measures by the Vichy administration during World War II is sound and places his subject in wide political focus.

Dr Holt has provided us with a most interesting, if somewhat uneven study. What is needed now is an investigation of sport in society on a broader international basis. This book will be an essential point of departure.

M BOUCHER
University of South Africa

DAVID MONTGOMERY, *Workers' control in America: studies in the history of work, technology, and labor struggles*, Cambridge University Press, Cambridge, etc., 1980, x + 189 pp., bibl., R9,55.

The main theme of these essays by Professor Montgomery of Yale University is the theory and practice of workers' control in American industry from the later nineteenth century to the era of the New Deal and beyond. All but two of his chapters have earlier appeared in other publications, among them *Labor History* and *Radical America*. An analytical preface provides the necessary cohesion and the collection has been given added cogency by the inclusion of a chapter on the New Deal and the implications of its programmes for organized labour today.

The result is in no sense a comprehensive history of American industrial labour in the period, but is nevertheless an informative series of loosely connected articles on the conflict between labour and management down the years, illustrated by a number of pertinent case histories. Of particular interest are Montgomery's chapters on resistance to managerial reform and anti-unionism in the Progressive era, and his essay on the unemployment problem written in collaboration with Ronald Schatz. Montgomery takes a close look at the New Deal, finding contradictions in its programmes to protect the capitalist system for the benefit of both management and worker.

This paperback has the merit of being very reasonably priced. The presentation of its subject-matter is, however, exceedingly dull and the sombre hue of Judith Aronson's cover design does nothing to lighten the effect. The choice is no doubt intentional, for this is often enough a murky story. The book is also available in hard covers (Cambridge, 1979).

M BOUCHER
University of South Africa

ALAN SKED, ed., *Europe's balance of power 1815—1848*, Macmillan, London, etc., 1979, 221 pp., bibl., index, R9,55.

This paperback (also available in hard covers) is an excellent addition to an outstandingly good series, "Problems in Focus". The editor, lecturer in international history at the London School of Economics, has assembled a sound team, all acknowledged authorities in their respective fields. There is certainly, as Sked observes (p.13), no comprehensive history of European diplomacy in the years between the overthrow of Napoleonic power and the revolutionary explosion of 1848. These closely related essays, based upon the latest research, do much to fill the gap.

It is, perhaps, invidious to single out particular contributions in a collection of special merit, but this reviewer would like to draw attention to the introductory essay by Douglas Dakin, professor of modern history at the University of London, on the background to the Congress of Vienna, a discerning survey of a compromise peace, and to the new light shed upon Britain's influence in maintaining the balance of power by Christopher Bartlett, professor of international history at Dundee. Sked's concluding article is also challenging, but it is suggested that Roger Bullen of the London School of Economics tends to underrate the French potential during the monarchical period.

These thoughtful essays destroy two myths: that Vienna guaranteed European peace for thirty years and that progressive forces gained so steadily on reaction that the events of 1848 were the inevitable result. They deserve to be studied carefully by all students of early nineteenth-century European history.

M BOUCHER
University of South Africa

DEREK FRASER, *Urban politics in Victorian England: the structure of politics in Victorian cities*, 324 pp., index.

As its title indicates, this book analyses the structure of Victorian urban politics, but this is not an analysis by class alone: Dr Fraser introduces a penetrating methodology of his own. From the premise that the political struggle in the industrial, provincial cities during the period 1830 to about 1880 was not between the classes but within the middle class, the author presents four fields of investigation, a "fourfold model" as he calls it. These are: parochial and township administration; municipal government; parliamentary elections and political agitation, and they comprise the four parts into which the book is divided.

Some people hold the opinion that politics (here defined as "the pursuit and exercise of power, and debate and conflict over policy", p.9) occurred only at the parliamentary level. Fraser contends that politics permeated all urban organisation and activities, and that the election of candidates to Westminster was just one level in the exercise of urban politics. The argument is not simply that parochial and municipal institutions were politicised, but that they formed an integral part of the political structure.

This is a complex book in that it elucidates many problems on many levels. Although the author does not conduct a class analysis, he highlights the shift from a vertical to a horizontal class structure, and shows how hazy class lines were at this time. This is also a documentation of the demise of the landed gentry (Establishment-Tory-Anglican) as the political force in England, and its replacement by the urban economic elite (Liberal-Dissenting) — the contest for power between the city and the country — a contest which the author maintains was for the highest of stakes: "the soul of England". The importance of the outcome of this tug-of-war can be gauged by the power wielded by modern cities.

Fraser does not view urban history as a distinct field of historical study — it is the study of the fount of power, history itself. The differences between urban and rural political structures in England are drawn, with the observation that politics operated more freely in cities, although Fraser makes it clear that he has not attempted a complete analysis of the countryside as he believes that the role of cities was more crucial during the Victorian era.

The struggle between the city and the country and within the city itself, took place over a span of time and over a wide range of issues and activities, "which it has been the object of this study to identify and

characterize" (p.279). It is to this end that the four strata of the political structure are explored and detailed research into the diversity of activities is well presented. The author has studied many sources — newspapers, municipal archives, private collections, church records and the Public Records Office to support his hypothesis that all urban activities were infused with politics. In the case of parliamentary elections this may be obvious, but the link between local/urban and national issues may not be as clear and this is explained in detail. It is also not altogether surprising to learn that municipal council elections and activities included a political dimension. But it is in the analysis of minor institutions, such as a vestry, poor law administration and the institutions established to improve the material conditions of urban life (sewers, roads etc.) that Fraser impresses us with the fact that, even in the resolution of the most trivial issues, politics formed a vital ingredient. As he points out, the history of the poor law, for instance, has "... normally been the province of social historians whose main interests tend to be methods of relief and social attitudes and who therefore ignore any political aspects" (p.55). He shows how important the history of the poor law becomes when its political aspects are considered paramount. The variety of issues with which political agitation was concerned is set out in Part 4 and Fraser comments upon a paradox of Victorian urban life in that there was an awareness and love of individuality, coupled with vast membership of organisations in which individuality might be compromised.

In the course of learning about these urbanisations we meet the Victorian urban leaders, speaking through their correspondence and the minutes of meetings they attended, and we meet the followers, participating through their votes and in expressing their opinions. Fraser brings these urban Victorians to life, substantiating his view that "in this age of great cities urban politics were a touchstone of urban society" (p.10).

The author does not exhaust the analysis of any of the four levels; indeed this is not his intention. Rather, he sets out to establish the methodology and its credentials and gives examples of its application. The excellent conclusion, "Urban politics in modern England" sums up the patchwork of urban Victorian England and explains how the urban situation as we know it today is the consequence of the structures examined in the book. The point is also made that the more powerful municipal administration has become, the less interest it has engendered in the average citizen, an aspect which is probably relevant elsewhere too.

This is not a new book. It was published in 1976, but this is the first paperback edition. There are two minor criticisms: footnotes are all lumped together as "Notes" at the end of the book, and there is no bibliography. *Urban politics* is an invaluable work for all students of Victorian England and those interested in urban history of any period.

E J CARRUTHERS
University of South Africa

RODNEY ATTWOOD, *The Hessians, mercenaries from Hessen-Kassel in the American Revolution*, Cambridge University Press, Cambridge, 1980, xi + 292 pp., maps, bibl., index.

This is the first comprehensive work on the role of German auxiliaries during the American Revolution and is certainly in the best tradition of scholarship in the field of war and society. Rodney Attwood's impressive bibliography bears witness to a thorough consultation of wide-ranging German, British and American sources which have been woven into a readable and informative military history.

It is with the soldiers of Hessen-Kassel who fought in the War of Independence from 1776 to 1783 that Attwood is exclusively concerned. He begins by looking at the militant character of this small principality and its reliance on the "soldier trade" for its economic survival. The Hessian army was proportionately the largest in Germany in the late 18th century. The militia was also Hessen's greatest source of revenue. Funds derived in this way were used for much of the reform programme initiated by Frederick II, an "enlightened despot".

The Hessians were renowned fighters, particularly the two *Jäger* companies whose expertise in camouflage enabled them to make a singular contribution to the British war effort against the colonies. The author provides background information about the officer corps of these companies in chapter two and the rest of the book reflects the interests of this elite. It is a pity, however, that the rank and file are glossed over in generalisations.

The military aspects predominate and chapters 3, 4 and 5 are given over to a detailed, but lucid, description of the major military engagements of the war. In the early encounters the Hessians were successful because of their flexible formation in battle. It is suggested, however, that the ease of these conquests was deceptive and their defeat at Trenton was a major setback for the Hessians — not least because of its moral impact. But, as the writer himself points out, if Trenton destroyed the myth of Hessian invincibility, the Battle of Redbank shattered the physical reality, when so many men were lost (p.128). And by 1779 the Landgraf's battalion did little more than mark time.

Some of the most interesting chapters in the book are more social than military, and deal with the Hessian view of the American Revolution (chapter 7), plundering (8) and desertion (9). In general, the Hessians adopted an unfavourable view of American society in its struggle against British hegemony: Americans were seen as "ungracious subjects of a too gracious monarch" who had "grown incorrigible through kind treatment and an excess of luxury" (p.159). The ideals of the Revolution stood in stark contrast to reverence for the monarchy and submission to authoritarian Calvinism which was the credo of the Hessians. Despite this reactionary stance, the Germans' comments on slavery seem prophetic of modern sentiments: they sharply criticised the hypocrisy of the rebels' protestations about the equality of man when enslavement was the foundation of American economic society. Such negative comment on American society did not, however, diminish the attraction of the apparent opulence and abundance of the New World (p.167). Certainly the American enticements to desertion (pp. 191, 196) were not without takers — beside the rank and file, a small number of officers were among the deserters. But the most significant deterrent to desertion was the initial lack of American military success. However, this changed with declining British fortunes. It seems that in this regard the Hessians were no different from other mercenary groups.

Of crucial importance to an understanding of an economy based on mercenary activities in Dr Attwood's work is the section on the society of Hessen-Kassel and how it was influenced by the distant war (chapter 11). Certain elements in the country did well from it, despite war-weariness after the Seven Years' War and the French occupation. Trading companies and arms manufacturers took the lion's share, but the wave of architectural improvement (i.e. the building of a foundling hospital) also received impetus from war revenue and this spearheaded reform under enlightened despotic tutelage. The whole of Hessian society had become geared towards providing mercenary forces and the American war placed the Landgraf in a strong position to pursue his policy.

In his perceptive analysis of Hessian military organisation, particularly in logistical and tactical practices, Attwood concludes that the Hessians displayed two distinct weaknesses, namely, a tardiness in attack and a sadly unimaginative leadership. In the final analysis, it is the *Jäger* that emerges as the hero of this German military adventure.

One is left with the picture of a minor German state making a contribution to the history of the American War of Independence quite out of proportion to its size. The picture is enhanced by the many insights into the inner workings of Hessen-Kassel and the machinery which made this Germany auxiliary force such a vital part of the British arsenal.

G C CUTHBERTSON
University of South Africa

R F LESLIE, *The History of Poland since 1863*, Cambridge University Press, Cambridge, 1980, xi + 494 pp., maps, bibl., index.

This volume forms part of the series issued by the National Association for Soviet and East European Studies for the purpose of promoting study and research on the social sciences as they relate to the Soviet Union and the countries of Eastern Europe. R F Leslie (chapters 1 — 3), A Polonsky (chapters 4 — 7), J Ciechanowski (chapters 8 — 11) and Z Pelczynski (chapters 12 — 17) are the authors of this joint work which has been subject to a minimal editorship only.

During the sixteenth century Poland exerted a strong influence on European affairs. One of the largest countries in Europe, it was a time when her prosperity was at its greatest. John Sobieski (1674—1696) was its last great ruler. He is remembered for his relief of Vienna when it was besieged by the Turks in 1683. The period after his death was one of continuous decay. Among the causes which contributed to this decline were the weakness of the monarchy, the chaotic constitution with its destructive veto system, the self-aggrandizement of the nobility, the decline of the middle class, the oppression of the peasantry, religious and racial strife, and the lack of natural boundaries and a strong army. While Poland was declining, the neighbouring states of Russia and Prussia were growing in size and military strength. Once their influence was established in Poland, the allies, Frederick the Great and Catherine the Great of Prussia and Russia respectively, could not restrain their greed and with the connivance of Austria, brought about the partition of Poland in 1772, 1793 and 1795.

The partitions of Poland meant not only the loss of independence, but also a profound crisis for Polish society. For a resurrected Poland to emerge, it would have to adjust itself to the systems which had developed in the modern capitalist states. In regard to the question of nationalism, Poland was faced with the problem of substantial minorities. In the western areas Protestant Germans were intermingled with the Polish population. In the north and east Lithuanians, Byelorussians and Ukrainians were to develop a sense of their own nationality, distinct from that of the Poles who had formerly been their masters. Even more

complicated was the Jewish Question. A large Jewish population, settled in Poland since the Middle Ages and concentrated in the urban areas, raised social questions when Poles migrated to the towns from the country. Industrial development did take place to a certain extent, especially in central Poland, but it was sustained by foreign capital, with the result that employers were not very sympathetic to Polish workers. Although the partitioning powers undertook agrarian reforms, it provided no real solution for the land hunger of the expanding population in the rural areas or the growing proletariat in the villages.

In 1863 a Polish revolt broke out against the process of repression and Russianization which had been undertaken with extraordinary severity. There was never a chance of victory — it was simply an act of national desperation. The suppression was ruthless and the spirit of Poland seemed now to be broken; but Polish exiles, particularly in friendly France, never lost sight of the woes of their country. They schemed for the day when an independent Poland would again be resurrected. That was achieved at the Treaty of Versailles in 1919.

During the period between the two World Wars a succession of right-wing regimes battled with socio-economic problems while failing to embark on an adequate programme of modernization. Anti-semitism became an all too frequent tool in the hands of these governments. The catastrophic German invasion of Poland in September 1939 saw the country suffer, perhaps, the worst years of its history.

The postwar period has seen Poland transformed. Many problems of the past have disappeared, but industrialization, the structure of peasant agriculture and political association with the Soviet Union present the Polish People's Republic with difficulties which have yet to be resolved.

This book is closely-researched and well documented. It is a pity, though, that it concludes in 1975 for so much has happened in Poland since, for example, the formation of the Solidarity Union under the now famous Union leader Lech Walesa, the expulsion of the Polish leader Gierek from the Communist Party, the growth of national pride and resistance following the visit of the first Polish pope, Pope John Paul II and the very serious threat of a Russian invasion to quell Poland's heresy.

D M SCHER
University of South Africa

C HOLMES, *Anti-semitism in British society 1876—1939*, Edward Arnold, London, 1979. viii + 328 pp. bibl., index.

This work is a major study of anti-semitism, as an ideology, in Britain and focusses on the turbulent period between 1876 and 1939 when, in the face of Jewish immigration, war or the threat of war, and social and economic unrest, hostility towards the Jewish community reached new heights.

The author stresses that in general, as far as discriminatory legislation and physical violence are concerned, Jews lived easier lives in this period than they did in earlier years. Certainly violence did manifest itself in the East End at the time of the major Jewish influx, in south Wales in 1911, during the First World War and as Fascist Blackshirts marched through east London, but Jews did not have to face a centrally organized program such as the York massacre of 1190 or contend with the official expulsion order of 1290. Immigration legislation was not aimed specifically at Jews nor was it intended to keep out the able-bodied immigrants who might benefit the country.

Nevertheless anti-semitism was present in Britain and the expression of hostility towards Jews was not uncommon between 1876 and 1939. Dr. Holmes has examined the major features of anti-semitic thought and their expression starting from the Eastern Crisis of 1876 which he identifies as the first serious manifestation of anti-semitism. It was during this crisis that personal anti-semitism, in the form of, attacks on the British Prime Minister Disraeli who had been born a Jew, was extended into an attack upon sections of the Jewish community.

The South African War also brought forth some anti-semitism, especially when it was pointed out in some quarters that the Uitlander capitalists had systematically inflamed relations with the Boers, while it was emphasised that the Uitlander voices pleading for war were not always those of British subjects but in many cases belonged to Jewish capitalists with an indeterminate concept of nationality. It was in such an atmosphere that anti-semitism developed a conspiratorial tone, with the claim that Jewish capitalists in South Africa received support from Jewish financial groups in Britain. The war, some said, was being fought for their benefit. This emerges from the writings of J A Hobson and other Radical and Socialist writers.

Both the Eastern Crisis of 1875 and the South African War triggered off hostility against Jews which stressed their tenuous attachment to British society. This was exacerbated by the debates which developed after 1881 over Jewish immigration. Immigrant Jews were accused of displacing British labour and causing wage reductions. Jewish landlords, too, were seen as responsible for all the housing problems which blighted the East End of London. Jews were also charged with social separateness and it was pointed out that they "ignored local 'customs', 'religious observances', 'days of rest', and contravened established morality".

The author has shown how, before 1914, opposition towards Jews rested mainly on religious and other perceived cultural differences. After the First World War an important shift in emphasis occurred in that racism became the dominant strain of anti-semitism. Conspiracy theories flourished in such an atmosphere, the most infamous appearing as *The Protocols of the Elders of Zion*.

A particularly interesting section of the book concerns the British Union of Fascists founded by Oswald Mosley in 1932 and its attitude towards the Jews. Dr. Holmes supports the argument that there were two sides to Moseley's personality and "both sides of his character were revealed in his references to Jews. In his set speeches and public statements the approach was a reasoned explanation of the matter in hand, but he could show when angered the other side of his personality, shedding the persona of reason and becoming the black knight". Holmes concludes that Moseley revealed a hostility towards Jews "which was expressed within an ethnocentric and conspiratorial framework". Moseley's anti-semitism was expressed in even more vicious terms by his disciples such as William Joyce and A K Chesterton.

This book is well-documented and well-researched and should be of substantial use to those interested in modern Jewish history.

D M SCHER
University of South Africa

A J BÖESEKEN, *Onder Suidersterre; Tussen die Ooste en die Weste, 1652—1795*, Tafelberg, Kaapstad, 1981, 107 pp., indeks, kaarte, illus., R12,50.

Die nuutste werk van Dr. Anna Böeseke, gesaghebbende oor die 17de en 18de eeuse Suid-Afrikaanse geskiedenis, bewys opnuut haar gespesialiseerde kennis van hierdie tydperk. Alhoewel die werk op die jeug gerig is, kan volwassenes dit met groot vrug lees, want die skryfster het nie onnodig haar verhaal oorvereenvoudig nie en die materiaal word deurgaans op prikkelende en interessante wyse aangebied.

Die onderwerp van die werk is die gebeure aan die Kaap oor bykans 150 jaar van Nederlandse bestuur. Anders as wat dit in soveel skoolhandboeke die geval is, word die verhaal nie streng chronologies met 'n oormaat droë feite aangebied nie. Daar word eerder op interessante anekdotes uit die periode gekonsentreer. Die skryfster slaag op hierdie wyse uitmuntend daarin om 'n kleurvolle prentjie, veral van die Nederlandse nedersetting in die Suidwes-Kaap te skilder. Dit is ook verblydend dat dr. Böeseke nie slegs aandag skenk aan die belangrikste Hollandse amptenare soos Jan van Riebeeck, Simon van der Stel en Rijk Tulbagh nie, maar dat sy ook poog om die gewone mense aan die Kaap in die verhaal te betrek. Die skryfster sien ook nooit die geskiedenis van hierdie geweste in 'n vakuum nie, maar verbind voortdurend gebeurtenisse in die westerse wêreld met die lotgevalle van die Kaapse inwoners. Voorts sluit dr. Böeseke ook interessante en selfs buitengewone feite in haar verhaal in. So word daar byvoorbeeld gewys op die eerste Gelofte wat in Suid-Afrika gemaak is — lank voor die Voortrekker-gelofte van Desember 1838. Op 6 April 1654 het Jan van Riebeeck in dankbaarheid vir die wyse waarop die Nederlanders in die nuwe land geseë is, belowe dat die dag altyd as 'n dank- en biddag gevier sou word sodat "...die Here se weldade aan hom en sy mense bewys, nooit vergeet sal word nie". (p.22).

Die verhaaltrant waarin die werk geskryf is, is lewendig en onderhoudend. Ongelukkig is die aanbieding ietwat fragmentaries. Gevolglik slaag die skryfster in sekere opsigte nie daarin om 'n eenheidsbeeld van gebeure en situasies te skep nie. Die metode om die verhaal onder verskeie opskryffies in klein eenhede te verdeel lei byvoorbeeld daartoe dat die toestande aan die grens nie samehangend voorgestel word nie. Die aard en leefwyse van die San word byvoorbeeld nie in verband gebring met die probleme wat hulle vir die grensboere veroorsaak het nie.

'n Uitstekende byvoeging tot die werk is die register — iets wat 'n kind so gou moontlik moet leer om te benut. Die "Terugblik" waarin gebeure in Afrika en die res van die wêreld in tabelvorm langs mekaar gestel word, is ook uiters geslaagd. Die teks word verder deur talle puik illustrasies toegelig. Dit is veral verblydend dat minder bekende afbeeldings gebruik is en nie dié wat gewoonlik in ander werke voorkom nie.

Die werk het beslis 'n belangrike bydrae tot die historiese jeuglektuur gelewer, maar 'n mens kry tog die gevoel dat 'n gulde geleentheid om reg aan die geskiedenis van al die inwoners van die Kaap te laat geskied, nie ten volle benut is nie. Alhoewel dr. Böeseke beweer dat ons kennis van die inheemse volke vandag nog "skaars" en "onseker" is, word daar weinig pogings aangewend om hierdie leemte in kennis en begrip te vul. Dit is wel waar dat die inheemse groepe nie geskrewe dokumente nagelaat het nie, maar daar het die afgelope tyd heelwat werke oor die vroeë Khoi, San, Xhosa en Sotho verskyn waarin dié probleem in hoë mate oorbrug is. Deurgaans kry 'n mens die indruk in hierdie werk (al noem dr. Böeseke hulle die "Inwoners van die Suidland") dat die inheemse mense slegs as skadufigure op die periferie van die Blanke nedersetting figureer. Ons maak met die meeste van hulle kennis as vehandelaars, veediewe en as "pro-

bleme" op die grens (die lewenswyse van die San word wel kortliks geskets). Nêrens word 'n verklaring gegee waarom die Khoikhoi, San en Xhosa weerstand teen Blanke uitbreiding gebied het nie. Hulle werklike vrees by die aanskoue van die Blanke wat hom permanent vestig en tradisionele weivelde beset, word nie verduidelik nie. Dat die inheemse bevolking in werklikheid *nie* skadufigure was nie blyk byvoorbeeld daaruit dat toe Jan van Riebeeck sy fort wou bou, die Suid-Afrikaanse Hoëveld reeds talle uitgestrekte Sotho-nedersettings gehad het. Trouens, terwyl die kommandeur teen die natuurelemente gestry het om 'n boerdery aan die Kaap aan die gang te kry, was daar in die binneland inheemse gemeenskappe wat al eeue lank die akkerbou suksesvol beoefen het. Voorts, terwyl Van Riebeeck gepoog het om die veeruilhandel met die Khoikhoi te bevorder, het die binnelandse gemeenskappe reeds meer as 1 000 jaar lank op groot skaal met mekaar handel gedryf. Waar Swartes wel ter sprake kom in dr. Bōeseken se werk, verskyn hulle uit die niet, byvoorbeeld die Xhosa, sonder agtergrond en eie ideale. Die disintegrasie en ontworteling van die Khoikhoi-gemeenskap word voorts glad nie behandel nie en die lang geskiedenis van miskennings wat hierdie groep in vorige werke te beurt geval het, word ook nie hier juis reggestel nie. Hulle behou steeds die stereotipiese beeld van "lui", "dom" en "astrant". Miskien kon die skryfster meer simpatie getoon het met die tragiek van hierdie mense wat uiteindelik in twee wêreldes moes leef.

'n Belangrike en interessante boek dus, maar nie sonder gebreke nie.

L J HEYDENRYCH
Universiteit van Suid-Afrika