

Dictionary of Literary Biography

Volume 17:

Twentieth-
Century American
Historians

Dictionary of Literary Biography • Volume Seventeen

Twentieth-Century American Historians

Edited by Clyde N. Wilson
University of South Carolina

A Bruccoli Clark Book
Gale Research Company • Book Tower • Detroit, Michigan 48226
1983

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Manufactured by Edwards Brothers, Inc.
Ann Arbor, Michigan
Printed in the United States of America

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Library of Congress Cataloging in Publication Data

Main entry under title:

Twentieth-century American historians.

(Dictionary of literary biography; v. 17)

"A Bruccoli Clark Book."

Includes index.

I. Historians—United States—Biography. I. Wilson, Clyde Norman. II. Series.

E175.45.T85 1983

907'.2022 [B]

82-24210

ISBN 0-8103-1144-5

Foreword

This volume contains literary biographies of fifty-nine historical writers. To be eligible for inclusion, writers had to meet three criteria. They had to be American; their historical writings had to be concentrated chiefly upon the United States; and their most important work had to fall within the twentieth century.

The historians selected for inclusion are primarily but not exclusively academic and professional ones, a preponderance which merely reflects the way most historical literature has been produced in this century. "Popular" historians have by no means been neglected. Though there has been a tension since the late nineteenth century between popular and academic historians, when dealing with the best of either sort, the distinction tends to break down. Allan Nevins, one of the greatest historians of the period, began life as a journalist and was admitted to the fraternity of academic historians at a late date. Another great historian, Douglas Southall Freeman, was academically trained but spent most of his life as a journalist. If most of the figures included herein were academic professors of history, many were not. Shelby Foote is primarily a novelist and Arthur M. Schlesinger, Jr., primarily a political publicist. Carl Sandburg was a poet and Robert Selph Henry, a railroad executive.

If historical literature has been broadly construed to include both scholarly and nonscholarly writers, the selection of figures has been narrowed in other ways. The writers represented have been limited to those writing primarily on American history because American history itself is a large enough and a clearly enough defined field or "genre" to merit distinct treatment. Thus, the numerous distinguished Americans who have contributed to the history of lands and peoples other than those of North America have not been considered for this particular volume.

If there is another obvious bias in the selection, it is in favor of the earlier years of the twentieth century against the later, of the older against the younger. Only twenty of the fifty-nine figures treated are still living, and all but a few of those have probably completed their major work. There are

many historians now in mid-career who will perhaps deserve inclusion in any final accounting of the best of the twentieth century, but it seemed better in making selections of subjects for this volume to err on the side of certainty and to leave as many such decisions as possible for a later and more historical perspective.

Selecting the best historians, even within the limits defined, is a risky business. Two distinguished scholars, Robin W. Winks and Marcus Cunliffe, who edited an excellent book of essays on American historians (*Pastmasters: Some Essays on American Historians*, 1969), expended five pages of introduction defending their selection of figures for treatment and another page defending the contributors selected for the sketches. Since *Twentieth-Century American Historians* is larger and more inclusive than their volume, possibly less of a defense is needed.

Perhaps there will be substantial if not unanimous agreement on the fourteen major figures selected for extended treatment—Charles M. Andrews, Charles A. Beard, Daniel Boorstin, Douglas Southall Freeman, Richard Hofstadter, Perry Miller, Samuel Eliot Morison, Allan Nevins, Vernon L. Parrington, Ulrich B. Phillips, David M. Potter, Frederick Jackson Turner, T. Harry Williams, and C. Vann Woodward. For the remainder of the fifty-nine, the selection may be contested. Since American historians do not agree on methodology, interpretation, or ideological allegiance, there is not likely to be perfect agreement among them on the "important" figures. It would, indeed, be easy to draw up another list of writers as numerous as those in this volume and arguably as important as some of those included herein. Rather than fault the omissions herein, however, the reader is invited to enjoy the unprecedented breadth of ground covered and to recognize that the *Dictionary of Literary Biography* is a lively and flexible enterprise that has not necessarily exhausted with this volume all it has to say about American historical literature.

History is both a branch of literature and a scholarly discipline. As a field of literature, history is perhaps more formal and institutionalized and changes more slowly than fiction or poetry. To

speak of schools only in the broadest categories, American history in the early part of the century was dominated by New Englanders of Federalist and patrician heritage, with a strong opposition provided by frontier-oriented or "Progressive" Middle Westerners. Since World War I, "liberal" writers and themes have predominated, though with a continuing, strong, and often subtle counterpoint by Southern and other "conservative" writers. The 1960s and 1970s created other movements and schools that are not yet fully developed. And this is to treat only the largest of observable categories.

But while it is true that most historians fall into "schools," it is also true that each one's encounter with the raw stuff of the human past is highly individual and that the best historians develop over time, the time often being a quite long career. As in the case of Supreme Court nominees, one cannot always predict from a historian's antecedents, training, or previous work which way his research and thought will lead him. An effort has been made to select the best individual historians, from the point of view of published books, without regard to schools. Had the volume focused on teachers, collectors, or researchers, rather than writers, the list would have been slightly, though not greatly, different.

There is no avoiding the fact that historians differ in ideological allegiance, that they debate over methodology and interpretation, and that they compete for professional accolades. They also often leave behind them students, colleagues, and competitors who have vested interests in increasing or lessening their reputations. And there is no universal critical authority that can be appealed to to settle questions of merit and precedence. An effort has been made to give every figure treated herein a generally sympathetic biographer, who has, of course, been urged to give a balanced treatment and

to take account of criticism. While there are some risks in this approach, they are not nearly as great as the risk of turning the treatment of important and gifted writers over to their enemies.

American historical writing has produced a number of memorable works and a very respectable body of literature. Nevertheless, history as a whole has suffered in the twentieth century from a considerable disarray—doubt about its philosophical underpinnings and its "relevance," methodological controversy, gaps between profession and practice, uncertainty as to the position of history in the cultural domain. There have been rather few attempts at critical assessment of American historical literature as a body, and the few that exist are not notably successful. An adequate history of American historical writing, strangely, is yet to be written, the few that exist being either catalogues or interpretations based on a limited sample. It could be that the collective biography represented by *Twentieth-Century American Historians* may make, as one of its side effects, a contribution toward that overarching account of American historical literature that remains to be written.

For that reason and many others, the opportunity to treat historians once more as a part of American literature has been very pleasing. Whatever else may be said about them, the greatest historians are also literary artists, and it is nearly impossible to imagine a good historian who is not also a good writer. It may be, too, as has been suggested in a number of quarters, that history, having swung as far as possible toward "science," is in the process of swinging back and rapidly eliminating the gap between itself and "art." If that is the case, this survey by means of literary biography of the accomplishments of Americans writing about their own history in the twentieth century stands a chance to be both timely and enduring.

—Clyde N. Wilson

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Acknowledgments

This book was produced by BC Research. Karen L. Rood is senior editor for the *Dictionary of Literary Biography* series. Judith S. Baughman and Robert H. Griffin were the in-house editors.

The production staff included Mary Betts, Joseph Caldwell, Patricia Coate, Angela Dixon, Lynn Felder, Joyce Fowler, Nancy L. Houghton, Sharon K. Kirkland, Cynthia D. Lybrand, Alice A. Parsons, Jean W. Ross, Joycelyn R. Smith, Debra D. Straw, Robin A. Sumner, Meredith Walker, and Lynne C. Zeigler. Charles L. Wentworth is photography editor.

Walter W. Ross and Anne Dixon did the library research with the assistance of the staff at the Thomas Cooper Library of the University of South Carolina: Michael Freeman, Gary Geer, Alexander M. Gilchrist, W. Michael Havener, David Lincove, Donna Nance, Harriet B. Oglesbee, Jean Rhyne, Paula Swope, Jane Thesing, Ellen Tillett, and Beth S. Woodard.

The following people were especially helpful in providing illustrations for this volume: Anna Marie Alexander, Emerson University; Donna Latrelle, Organization of American Historians; and Judith Schiff, Yale University Library.

Special thanks are due to Joel Myerson, Carol Reardon, and Robert Weir for their help in launching this project.

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Dictionary of Literary Biography • Volume Seventeen

Twentieth-Century American Historians

Dictionary of Literary Biography

James Truslow Adams

(18 October 1878-18 May 1949)

C. James Taylor

University of South Carolina

SELECTED BOOKS: *Some Notes on Currency Problems* (New York: Lindley, 1908); *Speculation and the Reform of the New York Stock Exchange* (Summit, N.J.: Privately printed, 1913); *Memorials of Old Bridgehampton* (Bridgehampton, N.Y.: Privately printed, 1916); *History of the Town of Southampton, East of Canoe Place* (Bridgehampton, N.Y.: Hampton Press, 1918); *The Founding of New England* (Boston: Atlantic Monthly Press, 1921); *Revolutionary New England, 1691-1776* (Boston: Atlantic Monthly Press, 1923); *New England in the Republic, 1776-1850* (Boston: Little, Brown, 1926); *Provincial Society, 1690-1763* (New York: Macmillan, 1927); *Our Business Civilization: Some Aspects of American Culture* (New York: A. & C. Boni, 1929); republished as *A Searchlight on America* (London: Routledge, 1930); *The Adams Family* (Boston: Little, Brown, 1930; London: Oxford University Press, 1930); *The Epic of America* (Boston: Little, Brown, 1931; London: Routledge, 1932); *The Tempo of Modern Life* (New York: A. & C. Boni, 1931); *The March of Democracy*, volumes 1 and 2 (New York & London: Scribners, 1932-1933); republished as *History of the American People* (London: Routledge, 1933); *Henry Adams* (New York: A. & C. Boni, 1933; London: Routledge, 1933); *America's Tragedy* (New York & London: Scribners, 1934); *The Record of America*, by Adams and Charles Garrett

Vannest (New York: Scribners, 1935); *The Living Jefferson* (New York & London: Scribners, 1936); *Building the British Empire, to the End of the First Empire* (New York & London: Scribners, 1938); *Empire on the Seven Seas: The British Empire, 1784-*



James Truslow Adams

1939 (New York & London: Scribners, 1940); *An American Looks at the British Empire* (New York & Toronto: Farrar & Rinehart, 1940); republished as *America Faces the War and An American Looks at the British Empire* (*America Faces the War*, No. 2) (London: Oxford University Press, 1941); *The American: The Making of a New Man* (New York: Scribners, 1943); *Frontiers of American Culture: A Study of Adult Education in a Democracy* (New York: Scribners, 1944); *Big Business in a Democracy* (New York: Scribners, 1945).

James Truslow Adams, a businessman turned scholar, wrote largely interpretative histories notable for their style and scope. His career spanned the world wars, and he produced scores of volumes and articles, most notably the studies he wrote during the 1920s about early New England.

Adams, a Brooklyn-born member of a business-oriented family, endured an unexceptional childhood during which his training and education better suited him to the world of commerce and investments than to scholarship. His mother, Elizabeth Truslow Adams, was an invalid, and his father, William Newton Adams, was a dour man dissatisfied with his lot in life as a moderately successful employee of a Wall Street brokerage firm. A bookish youth, Adams seldom participated in the games, sports, or other endeavors normally associated with American boys. Aside from an addiction to reading and his success in school, little in his educational background suggested that he would leave a lasting impression on the historical and literary worlds. Rather than attending a well-known college or major university after high-school graduation from Brooklyn Polytechnic, he continued at that institution, where he obtained a bachelor of arts degree in 1898. During his final year there, he edited the school paper and was class president, valedictorian, and poet. He dreamed of a career in law or as an engineer—each, however, was beyond what he believed he could achieve. Lawyers frequently had to declaim, and Adams was painfully shy—too shy to consider the bar seriously. Engineering necessitated advanced study in math and science, areas in which he felt lacking. After dismissing his first career choices for the shortcomings that he perceived in himself, he enrolled at Yale to study philosophy. It did not prove satisfactory to him. Within a year he left the university and returned to New York, where he took employment as

a messenger at the firm for which his father worked. The Yale M.A. frequently mentioned among his accomplishments was obtained by a simple application through the mail in 1900, before that institution established standards which necessitated formalized instruction for the degree. A few years later he made a final attempt at graduate study when he began to take history courses at Columbia University. He dropped out after only six weeks, however, believing his classmates too unsophisticated. At this point his association with the academic world came to an end. Invitations extended later to enter the scholastic realm at Columbia, Wesleyan, and elsewhere were dismissed by Adams, who believed himself unfit for teaching or lecturing.

Until 1912 Adams confined his talents to the world of business. He was employed as the secretary of the Jamestown & Chautaugua Railroad and in 1907 became a partner in the Wall Street firm of Henderson, Lindley and Company. Even then he was fearful that the vicissitudes of the stock market might someday financially ruin him. This unwarranted specter of financial failure haunted him during both his business and literary careers. To guard against this possibility, which he suspected was a real likelihood for all Wall Streeters, Adams established a goal for himself whereby he determined to retire from the brokerage business upon reaching the age of thirty-five or when he amassed \$100,000 in savings. As it happened, in 1912, when he turned thirty-four, he had accumulated the \$100,000, and—as he had promised himself—he retired from Wall Street.

Shortly after taking this new direction, Adams built a house at Bridgehampton, Long Island, where he settled to research and write history. Prior to this time his literary exercises had dealt exclusively with economic affairs. In 1908 he had published *Some Notes on Currency Problems* and in 1913 had completed *Speculation and the Reform of the New York Stock Exchange*. His first historical work, *Memoirs of Old Bridgehampton*, a study concerning his adopted Long Island home, was published in 1916 by a local newspaper company. It sold out quickly and immediately became a local favorite. Within two years Adams noted that the \$1.50 volume was fetching \$75.00 in Boston bookstores.

His next effort, *History of the Town of Southampton, East of Canoe Place* (1918), local history like his first work, treated a larger geographical area and attracted a wider audience, including professional historians, who noted the author's thoroughness of research and literary skill. Assessing as well as chronicling the settlement, society, and com-

merce of the southeastern Long Island communities, Adams won acclaim for his incisiveness, just as he did for his precise scholarship. Especially noteworthy to the scholarly reviewers was the fact that the book was good local history free from the common filiopietistic burdens. Both of his early works have stood the test of time and were republished in 1962.

By the time Adams had completed the *History of the Town of Southampton*, the United States had entered World War I. At the age of forty he joined the army as an officer in the Military Intelligence Service. He assisted in the accumulation and distillation of historical, geographical, and cultural data about various countries and regions around the globe. With these findings he participated in the writing of officers' handbooks. In 1919 he sailed to France as archivist of the American delegation to the peace conference and was charged with the care of classified maps.

Adams's wartime and peace-conference service introduced him to renowned persons in numerous fields, including history, politics, diplomacy, and journalism. This experience, built upon the years he spent in business, he termed "mixing with the world," which he considered as "important for a Historian as forever poking over sources in a library." In the essay "Is History Science?," collected in *The Tempo of Modern Life* (1931), he came to the "conclusion that too long an academic training and career is rather a detriment than a benefit to a historian." And he continued to express his belief that any professionally trained scholar should have his academic understanding "supplemented by some years of an active career in affairs among men."

Upon his return to America, he embarked upon a new study of New England in which he attempted to correct the hagiographic sentiments that had crept into the works of many nineteenth-century scholars. Adams claimed that he was moved to attempt his New England trilogy by inadequacies in John Gorham Palfrey's highly laudatory and patriotic multivolume *History of New England* (1859-1890). Certainly not the first historian to question the unqualified adoration heaped on the New England founding fathers, Adams found, after an immersion in the primary and secondary sources, that the Puritans were motivated by a whole range of factors more often selfish than selfless. Furthermore, he concluded, the search for religious liberty often associated with their colonization was exaggerated if not entirely inaccurate. The "old conception of New England history" had that section "set-

tled by persecuted religious refugees, devoted to liberty of conscience, who, in the disputes with the mother-country, formed a united mass of liberty-loving patriots unanimously opposed to an unmitigated tyranny." In the first volume, *The Founding of New England* (1921), he did not deify the Puritan leaders nor did he attempt to canonize entire generations of New Englanders. Instead, he contended, his experience "mixing with the world" necessitated a broader critical interpretation.

Perhaps because he believed he was correcting long-standing inaccuracies and misconceptions, Adams went beyond the balanced interpretation he sought to present. Although he attempted to demonstrate that the New England Puritans were moved by multiple influences, the one factor he constantly repeated was economic. Their desire for acquisition of place and property, he wrote, far exceeded their desire to live democratically and humanely. This resulted not in the unbiased history that he insisted he was writing but, in fact, in a work so vehemently anti-Puritan that it was a good balance only for the extreme views presented in nineteenth-century studies such as Palfrey's.

According to Adams the founders of Massachusetts were bigoted, mercenary, undemocratic, and bloodthirsty. What enduring good that developed in and around the Bay Colony evolved in spite of them. Consequently, the heroes were the individuals, families, factions, and congregations who thwarted the minority's leadership. The population, Adams insisted, was overwhelmingly non-Puritan. He estimated that only one in five of the adult males who came to Massachusetts during the height of Puritan influence was in sympathy with the ruling oligarchy.

Adams's unorthodox conclusions alienated some scholars, but most, including the New England establishment, accepted the work for its research and literary value. Samuel Eliot Morison, who disagreed with Adams's violent treatment of the Puritans and felt obliged to answer some of Adams's particular attacks, concluded in 1930 that despite the interpretation "it is still the best general survey of seventeenth-century Massachusetts." And as late as 1962 Richard Schlatter ranked *The Founding of New England* "still the best one-volume synthesis of New England history in the seventeenth century," regardless of its interpretive faults. *The Founding of New England* was Adams's outstanding single work. For it he received a Pulitzer Prize in 1922. It immediately established him as a major authority in American colonial history.

The second volume of his New England tril-

ogy, *Revolutionary New England, 1691-1776*, published in 1923, was also immediately acclaimed by both scholars and popular reviewers. Because he had acquired a reputation as a readable and stimulating author, the sales of this volume surpassed those of *The Founding of New England*. Adams sifted through mainly printed sources to trace the internal social and economic movements as well as the development of political revolution in New England. Reviewers praised the breadth of the work, which included views of the late colonial world from both provincial and English perspectives. As in the first volume, however, his description of bigoted and mercenary Puritans whose influence impeded the development of democracy and liberty distracted from an otherwise first-rate history.

Adams's final volume of the history, *New England in the Republic, 1776-1850*, published in 1926, continued his thesis but proved to be much less successful with critics than were the first two. As in the previous volumes, economics remained the basic interpretative theme. The main thrust of the work was to demonstrate that by the middle of the nineteenth century the common man in New England, who had long been held in the lower class by the dominance of the wealthy patricians, had elevated himself to fulfill the promise of the Revolution. As a minor theme, Adams reviewed New England's contributions to the growth of sectionalism. The period covered in this volume was too long and beyond the scope of his greatest expertise. With less original research, the result was merely a work of sweeping generalizations.

As the New England trilogy unfolded, it pre-saged the direction that Adams's historical writing would take for the rest of his career. His early writings exhibited traditional scholarly archival research complemented by a firm grasp of the secondary sources. The result, once his fine literary style was added, was a complete history composed of provocative interpretation and resting on a solid foundation of documentation. This formula permitted him to excel in both scholarly and popular realms. Unfortunately, his study of *New England in the Republic* lacked one of the essential ingredients. With a few exceptions his work as a historian after this study was to have little impact in academic circles and was regarded lightly by most scholars. He emerged from the 1920s as one of the most popular and widely read American historians, and while he continued to deal with historical topics, he became more of an essayist than a scholar.

Even before he completed the trilogy, he had started a volume for the History of American Life

series, a pioneer multivolume treatment of American social history. *Provincial Society, 1690-1763*, published in 1927 as the third volume of the series, was vastly superior to *New England in the Republic*. Based largely on secondary materials, the work was buttressed by generous extracts from diaries and newspapers—two of his favorite colonial sources. Among his constant concerns were the increasing disparity between the rich and the poor and the growth of sectionalism which resulted in an East-West dichotomy. *Provincial Society, 1690-1763* was the ideal vehicle in which to display his literary style and skill for generalization and interpretation. Furthermore, the book was the most widely and favorably reviewed of all his works and marked the high point of his career as a historian.

Unfortunately, *Provincial Society, 1690-1763* did not sell well initially and proved to be a source of irritation for Adams. He was disappointed that he received only \$1,000 for it and at various times blamed the editors (Dixon Ryan Fox and Arthur M. Schlesinger, Sr.) or Macmillan Company, the publisher. As the entire series sold well over the years, he complained privately and in print that he had been abused. Regardless of where the fault, if any existed, lay, his concern over the small return on this literary investment reveals an ironic influence upon his own work. Just as he found the early settlers of New England activated by the desire to improve their economic lot rather than by more praiseworthy religious or ideological motives, his career as a historian was propelled by a desire to write volumes or articles that would be popular and return a profit on the time he invested.

For several reasons Adams became increasingly concerned about the profit his work would return. Before he became a scholar he had made and saved so much money that the return he obtained from his writing often seemed insignificant in comparison. Later, however, holding no academic position, he depended upon his writing for his livelihood. He married Kathryn M. Seely in 1927, which created additional financial burdens for the former bachelor of forty-eight years. This change in his attitude, which saw him become as concerned with receipts as with reviews, generally coincided with the stock market crash and the following Depression. Much of his personal correspondence and some of his essays reveal the remunerative preoccupation of his literary activities.

Beginning in 1927 he wrote ninety-eight sketches for the *Dictionary of American Biography*. It was a task he readily accepted for two reasons: he did not have to leave his home to do research and, as

he termed it, the work "comes in handily as a pot boiler." The essays were for the most part biographies of colonial figures, but he did some on nineteenth-century historians as well. Interestingly, he wrote sketches both of his favorite historian Francis Parkman and of John Gorham Palfrey, whose shortcomings led Adams to launch his New England trilogy. In these biographies, as in much of his later work, he revealed as much about himself as he did about his subjects. Parkman offered Adams an opportunity to discuss his own feelings concerning the nature of historical scholarship. The great student of the French and Indian War came off well because he epitomized what Adams believed a historian should do and be. "In the conception and execution of his work," Adams wrote, "Parkman was primarily an artist, with the result that his history has an enduring place in literature." Consequently, the sketch reads like a highly laudatory review emphasizing those things in Parkman's personality and work that resembled Adams's own career. Palfrey, however, whose work he found wanting, was attacked as a person as well as a scholar. Instead of remarking favorably on the wide experience Palfrey had because of his multifaceted career, Adams took an opposite approach and concluded that "his curious career . . . indicates a certain lack of definite purpose and aim, a weakness of some sort in his character."

While the association with the *Dictionary of American Biography* certainly did nothing to diminish his reputation and may have helped to sustain it, the fact that he looked upon his contributions as pot-boilers suggests that as early as 1927 his desire to be financially successful as a historian had become uppermost in his mind. Allan Nevins, his friend and biographer, attempted to treat this remarkable alteration by noting that Adams became more conservative in his outlook and at the same time increasingly concerned about changes in American life caused by such things as inflation, income tax, and social welfare. Nevins explained that, because "his outlook changed," the subjects of his writing did as well, and "he sought broader themes, and took less interest in precise scholarship."

In April 1929 Adams wrote an article, "Morituri Te Salutamus," for the *Saturday Review*, in which he discussed the low esteem and pay which the nation gave its intellectuals. He detailed problems an American scholar faced in attempting to live and provide for a family in a manner befitting a professional person. Adams went so far as to indicate that the scholar might have to adapt his work to methods employed by modern business and indus-

try, where production and sales relied on mass consumption to turn huge profits. As an example he gave the illustration of an author who might "try to learn the trick of writing for those [magazines] with circulations in millions," and significantly increase his "income or even amass a fortune." He understood that there would be a tradeoff in pursuing that popular path, which he succinctly recognized to be "a serious degeneration in his intellectual quality and character." About the time he wrote this article his work was going through the very transformation he described.

Between 1929 and 1936 Adams spent most of his time in London. He considered it the most civilized and important city in the world and the most comfortable place for him to live and work. There he applied himself in a workmanlike fashion to pounding out six volumes and a flood of over fifty articles for journals and magazines ranging from the *Yale Review* to the *Woman's Home Companion*. These shorter pieces provided a steady income and a forum for his didactic comments about what was occurring in American politics, business, and society. Two collections of his essays were published in book form by Albert and Charles Boni: *Our Business Civilization: Some Aspects of American Culture* (1929) and *The Tempo of Modern Life* (1931). For each he received a handsome advance.

During these years he produced, in rapid succession, studies like *The Adams Family* (1930), a collective biography of four generations of New England's greatest family beginning with John Adams. Reviews were mixed, but thanks to the book's selection by the Literary Guild, it became one of his most profitable works, returning an estimated \$30,000. In 1931 *The Epic of America*, his one-volume interpretation of the nation's history, was published and proved to be his most financially successful endeavor. It sold 75,000 copies the first year and was the Book-of-the-Month Club selection for October 1931. Adams later estimated that it had been translated into a dozen languages, sold more than 500,000 copies, and returned an income of \$80,000. The central theme of this highly interpretative and selective work was that a guiding dream to improve and grow had vitalized Americans from the earliest colonial settlements.

He followed with *Henry Adams* (1933), his last book published by a company other than Charles Scribner's Sons. This biography is typical of the work of the latter part of his career. Bernard DeVoto described it as "a series of generalizations . . . mostly unsupported, frequently unjustified, and always superficial." He concluded unkindly, but

correctly, that Adams "has merely produced one of the pot-boilers which, he feels American scholars usually produce as soon as they achieve eminence." Adams's other books were still accepted by the public and reviewed favorably by the popular press. Historians, however, found most of the publications well below his earlier standards and criticized some of his work to the point of ridicule. Despite the urgings of his friends, he decided that he could not afford to return to the more scholarly but less profitable writing that had won him recognition during the 1920s. In 1932 he signed a long-term contract with Charles Scribner's Sons which guaranteed a basic \$5,000 annual income to act as an advisory member of their staff. Scribners, in return, had first call on any book he wrote, for which he would be given a \$5,000 advance and a fifteen percent royalty. This relieved him of some fears concerning financial security, but it reduced him to near hack status.

Some of the works he produced for Scribners enjoyed commercial success. His two-volume history of America, *The March of Democracy* (1932-1933), eventually returned almost \$80,000, the amount he had earned from *The Epic of America*. A heavily illustrated set, *The March of Democracy* was eventually expanded by other authors and also appeared in a condensed textbook form. In 1934 Adams completed a study of sectionalism and the coming of the Civil War entitled *America's Tragedy*. The book resulted from his renewed interest in sectionalism, which he had developed as a minor theme in the New England trilogy. Because he had researched its subject in some detail earlier, *America's Tragedy* was probably the best history he wrote during the latter part of his career. Some historians reviewed it favorably; however, it was not a commercial success.

Adams decided in 1934 to return to the United States and in 1936 moved permanently from London to Stamford, Connecticut. His reputation among historians continued to decline with the publication of his 1936 study, *The Living Jefferson*. During Franklin Roosevelt's first term (1933-1937), Adams came to despise the New Deal and fought to have Roosevelt defeated in his first reelection bid. In this biography Adams depicted Jefferson as the greatest American liberal and then employed him as a standard to demonstrate how the Roosevelt administration was moving America toward a totalitarian state. The volume degenerated into a partisan attack on the administration, and

Adams was castigated in the journals.

He continued to write about America and the American character and produced several more volumes and numerous popular articles. Much of his energy after the 1930s was devoted to editing reference works to aid in the study of American history. Adams oversaw the preparation of the *Dictionary of American History* (1940), the *Atlas of American History* (1943), and the *Album of American History* (1944-1948).

James Truslow Adams's last years were busy ones with his numerous editorial duties, writing, and political activities. He stopped writing for publication, except for some continuing obligations to Scribners, in 1946, claiming he decided to quit "while I still have a reputation." Indeed, his place as an author, synthesizer, and critic of America and Americans remained intact. Unfortunately, Adams's distinction as a historian did not. The consideration he retained in historical circles was greatly diminished by almost two decades of work that did not live up to the promise of his first histories of New England and provincial society.

Other:

- Hamiltonian Principles*, edited by Adams (Boston: Little, Brown, 1928);
- Jeffersonian Principles*, edited by Adams (Boston: Little, Brown, 1928);
- New England's Prospect*, by Adams, Henry S. Graves, Edward A. Filene, and others (New York: American Geographic Society, 1933);
- Dictionary of American History*, six volumes, edited by Adams and others (New York: Scribners, 1940; revised, 1942);
- James Montgomery Beck, *The Constitution of the United States*, revised and enlarged by Adams (Garden City & Toronto: Doubleday, Doran, 1941);
- Atlas of American History* (New York: Scribners, 1943);
- Album of American History*, volumes 1-4, edited by Adams (New York: Scribners, 1944-1948).

Biography:

- Allan Nevins, *James Truslow Adams: Historian of the American Dream* (Urbana: University of Illinois Press, 1968).

Papers:

- The James Truslow Adams Papers are at Butler Library, Columbia University.

Charles M. Andrews

Jessica Kross

University of South Carolina

BIRTH: Wethersfield, Connecticut, 22 February 1863, to William Watson and Elizabeth Byrne Williams Andrews.

EDUCATION: A.B., Trinity College, Hartford, 1884; Ph. D., Johns Hopkins, 1889.

MARRIAGE: 19 June 1895 to Evangeline Holcombe Walker; children: Ethel, John.

AWARDS AND HONORS: Pulitzer Prize in history for *The Colonial Period of American History: The Settlements*, volume 1, 1935; The Gold Medal for history and biography from the National Institute of Arts and Letters, 1937.

DEATH: East Dover, Vermont, 9 September 1943.

SELECTED BOOKS: *The River Towns of Connecticut. A Study of Wethersfield, Hartford and Windsor* (Baltimore: Johns Hopkins University Press, 1889);

The Old English Manor. A Study in English Economic History (Baltimore: Johns Hopkins University Press, 1892);

The Historical Development of Modern Europe, from the Congress of Vienna to the Present Time, 2 volumes (New York & London: Putnam's, 1896-1898);

Contemporary Europe, Asia, and Africa (Philadelphia & New York: Lea Brothers, 1902);

A History of England (Boston: Allyn & Bacon, 1903; revised, 1921);

Colonial Self Government, 1652-1689, volume 5 of *The American Nation: A History* (New York & London: Harper, 1904);

British Committees, Commissions, and Councils of Trade and Plantations, 1622-1675 (Baltimore: Johns Hopkins University Press, 1908);

Guide to the Manuscript Materials for the History of the United States to 1783, in the British Museum, in Minor London Archives, and in the Libraries of Oxford and Cambridge, by Andrews and Frances G. Davenport (Washington: Carnegie Institution of Washington, 1908);

The Colonial Period (New York: Holt, 1912);

The State Papers, volume 1 of *Guide to the Materials for American History, to 1783, in the Public Record Office of Great Britain* (Washington: Carnegie

Institution of Washington, 1912);

Departmental and Miscellaneous Papers, volume 2 of *Guide to the Materials for American History, to 1783, in the Public Record Office of Great Britain* (Washington: Carnegie Institution of Washington, 1914);

Colonial Folkways: A Chronicle of American Life in the Reign of the Georges (New Haven: Yale University Press, 1919);

The Colonial Background of the American Revolution: Four Essays in American Colonial History (New Haven: Yale University Press, 1924; London: Oxford University Press, 1931);

Our Earliest Colonial Settlements: Their Diversities of Origin and Later Characteristics (New York: New York University Press, 1933; London: Oxford University Press, 1933);

The Colonial Period of American History, 4 volumes (New Haven: Yale University Press, 1934-1938).

Charles McLean Andrews, called the dean of America's colonial historians during his lifetime, was an author, teacher and active member of the organized historical profession. His articles and books, marked by detailed analysis of institutional structures, primary source research, and a sense of the American colonies as only one part of the British colonial empire, set new directions and standards. His guides to the British manuscript repositories remain invaluable research tools for colonial history. Andrews believed that history was a science and that facts were its raw materials. With Herbert Levi Osgood and George L. Beer he "founded" the "imperial school" of American colonial history. In his teaching career Andrews directed graduate studies first at Johns Hopkins University and then for twenty years at Yale. His students, including Leonard W. Labaree and Lawrence Henry Gipson, made invaluable contributions to colonial scholarship. As a working member of the American Historical Association, Andrews presided over the group as acting president after the death of Woodrow Wilson in 1924 and as president in his own right in 1925.

Charles M. Andrews came from old-line Yankee stock, his earliest ancestor having helped to found New Haven in 1638 and Andrewses having