term health of the united country is convincing, since the massive effort to cope with the system transition postponed necessary initiatives to reform the Western welfare state (pp. 385–386).

Nonetheless, there are also some annoying weaknesses. Sometimes the presentation meanders, following a thematic rather than a chronological sequence by discussing decisions before introducing actors. Much of the background material is redundant and some issues like the demographic deficit, although interesting in themselves, are somewhat peripheral to the central theme. The text is written from a governmental perspective, leaning heavily on the views of labor minister Norbert Blüm, the leading social politician of the Christian Democratic Union (CDU) as well as on his counterparts in the Social Democratic Party (SPD), for whom the author seems to hold a special fondness. When policy alternatives are presented, they are dismissed relatively quickly, so that key economic mistakes such as the all-too-favorable currency conversion (mostly at a 1:1 rate, though the buying power was closer to 1:4) and the rapid rise of Eastern wages beyond productivity are bemoaned, but ultimately accepted as inevitable. Finally, the thesis that most of the competitiveness problems of the German economy are the product of the social expenditures of unification is an exaggeration that underestimates the long-term structural problems which began already with the oil price shock of 1973.

In the end, the reader is left with the ambivalent impression that this work contains two books struggling with each other: a superb and highly informative study that examines the underappreciated domestic dynamics of German unification, and a more tentative analysis that addresses the survival of the welfare state in an era of increasing competitive pressures. The former is a pio- neering effort, only to be commended, but the latter requires a broader analysis that ventures beyond the time horizon of the half-decade during and after unification.

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This fine monograph presents Emperor Franz Joseph as a central factor in reinforcing the importance of the monarchy in the last half century of the Habsburg empire, especially as nationalism and other factors seemed to weaken the state and finally render it obsolete by 1918. Arguing against the A. J. P. Taylor view that the dissolution of Austria-Hungary was inevitable, Daniel L. Unowsky focuses instead on the relationship between Vienna and its many provinces, between monarchical ritual and nationalist fervor, between claims for tradition and claims for liberal modernization that shaped imperial celebrations during this period, without an eye on the end of the monarchy.

The book has an ambitious span of sixty years and touches on events from Vienna to Cracow and Lviv. The author begins by examining the attempts of the emperor after 1848 to link his authority to and claim popularity on the basis of Catholic traditions and ritual. Moving from Vienna to the province of Galicia, Unowsky then follows the imperial attempts to secure the same stable image of the monarchy as carrier of tradition and strength. The avenues for analyzing the path of imperial pomp in the provinces are the visits (some aborted) of the emperor to Galicia in 1851, 1868, 1880, and 1894. Finally, the author looks closely at the successes and failures of Franz Joseph’s 1898 jubilee in reinforcing the values and image of the monarch as a legitimate binding force of the entire empire.

Unowsky’s work is based on excellent archival research and a thorough examination of published resources. The monograph also builds on growing scholarship that has for over two decades questioned the Taylor view of the demise of the Habsburgs, bringing new nuance and depth to it. The author is not satisfied to examine the contestations of imperial celebrations in Vienna, as others have done, but instead moves about into the provinces. Unowsky is right to underline the imperative importance of examining how Poles and Ruthenians in Cracow and Lviv viewed the emperor. His conclusion is not particularly startling: as mass politics develops and as regional elites (and masses) learn how to manipulate political processes and the theatrics of civic rituals, the monarchy found it increasingly difficult to control the meaning of its own staged ceremonies. What is new and significant in this analysis, however, is the care with which the author exemplifies different uses of the same ceremonies by different publics, and the links he draws in particular between imperial rituals and political culture.

This book opens new opportunities for considering the importance of cultural ritual in the shaping of modern politics in the Habsburg Empire and its successor states, and in examining the relationship between secular and religious rituals, nationalism and supranational symbols in shaping civic identities in the late nineteenth century and beyond.


Carlo Collodi wrote Pinocchio (1882) barely a decade after Rome became the capital of the newly unified Italian state. Its publication roughly coincides with the beginning of what came to be known as the Liberal era in Italian history, a period that Carl Ipsen defines here as stretching from the late 1870s to the start of World War I. It was a time of social transformation in many ways,
not least in the rise of a powerful Socialist movement and the beginnings of modern social welfare legislation.

Ipsen’s goal here is to focus on one aspect of this social awakening: attitudes toward children, and especially attitudes toward society’s most marginalized children. The larger setting is the transition from a patchwork of old regimes, which controlled the Italian peninsula until 1859, and in which the Catholic Church played the central public role in dealing with society’s unfortunates, to the new secular Italian state. Ipsen not only seeks to follow the advent of social legislation regarding children in the Liberal period, but to answer the question of why so many child-related concerns came together in Italy at the turn of the century.

He goes about this task by devoting one chapter each to the subjects of infant abandonment, child migration, child labor laws, juvenile delinquency, and street children. For his infant abandonment case Ipsen focuses on Naples’ massive Annunziata foundling home, where infant mortality reached terrifying proportions. He links the Naples case to the larger crisis in the centuries-old system of abandoned babies in Italy, charging the Italian state with the “malign neglect” (p. 44) of these children in the Liberal period. In rather reified terms, Ipsen attributes a change in attitude to the impact of international forces: “Italian society, seeking its place alongside the other modern powers of Europe and North America, came to the realization that it had an obligation to succor its least fortunate children” (p. 45).

One of Ipsen’s theses is that the misery in which so many Italian children lived became a national embarrassment for Italians as they sought to claim their place among the nations of modern Europe. Hence children in the wandering trades who had long plied their wares in the streets of Europe became, in the Liberal period, an embarrassment that had to be addressed. This was particularly true for the girls who were lured into prostitution.

Much of the book focuses on a history of child legislation, the chapter on working children being in good part a history of child labor laws. Here, too, foreign influences were clear, with Italy lagging its European neighbors to the north. The nuggets in the book are those stories that offer something beyond the well-known tardiness of Italy’s economic and political development. In Sicily, for example, we are told that the new law restricting child and female labor saw mine owners and their workers united in their opposition. Parents were not necessarily pleased by having their small children forbidden from working either in mines or factories.

A good part of the book chronicles attempts by Italian legislators to introduce protective legislation modeled on more advanced northern European models. In many cases, although bills were introduced relatively early and various parliamentary commissions and debates engaged them, they passed into law only decades later. This is the story Ipsen tells of the Italian Minors Code and the long-delayed attempt to create a modern juvenile court system, which only came into existence in 1934.

In recounting this tale, Ipsen at one point laments how difficult it is in studying poor children to get any sense of their everyday life. This is certainly true, but it does not appear that getting a sense of individuals’ lives was a major interest of the author in this book. His focus is largely on social legislation and public debate, and the archival sources are taken almost entirely from the central state archives in Rome. The chapter on foundlings uses little material from foundling home archives, and the chapter on juvenile delinquency uses no material from local courts which would flesh out the lives of these children.

Some of the larger implications of this story might also be discussed in greater depth. Ipsen briefly identifies a series of such larger themes in the last two pages before his epilogue: similar reform efforts throughout Europe; debates over Italian “backwardness” and its possible link to familialism and attitudes toward the state; the impact of Italy’s huge emigration in these years; and the weakness of the Liberal Italian state under threat both from the rapidly expanding Socialist movement and the Catholic Church. Perhaps in the future the author will follow up these themes. The story of the transformation of child welfare from the responsibility of the church to that of the state is itself one that must be told if we are fully to understand the history Ipsen tells in these pages.

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Frank M. Snowden’s comprehensive examination of the campaign to eliminate malaria from the Italian peninsula offers a refreshing antidote to so much of the historical scholarship on modern Italy, which reads like a compendium of failures, missed opportunities, and persistent vices. He recounts, instead, a story of progress, in which Italy emerged as a global pioneer that launched the first national campaign in the world to control and eliminate malaria, successfully eradicating the disease from the country by the 1960s. While the book focuses on the scientific and public health communities, it provides much more than a medical history of disease. Malaria had covered the entire Italian peninsula for centuries, and, as such, it had long been the leading public health problem in the country, causing mass deaths, widespread illness, and socioeconomic disruption every year. Because of the scale of the disease, Snowden is able to use his abundant supply of medical sources to shed light on a range of larger social and political issues in the history of Italy in the twentieth century, from the “Southern Question” and evolving living standards of the poor to the policies of the