
Malcolm Thurlby
refute the conventional belief that Whickham was "the habitat of a savage & brutalized plebeian population that had slipped the bridle of control" (p.306). The widespread notion of marital endogamy among coalminers is also shown to be a myth.

The coalminers' self-respect is most clearly demonstrated, the authors argue, in the mass strikes that they mounted in both 1731 and 1765. Foreshadowing the organized activities of the nineteenth-century working class, these collective work stoppages prevented the coal owners from increasing workloads and curbing the right of pitmen to switch employers at will. Accompanied by remarkably little violence, the strikes illustrate the growth of a disciplined class consciousness, and underline the authors' point that the participants were not "'a rabble of coal-heavers' ... they were pitmen, and they also conceived themselves to be free-born Englishmen."

My only criticism of this book concerns its focus. Not intended as a work of urban history, The Making of an Industrial Society is really an intensive study of a small locality in north-eastern England. Except for the last fifty pages its main subject is the coalminers and their families who in the mid-eighteenth century comprised only about half the population of the parish of Whickham. Not until the two final chapters does the adjacent city of Newcastle—one of England’s major cities both then and now—figure prominently in the account. In describing the collective activities of the coalminers of the Wear and Tyne coalfields between 1730 and 1765, Levine and Wrightson almost abandon Whickham so as to treat the Durham coalfield as a whole. At this point the book stops being an intensive socio-economic study of one community, and turns into a piece of labour history, although a fascinating one. Apart from this slight problem of focus, however, the book can be recommended unreservedly as a first-rate analysis of the impact of early industrialization on an urbanizing community.

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Although this new series of Cambridge Studies in the History of Architecture is "meant primarily for professional historians of architecture and their students," Dr. Tyack has succeeded in creating a volume that will interest a much broader group, not least the Urban Historian. Tyack’s research is meticulous and the text so well-written that the book is difficult to put down. The design of the book helps; it has footnotes rather than endnotes and high-quality illustrations integrated with the text—except the colour plates—so that the reader does not have to flip back and forth between text, notes and illustrations as often happens with architectural history volumes.

The book does not present a strictly chronological discussion of Pennethorne and his works. It is divided into ten chapters, seven of which (#2 to #8) are arranged thematically. Tyack opens with a detailed examination of Pennethorne's training in the office of John Nash, from 1820, and his studies in Rome and elsewhere in Italy, starting in 1824. In Rome, Pennethorne recorded "that instead of measuring minutely each celebrated building I have visited all the remains" (p.8), and told Nash that "the introduction of the Italian style of Palace into our street architecture would be quite new and have a fine effect" (pp.11-12). This Italian experience provided Pennethorne with a deep grasp of the vocabulary and design principles that made him a leading classical architect of the period. Back in Nash’s office in 1826, Pennethorne was involved in plans to link the southern end of Regent Street to Whitehall and the Strand. Specifically he worked on the building of Carlton House Terrace and the layout of St. James’s Park, an experience significant for his subsequent career. In 1830 Nash retired leaving Pennethorne in charge of the practice. In 1839 Pennethorne was appointed joint architect and surveyor for Metropolitan Improvements to the Commissioners of Woods and Forests, the beginning of a government career the difficulties and disappointments of which are so sensitively charted by Tyack throughout the book.

The chapters on Metropolitan Improvements (#2), Parks for the People (#3) and The Rebuilding of Whitehall (#8), probably have the greatest interest for the Urban Historian. The former paints a vivid picture of the social and traffic problems in early Victorian London, and Pennethorne’s proposed schemes for improvement that were so often thwarted by government. The social benefits of the urban park are highlighted in Parks for the People. Pennethorne played an important role in the creation of several urban parks in London of which Victoria Park in the East End and Battersea Park were the most successful. Pennethorne’s architectural dreams and disappointments are vividly expressed in schemes for the rebuilding of Whitehall. Here Tyack makes a very important contribution to the background of the “Battle of the Styles” in the design of the Foreign Office. He shows the negative attitude of the First Commissioner, Sir Benjamin Hall, toward Pennethorne, and that Hall was the prime mover in instituting the
compilation for the building. Furthermore, he sees Pennethorne's scheme in a new light and suggests that "Pennethorne should have been allowed to design the Foreign Office" (p.258).

Complications in dealing with government are further highlighted in chapter 4, Architecture and Politics, but in spite of the often difficult relations much good was to come from Pennethorne. Chapter 5, Public Offices, discusses some memorable works, not least the Public Record Office. This Gothic design betrays the symmetry and order of Pennethorne's classical leaning, while the walls of brick-clad iron and brick-arch floors, and the truthful use of structural ironwork in the Round Room, leave no room to doubt Tyack's assertion that the "Public Record Office ... was one of the most forward-looking buildings of its age" (p.160). The Ordnance Office extension is a classic of the palazzo manner, while Tyack regards the extension to Somerset House as one of Pennethorne's most successful designs (p.172).

Museums and Buildings for the Royal Family are respectively examined in chapters six and seven, while chapter nine is devoted to The Final Years. In each of these areas Pennethorne is rightfully presented as a true master of classically ordered design who successfully incorporated progressive elements in his buildings—the palazzo facade with the use of iron and glass in the main gallery of the Museum of Practical Geology; the butterfly-shaped plan and use of fireproof brick arches in The Duchy of Cornwall Office; and the influential semicircular-arched iron roof of the Patent Office.

The Epilogue, chapter 10, assesses Pennethorne's buildings in the context of nineteenth-century architectural developments. A Catalogue of Executed Works is given in Appendix I.

In sum, this study is warmly recommended to urban and architectural historians. In particular, the careful consideration of the relationships between the architect/planner and the patron, and the sorts of compromise necessary in creating the final design, bear on architectural/urban studies well outside the period of this book.

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The most striking, and the most enduring feature of any city is its built environment. We cannot think of Paris without its boulevards, of Toronto without its brick facades, of Jericho without its walls. Although the artifactual character of the city is so obvious, its character and importance are poorly understood. We can describe and explain the growth and social structure of a city in terms that anyone can understand, but the same is not true of its physique. There is a popular vocabulary of architectural styles, but not of street and lot forms, or other morphological features. Arguably, the most complete language of urban form is that developed by M.R.G. Conzen. This language offers the prospect of being able to talk, meaningfully and in a comparative way, about the physical landscape of very different cities. Until recently, however, it was employed by only a small group of scholars, including an active group in Birmingham, England. With increasing popular concern for historic preservation, however, and as people have come to see that preservation might include streets and districts as well as buildings, more scholars have become interested in describing and interpreting the urban form. Reflecting this interest, Urban Landscapes contains nine papers, with an editorial introduction and a concluding prospectus, most of which were presented at an international conference held in Birmingham in 1990.

The editors acknowledge a debt to the ideas of M.R.G. Conzen but, as they emphasize, contributors draw upon a variety of intellectual traditions. Following the introduction, Anngret Simms notes Conzen's distinction between the three basic elements of urban morphology: town plan, building fabric, and land use. She argues that for the analysis of medi eval European towns, the town plan is in many respects the most enduring and significant feature. Looking at medieval English towns, N.J. Baker and T.R. Slater take a similar point of view, and build on Conzen by describing how they developed a "precise, verifiable and repeatable method for plan-unit definition" (45), with specific reference to Worcester. In a contemporary setting, two papers examine the changing form of suburban middle-class residential areas. Anne Moudon uses examples from Seattle to generalize about American cities since the 1920s while, in a piece co-authored with A.N. Jones, the editors examine very recent changes in England. Focussing upon city centres, J. Vilagresa builds upon the work of Jeremy Whitehand in Britain to develop a comparative morphological analysis of two cities, Worcester and Lleida. If Baker and Slater refine Conzen's methodology in a two-dimensional context, Deryck Holdsworth adds a third by using computer graphics to reconstruct the changing built environment of a portion of Lower Manhattan in the early twentieth century.

The authors of the remaining papers find inspiration elsewhere. David Friedman...