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employment only as domestic workers. Chapter 3 describes the hi-min system as legitimizing class differences emerging in capitalist Japan and notes how the system reflected official desires to maintain control over the people. Chapter 4 describes Tokyo as representative of the him-min’s preimmigration environment and discusses the city’s middle-class ideal and the problems of maintaining one’s position in this class. Chapter 5 deals with the use of American examples of achievement in Japanese popular literature and the construction of those notions of success that encouraged ambitious, urban middle-class readers to seek their fortunes outside of Japan. Chapter 6 examines the writings of supposed Japanese experts of life in the U.S. and their instructions on how the hi-min should behave in order to further their own interests and that of the Japanese nation. Chapter 7 discusses the views of Western women held by Japanese men and the belief that personal relationships in the United States would be emotionally richer than those in Japan.

Sawada’s discussion of the politics of emigration, which reveals the expectations of Japanese officials and advocates of travel to the United States that the hi-min act as unofficial good will ambassadors for Japan, is highly interesting. Her examination of the mentality of her subjects, the reasons behind their decisions to seek their fortunes on the U.S. East Coast, is thorough. The only questions that are not so clearly answered involve the hi-min’s own perception of themselves, or their future, and their commitment to a permanent life in the United States: Did the majority, and not just the leaders of their overseas community, buy into the idea that they were to be representatives of their country? Were they prepared from the start to set down roots in the United States, or did they originally see themselves as non-immigrants who would eventually return to Japan after making money or finishing their education? Many may have come to prefer life in America, even after their rude awakening from their dreams of easy success, but could it be that a proud reluctance to be greeted as a “failure” by family and friends in Japan also influenced their decision to remain in the U.S.? These small questions notwithstanding, Tokyo Life, New York Dreams is an enlightening bicultural study that deserves the attention of scholars of modern Japan, Asian-American studies, urban and immigration history.

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Crewe is a quintessential company town. It was established by the Grand Junction Railway in 1842–43 on a then poorly populated part of the Cheshire Plain. Within a generation its railway factory became world renowned for its advanced production methods, innovative technologies, management and skilled workforce. From its inception, the railway dominated the town both physically and socially. It defined its political culture, determined the physical growth of the community, and created a social hierarchy based on occupation and position within the company. Until the end of steam in the late 1960s, work in Crewe meant work for the railway in one capacity or another, in the “Works” the “Sheds” or the “Offices.” It shaped life in Crewe.

This book, though not the first to tackle the social history of the town, breaks new ground in examining the relationship between the company and its employees and the effects of this relationship upon the society of the town. Victorian Crewe is used as a case study of company paternalism and influence politics. Through an analysis of employer paternalism by the LNWR, Dianne Drummond evaluates a number of theories which have sought to explain the changing nature of nineteenth-century politics, especially working class politics, and the connections between work and politics.

The book is organised into three parts. The first section examines Crewe’s origins, the process of migration into the town, and the resultant patterns of residence and occupational structure. The second part examines the relationship between the Company and people in the LNWR workshops: the company’s managerial strategies, skills and the labour process, and the labour market within the Works. The final part of the book examines paternalism and politics within the context of local religious and political history, and presents the study’s conclusions.

Drummond argues that despite the overwhelming presence of the company in Crewe’s social and religious life, its attempts to control local politics and determine the political behaviour of its employees, it never succeeded in producing outright deference on the part of all the townspeople. Rather a whole range of deferential to non-deferential responses was manifested. She explains the range and the changing nature of responses to Company paternalism (though from some of the evidence cited it seems that Company intimidation might be no less an appropriate term) arose from the traditions and beliefs of the workforce assembled in Crewe. Company culture was never total because the workers brought with them traditions of independence in work, nonconformism in religion and radicalism in politics. Craft unionism in the Works and Liberalism and nonconformity in the town gave workers a value system which led them to criticize the Company and its heavy-handed “paternalistic” policies. Workers who gained their self-identity through their nonconformism and skill in work were not inclined to see themselves as of inferior standing, and hence rejected Company direction of civic, religious and individual affairs, even at the cost of loss of livelihood and home.

The book’s strength lies in its careful analysis and meticulous research. It is based on a wide variety of manuscript sources, official publications, and newspapers and periodicals,
supplemented by an impressive array of published materials from various disciplines. On the other hand it is not without shortcomings. Most obvious is the neglect of any geographical context. Crewe appears to exist in a spatial vacuum. Not a single map shows the location of the town and its relationship with other railway towns connected with the LNWR or its competitors. More serious is the absence of any map of the town or even plan of the Works. References to Gresty Road, Mill Street, and other places, will be meaningless to most readers. In this respect I was fortunate in that Crewe was my home town, so I was able to set events within their geographical context.

Well chosen illustrations may compensate for lack of maps. Unfortunately that is not the case here. Only one of eight plates shows anything of Crewe’s townscape or the appearance of the Works. Interior factory views and posed photographs of employees contribute little to the book. Nevertheless, Drummond has written an insightful contribution to the understanding of nineteenth century British politics and the connections between work, company, politics and religion.

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The connection between urban forms and architecture, on the one hand, and defence, on the other, has long been recognized in a social context. The Roman camp kept the barbarians at bay; the medieval castle supported the feudal system; and the ancient town provided opportunities for armed uprisings against government, as was the case in revolutions from the eighteenth century. Recognizing this in the mid-nineteenth century, Napoleon III assigned Haussmann to redesign the city of Paris, replacing medieval narrow streets — the seedbeds of revolution — with open spaces and broad, straight boulevards, suitable for artillery fire and cavalry sweeps against a potentially rebellious populace. In Urban Forms and Colonial Confrontations: Algiers under French Rule, Zeynep Çelik applies the paradigm to the imperial context, namely French rule in Algeria from 1830 to 1962, concentrating on the capital in order “to gain a better understanding of architectural and urban forms by situating them in their historical, political, and cultural contexts” (p. 6). The book studies both urban planning and housing designs, revealing French colonial policies in their mission civilisatrice, showing the often good intentions but bad results of such policies; it argues that architectural and urban forms manifested the political, social and cultural conflicts between Europeans and Arabs. Central to the work is the idea that the French used urban planning and architecture to defend their Algerian possession and to assert control over the native population. Conversely, Çelik shows how architecture contributed to the success of the rebels against French rule, as Algerians achieved independence in the early 1960s. In addition, a sub-theme emphasizes the role of women in Algerian society and the part they played in the war for Algerian independence.

In 1830, the French found Algiers, a jewel on the Mediterranean, shaped by Islamic culture, with its short crooked streets dominated by males and its roofs and interior spaces controlled by women. French engineers immediately acted for military reasons (to defend the colony from seaborne attack rather than from the indigenous population) to open up space for the rapid deployment of troops. Boulevards and the Place du Gouvernement (a place to muster troops) were carved out of shops and mosques: “The abrupt brutality of the first interventions caused an immediate controversy, making the city and its architecture prime actors as contested terrains in the colonial confrontation” (p. 27). The result was the division of Algiers into the high city, the Arab-dominated Casbah, and the lower Marine Quarter, dominated by the Europeans.

Beginning with Napoleon III, and continuing through the period of French rule, a policy of preserving native forms alongside new towns for the settlers (colons) became the rule, as the lure of the Casbah coexisted with the modern, Marine Quarter. Much energy went into urban planning, including that of Le Corbusier, the famous urban planner and enthusiastic supporter of the mission civilisatrice, whose grandiose schemes to tie Algeria to France between 1930 and 1942 went largely unrealised. Overcrowding in Algiers, especially in the Casbah, and the establishment of bidonvilles (shantytowns) on the out skirts, in which 41.5 per cent of the population lived, sharpened the contest between the Arabs and Europeans, providing fertile ground for revolt, and showed the necessity for additional housing.

Much of the book concerns housing projects which combined with other examples of social engineering as a weapon to pacify the population. The plan was to house Algerians in high rises (les grands ensembles), separated by open ground, as “Military action and large-scale construction thus joined forces in the war against Algerians …” (pp. 178-79). De Gaulle’s Plan de Constantine was such a project, but each new building, poorly built and ugly, spawned further resistance, as the FLN found support often under women’s leadership. Çelik argues that these projects failed in part because they ignored great changes in Algerian society, especially in the role of women, liberated by the necessities of the war of independence.

The story told is one of sometimes noble intentions running into the reality of anti-colonial feelings in which French manipulation of the urban scene and housing were ultimately counter-productive and left the post-colonial Algerian government with scarred, urban wastelands. Although the book deals with major military, political, economic and social themes, the focus is on urban history. Çelik, Professor of Architecture at the New Jersey Institute of Technology and specialist in Oriental architecture, constantly