provide a backdrop against which current affairs can be viewed, this work deserves a wide readership.

Montana State University Billings

Matthew A. Redinger


Two Harvard economists, Claudia Goldin and Lawrence F. Katz, have written a work that details the intersection of education, technological change, and the economy in the United States in an attempt to understand better what they call “the malaise” the nation entered beginning in 1970. Ultimately, they assert that the “skill bias of technology did not change much across the [twentieth] century, nor did its rate of change.” Instead, they claim that the “sharp rise in inequality was largely due to an educational shutdown.” They also put their work into a global context when they describe the correlation between technology and education in the United States in comparison to other regions of the world, especially Europe, and how the younger nation pushed past others to achieve the highest educational and productivity levels because of its investment in human capital through educational access.

In sharp contrast to this relatively continuous economic growth in the United States, however, Goldin and Katz assert that “economic inequality was highly discontinuous” and believe that economic inequality is as high today as it was during the Great Depression. Nations in Europe and Asia followed the American lead in acknowledging the importance of universal education, but have recently begun to exceed U.S. high school and college graduation rates among younger cohorts. This work details the process by which this change occurred and demonstrates these changes in both chart and narrative formats.

Both Goldin and Katz have published extensively on the labor market impact of technological change, the returns to education, and the long-run evolution of the U.S. wage structure. Goldin has focused her research on the history of education and human capital, while Katz has “measured, tracked, and dissected” the wage structure and economic inequality. Together, they bring expertise in the methods and the larger fields of study necessary for thoroughly understanding this topic: the history of education, labor economics, and the statistical analysis illustrated through this work.

An extensive list of sources appears in the endnotes and the bibliography, ranging from traditional statistical histories, including the *Historical Statistics of the United States*, to education history and articles exploring labor and economic history. The National Science Foundation and the Spencer Foundation both provided funding for the research that resulted in this work, thus demonstrating both the scientific rigor of the authors’ research and its importance to the field of education.

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This work is most suitable for students in a history of education course or in an upper-division economic history course. It is not an appropriate title for students in survey history courses. The authors' writing style does provide a readable context for the larger statistical picture they paint in this work. Some of the articles cited in the book’s bibliography, however, might be more useful sources of classroom lectures. An October 2002 article in the *Journal of Labor Economics*, “Going to War and Going to College: Did World War II and the G.I. Bill Increase Educational Attainment for Returning Veterans,” is but one example.

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Apples and oranges might result in an appetizing fruit basket, but seeking to draw lessons from four dissimilar twentieth-century “insurgencies” makes for a less successful mixture. *Victorious Insurgencies* does little to distinguish differences among rebellions, insurgencies, and revolutions (much less among varieties of revolution), and so in examining this potpourri of upheavals we are led to believe those differences are insignificant. Nevertheless, the revolutions in China (1929-49), a civil war-cum-societal revolution, Vietnam (1945-54), an anti-colonial revolution, and Cuba (1956-59), a rebellion against an old-style caudillo, and the rebellion in Afghanistan (1980-88), an insurgency to keep out communism and Soviet influence, can, indeed, teach us something (e.g., about the problems of fighting a war based on the mistakes of previous conflicts and about successful and unsuccessful counterinsurgencies), but only if readers are prepared to do some of their own mental editing and reorganizing. Without Joes saying so explicitly, his primary concern is with developing a counterinsurgency doctrine. If this serves the goals of a course, then teachers will profit from reading his book—but a fair amount of prior knowledge is expected on the part of readers (e.g., in regard to people referenced), which would likely be a problem for students.

Each of the four main chapters is devoted to providing a short-course narrative—interspersed with periodic but useful analysis of military and guerrilla strategies—of the conflicts that are the book’s focus. These are clearly structured, easy to follow, and include ample quotations and references from participants, scholars, and journalists, but if teachers are looking for more, including more than scattered drive-by comparisons of these four insurgencies, or an analysis of what they have meant for insurgents and students of insurgency thereafter, or how those insurgencies shaped our world, they will be disappointed. That is, if Joes’ thesis is that his four conflicts “produced consequences that may justly be called world-historical,” it is a thesis not proven.