sumption, but neglect to discuss European precedents of the national campaigns. The chapter on the WLAA highlights women’s changing roles in agriculture, but Harriot Stanton Blatch is relegated to one meager chapter, her ties to international organizations are minimized, and the fact that she was the director of the WLAA is not mentioned. While the British roots of the WLAA movement are discussed, the cited research comes from limited secondary sources that are not comprehensive. Additionally, Hayden-Smith claims “it has never been argued” that the success of the Victory Garden movements of World War II were partly due to the successes of the homefront agricultural programs of World War I (187). Several works, including my own, *Cultivating Victory: The Women’s Land Army and the Victory Garden Movements*, published a year earlier, argue this point.

The use of both Raj Patel and Gary Paulk Nabhan as reviewers for the back cover instead of leading historians implies that Hayden-Smith is not appealing to the traditional historical academic community, but rather those interested in activist journalism and politics. In place of a traditional historical narrative, the reader finds a back-and-forth examination of events and attitudes of World War I compared to various events and attitudes of the past decade. While this style has an appeal to a certain market of readers today, historians may wonder how relevant it will be a decade or more from now when political, economic, and environmental factors have changed. For the present, however, it inspires readers to make positive change through gardening.

Though at first glance the similarities to my recent work are abundant (including a nearly identical book jacket), *Sowing the Seeds of Victory* sets itself apart as a journalistic exploration of current events through the lens of wartime agriculture in the First World War.

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This book offers a novel perspective on the history of cattle ranching, native dispossession, and land management in the drylands of interior British Columbia. The origins of the cattle industry in this remote region of limited water and
abundant bunchgrass date to the 1860s and 1870s, when European-Canadian ranchers began “resettling” (in historical geographer Cole Harris’s sense of the term) a landscape long occupied by native peoples. In subsequent decades, the land was increasingly parceled out as private property, public grazing lands, and comparatively paltry native reserves. The book’s first section describes attempts to force native peoples into a cattle-ranching economy while withholding the resources necessary for them to succeed. From the perspective of cattle ranchers and government agents, the Nlaka’pamux and other native peoples who maintained large herds of horses were wasting good forage on “useless” animals, and the sooner they could be made to herd cattle instead, or give up keeping large ungulates entirely, the better. Horses understood as both “wild” and “Indian” thereby became one of the focal points of a process of biogeographical dispossession.

In the early twentieth century, as the cattle industry became increasingly dominated by a few large corporate ranches, ranchers faced competition from another kind of pest: grasshoppers. The book’s second section describes how the ranchers themselves came in for criticism from government agents and entomologists, who argued that overgrazing had created ideal conditions for insect irruptions. Daunted by the complexities of fundamental land-management reform, however, experts turned to a simpler solution: chemical poisons distributed over carefully monitored “control zones.” Seemingly effective over the short term, by the 1940s this strategy was clearly failing to live up to its promise. The emergence of new pests and other ecological challenges in the postwar period demonstrated the bankruptcy of the idea behind the campaigns against wild horses and grasshoppers: that “extermination increased the carrying capacity and thus the quality and economic value of the land by divesting it of impediments to production” (161).

By exploring this idea in relation to interior British Columbia’s distinctive social and environmental conditions, *Resettling the Range* offers new insights into the history of colonization, native dispossession, industrialized ranching, agricultural expertise, and the “improvement” of North American rangelands. While the decision to organize the book around horses and grasshoppers makes it clear how essential “pests” were to the cattle industry and to the landscape, it also makes some of these insights harder to grasp than they perhaps needed to be. As series editor Graeme Wynn notes in his foreword, much of the work of determining chronologies and filling in narrative gaps is left to the reader. The book is strongest on the period from the 1860s to the 1930s; its attempts to
continue the story into the late twentieth century feel a bit rushed. Despite these issues, it remains a valuable contribution to the environmental and agricultural history of the arid landscapes and ranching economies of western North America.

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The history of Cape Cod is a story “not of relentless declension, but of change” (7). In the first self-described environmental history of Cape Cod, John T. Cumbler argues that in every era, Cape Codders have both protected and exploited its resources. Cumbler divides Cape Cod’s history into “three distinct regimes of resource utilization” (5–6).

In the first regime, native peoples farmed corn, beans, and squash; caught fish and shucked oysters; and gathered sea and upland plants. While these practices shaped the Cape, they stopped short of extensive degradation. The second regime, of European settlement and local resource production, is a much-mythologized period of Cape Cod history. Countless local historians and travel writers have recounted Pilgrim settlement, early farming, fishing, saltworks, whaling, and shipbuilding. Cumbler adds something new by arguing that this extractive era did not result purely in a wasteland, as Thoreau wrote in the mid-eighteenth century. Rather, prominent Cape Codders pushed this trope in their conscious shift to a tourism-based economy.

Cumbler’s third section, “Dependence on Distant Resources and Revenue from Recreation,” details better than any existing history how the twentieth-century recreational economy shaped Cape Cod’s environment. Increased tourism and homebuilding caused water pollution from septic systems and runoff, solid waste disposal problems, wetland degradation, and erosion issues.

While Cumbler situates his work in New England environmental history (he includes the obligatory reference to William Cronon’s *Changes in the Land*), his primary contribution is to the rich historiography of Cape Cod. Because previous historians of the Cape focused heavily on the environment, *Cape Cod* reads less like a revolutionary interpretation and more like an update to the histories of Henry C. Kittredge, Josef Berger, and James C. O’Connell. That is not