

United States' annual production of dichlorodiphenyl-trichloroethane (DDT), and in this same period, Greece's annual consumption of forty tons of quinine (or 20–25 percent of global production of this important prophylactic) was second only to that of the Soviet Union (297). Greece's climatological and topographical specificities (relative to the rest of Europe) and their role in the endemism of malaria in Greece further buttress Gardikas's arguments regarding the exceptionalism of malaria in the Greek context.

The quality of the microlevel analysis and the sensitivity to the complexity, diversity, and variability of local conditions (climatic, ecological, geographic, and socioeconomic) is one of the most impressive features of this book. Pushing down to the local and almost individual level, Gardikas offers intriguing insights on the blended nature of traditional "folk" and modern "scientific" remedies for malaria across the nineteenth and twentieth centuries. Quoting a foreign observer's equivalence of quinine to bread in the Greek cultural context, Gardikas highlights the use of quinine as a form of currency and notes how well into the twentieth century the free distribution of quinine to the Greek population was considered an inalienable right of Greek citizenship. Toward the end of chapter 4 ("Patients, Doctors, and Cures"), Gardikas wades into the ongoing historiographical debate of whether the overreliance on quinine interfered with the premodern acquisition and generational buildup of acquired immunity to malaria.

Gardikas presupposes a certain level of scientific knowledge of malaria, mosquitoes, and human biology—a function, perhaps, of this book's publication in the CEU Press Studies in the History of Medicine series. And while most of the maps are useful in reinforcing points made in the text, a few basic maps with population density and the physical features of Greece would have helped center the reader's focus on the exceptionalism of Greece's human and physical geography. These quibbles aside, in the end, Gardikas succeeds in fulfilling her goal to reconstruct "the precarious lives of peasants, townspeople, and soldiers in their daily encounters with their physical environment and to historicize a shared, banal experience of pain" (305). And, as such, Gardikas's work effectively demonstrates the centrality of malaria in the story of modern Greece and provides further evidence of disease as a central feature of the human experience, both historically and today.

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ANNA ROSS. *Beyond the Barricades: Government and State-Building in Post-Revolutionary Prussia, 1848–1858*. New York: Oxford University Press, 2019. Pp. vi, 229. Cloth \$85.00.

Histories of nineteenth-century Prussia have conventionally been structured by a series of well-established

turning points: 1806 and the ensuing Reform Era; 1848 and the upheavals that followed; 1859 and the revival of political life with the so-called New Era; and the 1866–1871 unification of Germany, in which Prussia (and Bismarck) assumed the leading role. By contrast, in *Beyond the Barricades: Government and State-Building in Post-Revolutionary Prussia*, Anna Ross turns her attention to the understudied 1850s, a period of Prussian history that has traditionally been dismissed as a decade of "reaction"—a view perpetuated by the Prussian government's liberal opponents that utterly fails to capture the complex range of administrative and social reforms the government embraced in a crucial moment of transition. For, as Ross argues persuasively in her elegant monograph, the 1850s were so essential to the formation of the modern Prussian state that they deserve to be seen as a second Reform Era, one that built on the unfulfilled promise of the first.

Ross builds this argument through thematically organized chapters that address six crucial dimensions of modern government: political life, bureaucracy, the law, agriculture and industry, urban life, and managing public opinion. She shows us that the ministers and officials responsible for Prussian policy in the aftermath of the revolution were not ideological ultras but conservative pragmatists who recognized, in the words of Minister President Otto Theodor von Manteuffel, that "the old times are gone and cannot return! . . . To return to the decaying conditions of the past is like scooping water with a sieve" (31). And she reminds us both of how much was achieved and of how well these achievements compare with those of the far more celebrated reforming bureaucrats of the Napoleonic era. In so doing, she presents us with a view of Prussian history that is as alive to the continuities as it is to the well-known ruptures. A few examples will serve to illuminate this broader landscape. Ross shows, for instance, how initiatives from the early years of the nineteenth century were picked up in the 1850s with renewed vigor. Foremost among these initiatives was the Central Statistical Office, which became a key driver of change: an institution established in 1805, but one that expanded rapidly during and after the revolution in terms of the quantity and range of its publications, which attested to its international horizons and ambitions. But she also draws our attention to the ways in which the 1850s truly marked an end for feudal Prussia, with the abolition of patrimonial justice and the emergence of a new judicial landscape of state courts underpinned by the Criminal Code of 1851, and with the emancipation of some 640,000 peasants between 1850 and 1865—nearly three times as many as had been liberated from their feudal obligations between 1811 and 1848 (199). The new Municipal Ordinance of 1850 likewise sought to complete a process initiated by the Baron vom und zum Stein in 1808. Yet these years did not merely witness the final end of the old regime; they were also

characterized by a range of state initiatives designed to support a more modern economy. Railways and mining, commercial investment banks, and the new electric telegraph: all these were promoted and regulated by the Prussian state, usually in ways that reflected the interests of businesspeople as well as the authorities. In this context, urban affairs were of particular importance, if only because cities that incubated economic problems and social tensions had been key focuses of the revolution. Here, Ross shows that Carl Ludwig Friedrich von Hinckeldey, the infamous chief of the Berlin police upon whom a paranoid King Friedrich Wilhelm IV became curiously dependent, was a far more complex figure than usually assumed, broadening the remit of activities undertaken in Berlin and inflecting them with a wider concern for the welfare of the population, especially the poor.

Not the least of the virtues of this fine book is the way in which it builds carefully and explicitly on the work of others rather than making tedious claims to pathbreaking originality. For, as Ross notes, historians like myself, Richard J. Bazillion, Christopher Clark, Robert Evans, and Manfred Hanisch have written in different ways about the reforming agendas of post-revolutionary governments in the German lands and beyond. And yet, by drawing our attention to the fate of Prussia, Ross does change the overall picture by giving it a more substantive, bureaucratic inflection that helps to connect the developments of the 1850s with what came before and to situate them in a longer-term language of political change. In this way, she builds bridges between that scholarly landscape and a different set of arguments about the evolution of the Prussian state—and, by extension, of post-unification Germany. Because in the end, of course, Prussia mattered more than states like Bavaria, Hanover, Saxony, and Württemberg. In Germany after 1866, it also mattered more than Austria. Consequently, Ross's book serves not to refine a story of apparent failure but rather to contextualize, enrich, and change the way we understand a story of spectacular success. This book changes how we understand the history of nineteenth-century Prussia in fundamental ways, and it will be required reading for students and scholars of modern Germany for decades to come.

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TOMAS BALKELIS. *War, Revolution, and Nation-Making in Lithuania, 1914–1923*. (The Greater War, 1912–1923.) New York: Oxford University Press, 2018. Pp. vi, 186. Cloth \$85.00.

At under two hundred pages, Tomas Balkelis's *War, Revolution, and Nation-Making in Lithuania, 1914–1923* is a densely written account of a very complex period and place. The emergence of over half a dozen

new national states in Central and Eastern Europe following the First World War was not simply a matter of passing power by treaty from the Russian or Austro-Hungarian Empire to a unified local national community. It involved, particularly in those states that emerged from the collapsing Russian Empire, a violent and convoluted period of conflict. The populations were divided by ethnicity and class, which in Eastern Europe often tended to coincide, as well as by ideology and vision of the future, and the resulting clashes were joined by both neighboring and distant great powers. Developments in the emerging countries showed similarities and differences, depending on their unique situations.

At the outbreak of World War I, Lithuania did not exist on any map. It was part of the Russian Empire, with a very small strip of land in Germany, but with the partially or predominantly ethnically Lithuanian territory administratively fragmented among several Russian provinces. This territory overlapped with areas that in the ensuing period came to be claimed by competing entities and groups in different guises at different times. In addition to remaining in Imperial Russia, possible outcomes of the global and local wars—outcomes backed by various constituencies both within and outside Lithuania—included becoming a German-dominated principality after German occupation in 1915; a unified province of a new, more liberal Russian state after the spring of 1917, assuming that regime could reconquer the area; a Soviet province or satellite state following the dissolution of German power in late 1918; part of a Lithuanian-Belarusian state; or the eventual historical result, becoming a fragile but sovereign and at least initially democratic Lithuanian nation state. Any of these possible outcomes would also have to contend with settling on borders with neighbors on all sides and the question of which city would become the capital. In this territory, there was a mix of Lithuanian, Jewish, Belarusian, German, and Polish people, each of which was also ideologically divided within itself. Thus Balkelis must portray an extremely complex sequence of local and international events over a complex geographic and ideological quilt.

His approach is to focus on the military and paramilitary violence and the role of that violence in shaping events and outcomes in lieu of, say, diplomatic history. It is war and mobilization and the decisions, events, and policies associated with them that drive the story. The book is divided into seven thematic but roughly chronological chapters that follow the developments from the outbreak of World War I in 1914 until the end of the clashes between armed civilians and paramilitaries in the Lithuanian-Polish border region in 1923.

The names of organizations and other terms are offered in both the original and in English. Area nonspecialists will also be helped by the explanations of terms and abbreviations. There are no quotations or names