focus. His approach is also distinctly interdisciplinary: narratively constructed chapters are followed by sections that attempt to quantify barricade occurrences (see the database of European barricade events on pages 243–312), and chapters based on historical explanations precede others marked by a sociological imprint. (The author worked closely with the late Charles Tilly on the concepts of "repertoires," "routines," and "cycles" of collective action).

The book has an ambitious aim: to resurrect the complexity of a form of struggle that is embedded in values, practical functions, social attitudes (like that toward the building of solidarity), and symbolic meanings. In a sense, it is an attempt to bring back to life the old *annaliste* ideal of total history. The sources Traugott skillfully manipulates are consequently varied, ranging from diaries to governmental notes, literary descriptions to administrative dossiers. The result is a book that is intriguing and stimulating, and in some ways surprising.

Contrary to what one might expect, the volume does not focus on the modern history of barricades: the well known Paris revolts of 1830, 1848, and 1871 take up less room than Traugott's analysis *à rebours* of the Parisian insurrections of 1789, 1648, and 1588. He shows that the role of the barricades during the entire revolutionary period of 1789–1795 has been neglected. Here he joins the group of scholars who are searching for the nature of popular protest by emphasizing, with Charles Tilly, the remarkable continuity of the patterns of crowd action, as opposed to those that, with William Sewell, underscore the rupture in the style of contention after the French Revolution.

The painstaking search for the origins of the "barricades-phenomenon" projects the reader into France between 1570 and 1588 when the "thing" and the term (derived from *barriques*, wine barrels filled with earth for use as barriers) were first invented. However, the many and interesting pages devoted to this search are tainted by a tendency to overemphasize elements that gain importance only in hindsight. Even if the term was still to be invented, barricades were known well before 1588, particularly in late medieval Italian communes. The Parisian "invention" of this system of urban defense appears less innovative if it is viewed from a past perspective and not as an adumbration of the future.

———Francesco Benigno, University of Teramo

Richard J. A. Talbert, *Rome's World: The Peutinger Map Reconsidered*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 2010.

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The *Tabula Peutingeriana* or "Peutinger Map" is crucial to the understanding of the development of classical and medieval cartography. Produced in around 1200, the work was ultimately derived from a late Roman original, and thus may be regarded as the closest thing we have to an extant classical map. In

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both structure and detail the map is unique. It represents the world from India in the east to the Pyrenees in the west (and sections that have since been lost probably extended this to Spain and Britain) in a mapped frieze that is roughly 22 feet long and a little more than 12 inches in height. Were this extraordinary elongation not enough, the detail of the Peutinger Map is equally remarkable: although rivers, seas, and mountains are present, its most conspicuous feature is the complex web of roads, routeways, and stopping points that cover this landmass. Part unique cartographic anamorphosis, part London Underground map, the Peutinger Table offers a tantalizing glimpse of Roman approaches to cartography that are vastly different from our own.

The principal stated ambition of Richard Talbert's important new book is to lay the foundations for further study of this fascinating document. The result is a delight to the historian of cartography and should accomplish just that. The book examines the eleven extant pages of the map manuscript in extraordinary detail, and considers their history over the last half-millennium. This includes a careful assessment of the several (imperfect) scholarly copies that have been made of the map during this period. The exact replication of vast quantities of visual information has always been tremendously difficult—this is one of the reasons why large maps had such a high social and cultural status before the advent of printing. Yet the very fact that early modern scholars had such difficulty in making faithful copies of the Peutinger manuscript is also a forceful reminder of the perils that confront the historian when attempting to reverse this process and trace the same map back to its own antecedents. We can probably assume that the thirteenth-century copyists of the Peutinger Map were careful in their task, since late Roman toponyms are generally reproduced accurately, and the extraordinary visual balance of the image must have been derived from the original. Nevertheless, it is as well to remember that this is a copy of a Roman map, and a late copy at that.

Modern photographic technology makes reproduction easier than ever and this is where Talbert's project really excels. A supplementary (and freely accessible) webpage hosted by Cambridge University Press includes a wealth of material, including a complete database of all of the toponyms on the map (with corresponding reference to later Roman geographical texts and to the *Barrington Atlas*) and reproductions of all of the later copies. Most prominent of all is a high-resolution composite image of the map parchments themselves, joined together to form a (largely) seamless whole. The user is presented with a variety of visual overlays, in order to highlight specific aspects of the map. For the first time, in other words, the *Tabula Peutingeriana* is genuinely available for detailed research to a wide audience. The effects of this on scholarship should be extraordinary.

Talbert offers his own interpretation of the map, and this is generally persuasive. He suggests from the peculiar dimensions of the image, from the prominence afforded to Rome (and to a lesser extent Constantinople), and from the obvious effort involved in its production, that the map was intended as a display

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piece, perhaps in an apsidal throne room of one of the emperors of the early fourth century. This interpretation is convincing enough, although his conviction that the distortions of the map were intended to shock and amuse an audience wholly familiar with other forms of global mapping is more difficult to sustain. Important as these suggestions are, however, the true importance of *Rome's World* is certainly in its presentation of a fascinating source to a wide audience. In this it has succeeded triumphantly.

———A. H. Merrills, School of Archaeology and Ancient History, University of Leicester

Julia A. Clancy-Smith, *Mediterraneans: North Africa and Europe in an Age of Migration, c. 1800–1900*. Berkeley: University of California Press, 2011.
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Julia Clancy-Smith's study of Tunis and its wider Mediterranean context is populated by the migrants who traveled through the port and city during the nineteenth century, some of whom settled permanently as part of Tunis' multi-layered society. They came as court officials and servants of the Husaynid beys, subsistence workers from southern Europe and the Mediterranean islands, technical and scientific experts moving from one modernization project to another, consular officers representing various European powers, bourgeois Jewish families, French missionaries, Muslims fleeing the colonization of Algeria, Italian political exiles, and more. Clancy-Smith shows that each of these groups defies easy categorizations, which fail to capture the multiple identities and dislocations experienced by individuals and families. To take one example, early missionaries in Tunis were Catholic women, some of them European, but others North African; expelled from French Algeria due to Catholic infighting, the order was welcomed and supported by a Muslim ruler, the Husaynid bey of Tunisia. Divisions and segregation between religious, national, ethnic, and professional communities are often overdrawn in the scholarly literature, though as Clancy-Smith shows it was not all harmony either.

The author investigates how Tunisians and in particular the Husaynid dynasty and European consuls viewed, and interacted and coped with immigrants from all social backgrounds. The book is divided into topical chapters that tackle theoretical problems in migration history and the scholarship of empire. The importance of geography and location, of identities of place rather than of religion and nationality, is highlighted throughout, as are the crucial ways in which gender made a difference in the experience of migrants and settlers. The first two chapters introduce the reader to the social geography of the port and city of Tunis and the history of migration in the

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