By 1930, when he gave the Kahn Lectures at Princeton University on which this book is based, Frank Lloyd Wright had been practicing architecture for more than thirty years. He had achieved fame abroad but was still little known in the United States. He was not building much at the time—the Depression had just begun, and commissions were scarce—so he focused instead on inspiring “young men in architecture.”

*Modern Architecture* resonates with Wright’s prophetic and sometimes cantankerous voice. Its six chapters correspond to the six talks he delivered to “over-lectured” Princeton undergraduates, who—according to the preface by Princeton architecture professor E. Baldwin Smith—discovered in his words “not forms but fire, not forums but ideas, not formality but vitality.”

The book itself is an elegant art deco object. The ornamental endpapers feature, in salmon-colored type, fifty-one aphorisms, ranging from the thought-provoking to the inscrutable:

“An organic form grows its structure out of conditions as a plant grows out of soil . . . both unfold similarly from within.”

“Good form is good sense put into some effective shape appropriate to some material.”

“Chewing-gum, the rocking chair, and picturizing are all habits equally valuable to modern art.”
Debo’s classic work tells the tragic story of the spoliation of the Choc-taw, Chickasaw, Cherokee, Creek, and Seminole nations at the turn of the last century in what is now the state of Oklahoma. After their earlier forced removal from traditional lands in the southeastern states—culminating in the devastating “trail of tears” march of the Cherokees—these five so-called Civilized Tribes held federal land grants in perpetuity, or “as long as the waters run, as long as the grass grows.” Yet after passage of the Dawes Act in 1887, the land was purchased back from the tribes, whose members were then systematically swindled out of their private parcels.

The publication of Debo’s book fundamentally changed the way historians viewed, and wrote about, American Indian history. Writers from Oliver LaFarge, who characterized it as “a work of art,” to Vine Deloria, Jr., and Larry McMurtry acknowledge debts to Angie Debo. Fifty years after the book’s publication, McMurtry praised Debo’s work in the New York Review of Books: “The reader,” he wrote, “is pulled along by her strength of mind and power of sympathy.”

Because the book’s findings implicated prominent state politicians and supporters of the University of Oklahoma, the university press there was forced to reject the book in 1937 for fear of libel suits and backlash against the university. Nonetheless, the director of the University of Oklahoma Press at the time, Joseph Brandt, invited Debo to publish her book with Princeton University Press, where he became director in 1938.
Kurt Gödel, mathematician and logician, was one of the most influential thinkers of the twentieth century. Gödel fled Nazi Germany, fearing for his Jewish wife and fed up with Nazi interference in the affairs of the mathematics institute at the University of Göttingen. In 1933 he settled at the Institute for Advanced Study in Princeton, where he joined the group of world-famous mathematicians who made up its original faculty.

His 1940 book, better known by its short title, *The Consistency of the Continuum Hypothesis*, is a classic of modern mathematics. The continuum hypothesis, introduced by mathematician George Cantor in 1877, states that there is no set of numbers between the integers and real numbers. It was later included as the first of mathematician David Hilbert’s twenty-three unsolved math problems, famously delivered as a manifesto to the field of mathematics at the International Congress of Mathematicians in Paris in 1900. In *The Consistency of the Continuum Hypothesis* Gödel set forth his proof for this problem.

In 1999 *Time* magazine ranked him higher than fellow scientists Edwin Hubble, Enrico Fermi, John Maynard Keynes, James Watson, Francis Crick, and Jonas Salk. He is most renowned for his proof in 1931 of the “incompleteness theorem,” in which he demonstrated that there are problems that cannot be solved by any set of rules or procedures. His proof wrought fruitful havoc in mathematics, logic, and beyond.
The years 1793 and 1794 marked the Reign of Terror of the French Revolution, a bloody period characterized by the brutal repression of those suspected of being counterrevolutionary. The so-called Committee of Public Safety, which directed the Terror, ordered 2,400 executions in July 1794 in Paris alone, and across France 30,000 people lost their lives. R. R. Palmer’s *Twelve Who Ruled* is the classic study of the twelve men who made up the committee, the most famous of whom was Robespierre. Palmer approached each man as an individual, describing and explaining his inner motivations and dramatically portraying his revolutionary role. In addition, he saw the Committee of Public Safety as the prototype of modern dictatorships and the Reign of Terror as an early incarnation of the totalitarian state.

Palmer’s other great classic, also from Princeton, is his *Age of the Democratic Revolution: A Political History of Europe and America, 1760–1800* in two volumes (vol. 1, *The Challenge*, 1959; vol. 2, *The Struggle*, 1964), for which Palmer received the prestigious Bancroft Prize in 1960. Palmer’s key idea was that a single great democratic revolution against an entrenched aristocracy swept Western culture between 1760 and 1800, and that the American Revolution was the most important single event in precipitating this revolutionary era. These two volumes have been of singular significance for historians on both sides of the Atlantic and together with his *Twelve Who Ruled* established Palmer as one of the most important historians of his generation.
As a newly minted Ph.D., Paul Halmos came to the Institute for Advanced Study in 1938—even though he did not have a fellowship—to study among the many giants of mathematics who had recently joined the faculty. He eventually became John von Neumann’s research assistant, and it was one of von Neumann’s inspiring lectures that spurred Halmos to write *Finite Dimensional Vector Spaces*. The book brought him instant fame as an expositor of mathematics.

*Finite Dimensional Vector Spaces* combines algebra and geometry to discuss the three-dimensional area where vectors can be plotted. The book broke ground as the first formal introduction to linear algebra, a branch of modern mathematics that studies vectors and vector spaces. The book continues to exert its influence sixty years after publication, as linear algebra is now widely used, not only in mathematics but also in the natural and social sciences, for studying such subjects as weather problems, traffic flow, electronic circuits, and population genetics.

In 1983 Halmos received the coveted Steele Prize for exposition from the American Mathematical Society for “his many graduate texts in mathematics dealing with finite dimensional vector spaces, measure theory, ergodic theory, and Hilbert space.”
Solomon Lefschetz pioneered the field of topology—the study of the properties of many-sided figures and their ability to deform, twist, and stretch without changing their shape. According to Lefschetz, “If it’s just turning the crank, it’s algebra, but if it’s got an idea in it, it’s topology.” The very word “topology” comes from the title of an earlier Lefschetz monograph published in 1930. In *Topics in Topology* Lefschetz developed a more in-depth introduction to the field, providing authoritative explanations of what would today be considered the basic tools of algebraic topology.

Lefschetz moved to the United States from France in 1905 at the age of twenty-one to find employment opportunities not available to him as a Jew in France. He worked at Westinghouse Electric Company in Pittsburgh and there suffered a horrible laboratory accident, losing both hands and forearms. He continued to work for Westinghouse, teaching mathematics, and went on to earn a Ph.D. and to pursue an academic career in mathematics. When he joined the mathematics faculty at Princeton University, he became one of its first Jewish faculty members in any discipline. He was immensely popular, and his memory continues to elicit admiring anecdotes. Editor of Princeton University Press’s *Annals of Mathematics* from 1928 to 1958, Lefschetz built it into a world-class scholarly journal. He published another book, *Lectures on Differential Equations*, with Princeton in 1946.
Erwin Panofsky was one of the most important art historians of the twentieth century. Panofsky taught for many years at Hamburg University but was forced by the Nazis to leave Germany. He joined the faculty at the Institute for Advanced Study in 1935, where he spent the remainder of his career and wrote *The Life and Art of Albrecht Dürer*. He developed an iconographic approach to art and interpreted works through an analysis of symbolism, history, and social factors.

This book, one of his most important, is a comprehensive study of painter and printmaker Albrecht Dürer (1471–1528), the greatest exponent of northern European Renaissance art. Although an important painter, Dürer was most renowned for his graphic works. Artists across Europe admired and copied his innovative and powerful prints, ranging from religious and mythological scenes to maps and exotic animals. The book covers Dürer’s entire career in exacting detail. With multiple indexes and more than three hundred illustrations, it has served as an indispensable reference, remaining crucial to an understanding of the work of the great artist and printmaker. Subsequent Dürer studies have necessarily made reference to Panofsky’s masterpiece.

Panofsky’s work continues to be admired for the author’s immense erudition, subtlety of appreciation, technical knowledge, and profound analyses.