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Pius also introduced the *Index prohibitorum librorum*, the infamous Index of Prohibited Books, which guided Catholic reading and censorship until the middle of the twentieth century.

– Hans J. Hillerbrand, President, American Academy of Religion, 2005

To forbid us anything is to make us have a mind for it.

– Michel de Montaigne, 1580

It is 1900 in the city of Trier, which straddles the banks of the Mosel River in the southern Rhineland on the border with Luxembourg. The city bustles with 43,000 people, many of whom are engaged in retailing and petty industry. Riesling grapes ripen on the steep slopes up and down the twisting Mosel; they will become the marvelous, crisp white wines that have been the pride of German viticulture since Romans planted the first vineyards upon them in the second century. But for the birth of Karl Marx here in 1818, Trier also boasts unimpeachable credentials as a center of Catholic piety. The roots of this piety run so deep that in 1794, French occupation officials mock the city, the first seat of episcopal authority north of the Alps, as “the throne of sacerdotal despotism.”


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Liberals mock it again in 1844 and 1891, when mass pilgrimages to the Holy Coat of Trier, the alleged tunic worn by Christ until His crucifixion, offend right-thinking scruples. Catholics living here meet these and other insults with defiance. “Away from us all timidity./ Despite the hard sufferings/ Piled up against our church in recent times!” crowed a poem popular among them in 1874. “And even if the enemy’s army rages ever so mightily all around us,/ We take comfort in a little saying that goes,/ ‘Many enemies, much glory!’”

But all is not well in the sacred domains of “despotisme sacerdotal.” Despite the regular philippics of their bishops to reject secular newspapers, which have rung out like thunderclaps since the 1860s, the laity here subscribe to them with an indifference that confounds all clerical attempts at reading steerage, even when readers are threatened with the spiritual damnatio of the Index. Worse, the effort in confessional alternatives to these newspapers is failing. Catholic newsheets intend to seal the hermeneutical space of the diocese by supplying religious interpretations of daily events. But lay distaste for them, which has been growing for decades, pushes them to the brink of extinction. Some readers say they prefer secular over Catholic newspapers for their greater attention to timely business news. Others ground their preference in considerations of public standing: subscribing to an “unbiased” secular newspaper is a mark of intelligence that wins one prestige; subscribing to a “one-sided” confessional newspaper is a sign of “backwardness” that exposes one to ridicule. Still others deny Catholic newspapers because they are so irredeemably boring. In 1874, the Prussian government expanded the region’s rail network by adding Trier to the Kanonenbahn (Cannon’s Railway), a military-strategic line that linked Berlin with Metz in the Empire’s newly won province of Alsace-Lorraine. With the trains come kiosk managers and itinerant hawkers from elsewhere. They sell secular newspapers briskly to Catholics on the move, who by the 1890s want their diverting feuilleton sections that ease the time of travel. Catholic newspapers hold the humor and empty-calorie fiction of feuilleton at arm’s length; the penalty for doing so in the cutthroat fin-de-siècle rivalry for subscriptions is readership atrophy and publication death. Pastors in

3 Quoted in P. Robert Streit, *Führer durch die deutsche katholische Missionsliteratur* (Friburg: Herder, 1911), 239.
Trier are not amused. “There are a great number of Catholics,” one grumbles already in 1882, “who without compunction buy and read the most abominable texts at the railways ... How many Christians are poisoned daily by what they read?”

The Sankt-Paulinus-Blatt für das deutsche Volk [Saint Paul Sheet for the German People], Trier’s diocesan newspaper, suffers this competition cruelly. After changing its name three times in three years in grasping attempts at subscribers who drift to the liberal Trierische Zeitung, in June 1901 it issues a desperate appeal: “The readers of the ‘Paulinusblattes’ are asked to renew their subscriptions on time ... We implore you most politely and urgently to make your circles of acquaintances aware again and again of the recognized advantages of the ‘Paulinusblattes’ and to invite them to subscribe.” Its editors also canvass remaining readers for ideas about improvement. By the end of the month, and on the basis of these ideas, they resolve upon a survival strategy.

“From this state of affairs there is only one way out. If we fulfill all wishes, then everyone will be well pleased. Therefore, in the future we will offer more politics and stories, expanding the paper considerably. This will begin with the next edition.” Religious articles, sometimes consigned to back-page oblivion, decrease in length and number, while simple short stories about humorous hijinks in the military and shooting stars and lion hunts take up the opened space in hastily assembled feuilleton sections. By 1905, the editors declare that the Paulinus-Blatt is free from peril, thanks to its “all important enlargement.”

In the same year, and in addition to the Extra-Blatt it has already adopted for conveying yet more news and stories, it publishes a “Second Extra Supplement” containing the same material. These lures cast upon an increasingly elusive Catholic market, which marginalize religion in favor of usable knowledge and entertainment, save the paper, now all but indistinguishable in content from its secular competitors, from ignominious collapse. Tension like this between clergy and laity over reading discipline has long been grist for the mills of the church’s liberal detractors, who miss nothing in their tireless campaign to destroy clerical reputations.

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This vivid example of lay delinquency – deaf ears to admonitory diatribes, insouciance toward the Index of Forbidden Books and its penalties, refusals of religious texts, the elevation of personal values like economic advancement, cultural reputation, and literary taste over communal values like obedience and confessional loyalty in the setting of reading priorities, the exertion of mortal pressure on clerical publishers to accede to popular demands – would seem to be impossible. The quotation above from no less than the president of the American Academy of Religion expresses the commonplace view that the techniques of Catholic censorship, above all the Index of Forbidden Books, were so comprehensively and successfully applied that believers conformed to their strictures without deviation. And this conformity endured well into the era of mass literacy in a submission to authority unseen among any other social collective of comparable size. *Roma locuta; causa finita est:* “Rome has spoken; the matter is finished.” In a remarkable translation,
this maxim, which originated in one of Augustine’s fifth-century sermons against the Pelagian heresy, became a bedrock principle of secular orthodoxy.

Michel de Montaigne would have been skeptical of the audacious leap in inference this maxim contains. Rome may very well speak, but does it follow necessarily that for the laity the matter is finished? The German clergy, the pastors and publishers of Trier not least among them, might have obeyed Rome in attempting to institute a disciplined regime of popular reading restricted to pious texts and confessional newspapers. But could it be true that the laity, despite their exposure to a vast print market, and in a developing Kulturnation that assigned the most pregnant meanings to the possession, consumption, and display of books, restricted themselves to “naïve” religious literature? Could it be possible that these many millions, a full third of the population under the German Empire (1871–1918), therefore remained frozen in rudimentary reading practices, when every other literate group in Europe matured in skill and range by consuming diverse material by inclination and personal taste? And what about clerical oversight of these practices? Research on state censorship in modern German lands demonstrates that censors were nothing like the potentates of lore. They may have pretended to cultural power, but in reality they suffered wretchedly from the unfeasible demands of their administrative superiors, who could not agree on acceptable rules of publication. They were also a fragile and retreating group, in large part because they so dreadfully feared public exposure as hidebound and inconsistent. How was it, then, that parish priests were able to do what no other censor in Germany was capable of doing, and with nothing like the state’s resources and coercive methods at their disposal?

In undertaking the study that lies before you, I asked myself these kinds of questions. My skepticism toward the answers the scholarship gives them was Montaignean. The “long nineteenth century” is known for the upheavals of industrialization; the destabilizing spread of democracy; and the volume, variety, and complexity of competing ideological movements.

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It saw the rise of new social classes, the adoption of new public values, and the distribution of self-actualizing individuals across vast spectra of opinion on every conceivable subject of concern. It witnessed the establishment of compulsory schooling, too, which placed these individuals under new intellectual figures in expanding spaces of learning. Integrated consumption and leisure markets also came together, whose allure invited people to reconfigure their personalities in light of ambient social pressures to conform and the private desires they entertained to cut a preferred profile in public life. And at the center of all these basic alterations was the printed word in unprecedented diversity and abundance, which promoted and mediated them among people for whom reading had become an everyday activity. The historians of reading are quite clear about literacy’s impact. In encouraging the independence of subjective intellect and will, literacy corresponded to these emancipating changes by freeing people from customary authorities in fundamentally restructured relations of social, cultural, and intellectual power. Everyone in Europe it seems, including Russian peasants, experienced literacy in this way—except the vast majority of Catholics, who remained corralled behind ecclesiastical bans on reading freedom. This “special path” is an exception to the norm that more than intriguess; it strains credulity to the breaking point.

In the historiography of modern Germany, the analytical structure in which this Sonderweg in reading comes down is the spatial metaphor of the “Catholic confessional milieu.” In accord with social scientific imperatives to cut and sort, and reinforced by postmodern assumptions about the communal locations of meaning and identity, the milieu idea frames the interpretive environment. Its empirical facts assemble in a master narrative of historical development. This narrative argues that in response to the challenges presented by German modernity, Catholics...
found unity and mutual succor in an insular subculture, whose boundaries were policed by an authoritarian clergy.

The story begins with the destruction of the imperial church under French occupation and “enlightened” German officials at the turn of the nineteenth century. This traumatic terminus a quo, which shattered the unity of Germania Sacra and stripped the church of property, wealth, and confidence, threw Catholics on the defensive in their relations with public authorities. More than anyone else, the bishops embodied this siege mentality. Oppressed by their deprivation of temporal power and unequal to the new pastoral expectations set upon them, they struggled to reestablish an institutional presence. Instead of turning outward, where their authority in public affairs was no longer welcome, they turned inward, in on the Catholic laity themselves, whose ways of life in the aftermath of Enlightenment provocations, revolution, war, and foreign occupation in some cases were in need of correction. In making this inward turn, the bishops, who were themselves in need of guidance and reassurance, kneeled before the popes in a fundamental break with Teutonic traditions of ecclesiastical independence. Power-hungry popes were only too happy to accept their feudal allegiance. They, too, wanted to offset their loss of secular authority by reasserting pastoral domination within the fortified boundaries of their own church. In doing so, they hoped to realize the expansive claims of absolutist papal monarchy that expressed the Tridentine ideal but that had gone unmet due to stubborn regional particularisms.

Now “the last impediments and hurdles” to total papal power had been overcome thanks to fortuitous opportunities created by the shakedowns of the age. The popes could finally rule unimpeded from on high with the cooperation of the bishops, who as “ideological frontline soldiers” would do the popes’ bidding in an unprecedented and streamlined “ultramontane” centralism.

The story continues. Not only could popes count on complying bishops but also on the priests arrayed beneath them. Early in the nineteenth century, the bishops began driving candidates for the priesthood into diocesan seminaries they themselves controlled, or they sent them to

study under conservative Jesuits at the newly reopened Collegium Germanicum in Rome. On those already ordained the bishops imposed a new regime of intellectual and cultural restraints that bound priests to the bishops’ perpetually tensed view of the “outside” and hopelessly fallen world. This cluster of interrelated developments linked popes, bishops, and parish priests in a vertical solidarity – unprecedented in the history of Catholicism – that was powerful enough to hold believers in a breakaway collective, a Sondergesellschaft, whose binding ties were the principles not only of hierarchy and paternalistic authority but of popular deference to them.16 Parish priests were the key figures in this economy of power for their proximity to the laity. They enforced this deference by stratagems of constant pressure. They harangued the laity from the pulpit, shamed them in the confessional, bullied them on parish grounds, and intruded physically in the otherwise secluded and protected spheres of their private homes.17 The outcome was a tight system of consistency, coherence, and discipline that helps to account for the milieu’s integrating force so surprisingly, and so far, into the twentieth century.18 According to Catholic mystical thought, the people of God on earth constitute the “Church Militant,” the Ecclesia militans. In its totalizing supervision, limitations, and punishments, and in its strict culture of obedience, in which the laity were themselves complicit, the German church was as militant as any national church on earth had ever been.

In recent years, many scholars have cautioned against defining the boundaries of the milieu too absolutely. In politics and social life above all, the laity sought rapprochement on multiple levels of thought and life.

16 Ulrich von Hehl, “Zeitgeschichtliche Katholizismusforschung. Versuch einer Selbstbes-

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action with the broader German world. The core of the milieu idea, however, the narrative at its most tenacious, remains unchallenged. It turns on lay submission to the monopoly of cultural judgment the clergy allegedly set on them. We are talking here not so much about the smallish Catholic bourgeoisie. Like middle-class readers in other religious traditions, they set clerical authority aside. We are concerned primarily with the majority of largely landed Catholics, who fell beneath the disciplined management of their reading practices. This management’s material foundation was the Catholic print market, which churned out a great quantity of diverse religious texts. Its social and cultural foundations were groups of activists led by local clergy, who were committed to these texts’ distribution. According to the narrative, this distribution allowed the bishops to extend their croziers into every locus of reading activity, enclosing believers thereby within a disciplined intellectual landscape.

The most important group composing the substance and molding the contours of this landscape was the Association of Saint Charles Borromeo or Borromäusverein. Founded in 1845 with strong episcopal backing and dedicated to the erection and supply of home and parish libraries, it stood at the forefront of book culture in Catholic Germany. Its history, therefore, provides a unique glimpse of the values and practices of the milieu’s cultural system at work. Scholars who have told it align this history with the broader institutional narrative we have been discussing. They focus on the views and intentions of bishops, which drove in the direction of creating a “closed,” “controlled,” and “narrow” culture of religious books to hold an “education-resistant” laity to the faith. And they forefront the concerns of activist priests in concluding that yes, the Association functioned successfully as a “dam wall” against secular literature and a guarantee that the Catholic Volk read only those texts


given to them by their clerical masters. Derivative conclusions about the extent of the laity’s intellectual life—which, by the logic of clerical power and popular submission to it, apparently require no evidentiary support—then fall into line. The laity rejected the appeals of reading for entertainment, the most popular form of reading in their times. They held new ideas conveyed in books at arm’s length, while every other literate group engaged with them. The epic battles over intellectual authority raging all around them, which were both sparked by and carried out in the public press, achieved no resonance, for unlike all other Germans they reaffirmed the soft submissions of customary deference. They read their saints’ lives, edifying pious stories, and confessional newsheets in accommodating silence. Their intellectual experience in the long nineteenth century was thus a “stretch of desert” (Durststrecke), which is all it could have been for its conduct under the heavy hands of backward, benighted, and manipulative priests.

It is not as if historians have projected this story without background. Catholicism in the era presented a proud, even obstinate church, a symbolically distinctive and culturally empowered clergy, defined public rites, theoretical unity of doctrine, official language, confident magisterial claims about the truth of matters, and a tradition of disciplining lay intellectual deviations. The story comports, in other words, with very strong preconceptions about what Catholicism was historically: preconceptions that also cohere with long-standing secularist narratives about Enlightenment and liberal progress that continue to shape the interpretive élan of international scholarship so far devoted to our topic. And my argument here is not with scholars’ understanding of clerical intentions when it came to popular reading. These intentions will only become clearer in the pages that follow. My argument is that in adopting the clerical hierarchy, and particularly the bishops, as the privileged unit of

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analysis, we are more likely to comprehend what ought to have happened in Catholic book history than what may actually have happened, because the empirical foundation of our study is so small. It is too small, at least, to justify the kinds of claims that are routinely made about lay submission to reading discipline, which have never been demonstrated with documentary or archival evidence. In the study of no other historical community of readers are these claims thought to be plausible. “Official accounts privilege powerful voices,” writes Christine Pawley in an early volume of Book History, the international journal that helped to establish the interpretive canons of the field. Meanwhile, resistance, deviance, and subversion go unrecognized, unrecorded – and sometimes actively suppressed. The less powerful are depicted as passive and manipulated, a portrait that fails to do justice to them as humans who can and do act, and who, even in the most unfavorable institutional circumstances ... exercise choice about how they conduct their lives. Thus, relying only on official records can be not only misleading, but also harmful, to the extent that it supports a view of non-elite people as an undifferentiated and manipulated mass.

More troubling still is the way in which reliance upon elite sources in Catholic book history limits the kinds of questions we should be asking about the clerical–lay relationship. These questions pertain to the exercise and experience of power, which themselves determined for millions of people the scope of their involvement in the social practices and cultural discourses of modern life. By assigning rather than investigating lay attitudes with regard to reading – the primary intellectual act of the modern age – I fear we know very little indeed about how the huge collective of Catholic Germans thought about their world or attempted to find their places in it. Our ignorance about this all but unknown cognitive public invites serious reservations about the stability of broader interpretations of modern German history having to do with topics as central as the pace and details of social embourgeoisement, the reach of national feeling, the everyday experience of war, and the extent of popular adherence to National Socialism. For example, while studying at the Technische Hochshule in Munich from 1919–1922, Heinrich Himmler kept a reading list, recording his selections. One can track his movement into the völkisch milieu, from Christian Nächstenliebe to racial

Judenhass, in part through the increasingly radical books he read. He cannot have been the only Catholic to have followed such an itinerary. In this book, I propose to make these intellectually invisible people known by examining their reading history with the widest possible methodological breadth. In doing so, I am indebted to book history as a mature discipline, which has expanded tremendously the analytical potential of a study of popular Catholic reading habits. At bottom, this expansion has to do with the discipline’s recentering of scholarly attention away from books and the elites who write and promote them, onto readers, including people of ordinary standing, whose self-determined practices of reading, as well as the idiosyncratic meanings they affix to them, compel us to recognize their independence. Book history, in other words, clears analytical space for us to see lower-class agency, even among otherwise tightly bound and hierarchically ordered social groups. Evidence of this agency recovers the voices of individuals that must be heard if we have any hope of reconstructing not just Catholic confessional history in Germany, modern Catholic history overall, and the history of German reading, but the history of modern German knowledge, itself an oncoming field of academic endeavor that accepts religions as legitimate epistemes and their adherents as legitimate knowers.

More specifically, the methods of book history disclose the particulars of how Catholics experienced their literacy on an everyday basis. Emphases on consumer culture draw connections between their intellectual activities and the material objects constituent to them in developing conditions of market capitalism. Patterns of consumption tell us much about the cultural significance that Catholics attached to books and how they used books as markers of religious difference, symbolic tokens for asserting social reputation, and media for expressing unique identities. Attending to identities alerts us to the varying roles books played among segments of the population. Any comprehensive study of book history, then, including this one, must aspire to a histoire totale that elaborates variances in reading desire by class, gender, age, level of education and, in the Catholic case, calling to either the lay or clerical estate. This aspiration imposes a demand of real analytical flexibility when it comes to the ends of reading, as well as to the vagaries of text reception, whose mental coordinates may or may not have appealed to different themes in an otherwise shared theological and spiritual tradition. Elemental to

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reception in any case were the broader social, cultural, and intellectual contexts in which readers were inextricably embedded. Book history insists that we accept them as powerfully determinative of reading spaces, intentions, and practices. Not only do they help us to untangle the complicated bundle of factors that shaped reading choices; they allow us to identify and understand the placement of readers’ affiliations among Germany’s multiple literate subcultures. By viewing these choices and affiliations, finally, as aspects of everyday life, book history draws our attention to the power relationships by which a community of readers was constituted. In the Catholic community of modern Germany, these relationships ran the gamut from parental guidance of children to pedagogical controls of teachers over students to the social pressures people faced to accede to the hierarchies of totemic book cultures. They also included the authority that priests claimed over popular reading behavior and the willingness or unwillingness of the laity to obey it. The methods of this provocative field, then, give us the tools to reevaluate, reimagine, and redescribe the history of lower-class Catholics – the bulk of Catholic Germany – in ways the limiting milieu idea simply cannot.

Under the methods must lie the sources. In collecting, assessing, and arranging them, this study takes as its point of departure the common-sense view that if we want to get at popular reading, we should seek sources that are descriptive of it. Sources expressing the prescriptive views of bishops and priests are important, too, but if used in isolation they warp our understanding and cramp our methodological compass. They also tempt us to fill in the gaps of evidence with ideological claims. Now the lack of descriptive sources in both their quantitative and qualitative manifestations is an obstacle to any history of popular reading. Mosaic stones and fossil bones: our trawl through archives and libraries often leaves us with little more. The asymmetry of evidence between clergy and laity, especially the lower-class laity, itself helps to account for the established narrative of Catholic reading so badly in need of correction. But in


casting a wide net to gather in the broadest possible repertoire of sources, and in reading across these sources synoptically to discover the foundations, layers, and patterns of book behavior, our mosaic stones and fossil bones fall into proper place.

The evidentiary basis for a study of Catholic reading is, in fact, substantial. Publishers’ records, auction advertisements, subscription data, evidence of gifting and swapping, library questionnaires, catalogs of home and parish collections, and lending statistics tell us what kinds of books circulated. Membership rolls of reading clubs, annual chapter reports of the Borromäusverein and other book organizations, and insights into market values and shopping reveal the social backgrounds of readers in all their diversity. Letters written by believers to their bishops requesting access to forbidden books testify to the personal and social ambitions they brought to the act of private reading, which in Germany had real public consequences. Accounts of reading at home, in the workplace, and even in the streets describe the spaces of book activity. Secret reports filed by priests with their diocesan authorities or published in journals intended for clerical audiences only supply firsthand descriptions of popular reading that document the extent of intellectual life, the negotiations of cultural power in parish communities, and the status of lay deference to clerical book “steerage.” Ample supporting evidence, finally, on the social foundations of book cultures, on access to schooling, and on rival reading traditions and popular education movements anchor the history of Catholic book culture to the main developments and dominant discourses of modern German history. These include matters of state authority, the consolidation of national culture, and the integration of confessional minorities.

I made two basic spatial choices in gathering and interrogating this evidence. First, I located the study geographically in the Rhineland and Westphalia, Prussia’s two western provinces following the Napoleonic Wars of the early nineteenth century. Along with Bavaria and parts of Silesia, these provinces are thought to be “core regions” of German Catholicism where the milieu attained its highest degree of clerical authority and established the thickest network of lay associations beneath it.\(^\text{10}\)

If I was skeptical of assertions of reading discipline, why not test them in a paradigmatic territory of clerical domination? The region also features all the elements of nineteenth-century life that make the study of modern Germany so gripping, including the wrenching changes of industrialization, urban and rural demographics in tension, confessional and religious animosities, the popularization of science, and the eruption of democratic politics.

Second, I spaced the study’s temporal boundaries broadly apart to bridge the gap between the origins of popular literacy in the late eighteenth century through to full literacy and mature book cultures in the early twentieth. In marking out such an extensive interpretive terrain, I was guided in the first instance by developments in historiography. Recent studies of the “religious Enlightenment” and the secularization of Germania Sacra have reminded us of the foundational importance of the late eighteenth century to the subsequent development of modern German Catholicism. A number of pathbreaking studies of consumer culture are also set here, and these have powerfully shaped my thinking about Catholic implication in the book market.\footnote{Michael North, \textit{Genuss und Glück des Lebens. Kulturkonsum im Zeitalter der Aufklärung} (Köln: Böhlau, 2003) and Matt Erlin, \textit{Necessary Luxuries: Books, Literature, and the Culture of Consumption in Germany, 1770–1815} (Ithaca, NY: Cornell University Press, 2014).}

More centrally, however, while leading scholars of confessional relations, such as Michael Gross and David Blackbourn, observe that the origins of modern anti-Catholicism are in the Enlightenment era, few studies of these relations actually begin here.\footnote{Michael B. Gross, \textit{The War against Catholicism: Liberalism and the Anti-Catholic Imagination in Nineteenth-Century Germany} (Ann Arbor, MI: The University of Michigan Press, 2004), 74–127 and David Blackbourn, “The Catholic Church in Europe since the French Revolution. A Review Article,” \textit{Comparative Studies in Society and History} 33, 4 (1991): 778.} I concluded that these origins required a more thoroughgoing examination, especially as they pertained to book culture, since I suspected strongly that the threads of religious disagreement, perceptions of knowledge, and attitudes toward social respectability, on which confessional relations in the nineteenth century turned, met and tied together in competing ideologies and practices of reading. Because these ideologies and practices fused in the last decades of the eighteenth century, I needed to commence the study here.

In traversing some 140 years of jam-packed history, I took courage from the intellectual leadership of Helmut Walser Smith. He worries...
about the “chronological myopia” from which historians can suffer if they restrict their temporal vision. His argument is for depth, in order to perceive relationships and draw connections “across long spans of time” that otherwise we are likely to miss or mistake.33 This ranging perspective is helpful to the study of a weighty religious culture like Catholicism’s, which can change as a result of ad hoc external interference but which tends to change, in the words of the incomparable Peter Brown, “slowly and surely over the centuries within itself and under its own momentum.”34 And it is critical to keep this axiom in view when evaluating the evidence of Catholic intellectual culture specifically, because this evidence pulls in opposite directions. The heuristic danger, as John Connelly puts it, is in plucking “either disturbing or exonerating phrases out of the church’s murky past” to satisfy the demands of a thesis when these phrases, if taken in isolation from one other, “tell us nothing about how people lived in a past that exists beyond our mental horizons.”35 This tendency to pluck has bedeviled the study of the “Catholic confessional milieu,” in which a bishop’s sharply worded pastoral letter and a bourgeois teacher’s dismissal of it, if read apart from one another, can lead to very different conclusions about the milieu’s cohesive force. The evaluation of divergent facts must be more systematic in the service of an integrated understanding of the past, and we are more likely to arrive at this understanding if the events under our review are widely spaced. The events that concern us here constituted a revolution in German Catholicism that was nothing less than Copernican. Popular literacy was going to transform the texture and tendencies of the German church more fundamentally than any development to date, to include the convulsions of the Reformation era. To map and track the shifting geography of Catholics’ inner world – to recognize cognitive continuities and departures in an increasingly open system of thought and practice, as new participants in literacy arrived and as the structures of reading discipline came under massive stress – requires phenomenological parameters set at the outer edges of the longue durée.

The stages of our journey through this geography are as follows. The book’s first two chapters describe the intellectual genealogies of the

Protestant bourgeois and Catholic reading cultures, which took on decisive shape amid the “Reading Revolution” of the late eighteenth century and which defined themselves against one another throughout the “long nineteenth century” that followed. Thereafter the study unfolds chronologically, as we come to understand that the book history of the German laity is not the history of the good government of souls. Chapter 3 takes us into post-Napoleonic Prussia to the foundation of the Borromäusverein in 1845, when the clergy fumbled away what may have been their one chance at enforcing reading discipline. Chapter 4 discusses the progressive collapse of reading deference up until 1880, by which time the clergy had all but given up on attempts to rebuild it. Chapter 5 is a topical interlude; it describes the debate over Catholics’ “deficit in education,” whose impact dramatically expanded popular reading desires in the Wilhelmine era of German history to the outbreak of World War I. Chapters 6 and 7 explain why the laity rebelled against the bishops’ exclusive *ars legendi* of religious books, how they bolted to secular libraries and the market to obtain the books they wanted to read, and how the Borromäusverein – which the bishops charged with implementing their vision of popular reading – surrendered to lay demands just to stay alive. Chapter 8 shows us book behavior inside Catholic homes, where men, women, and children developed reading personalities all but indistinguishable from those of other Germans. The epilogue reflects on how the four fields in play in this study – book history, modern German confessional history, the history of knowledge, and the history of modern Catholicism – can be enlarged if only we will let go of the myth of the clergy’s literary Black Terror.