placed by the railed street car, which traveled over iron tracks installed in city streets. Still pulled by horses in their early days, street cars were a vast improvement over the omnibus, offering passengers a smoother and much faster ride. Horse-drawn street car lines fundamentally altered urban geography, making it possible for people, for the first time, to move away from city centers and still work in the city. In New York City, for example, the street railways opened up the territory north of 42nd Street Manhattan for development.

Chapter 4 examines the relationship between the horse and leisure, particularly the incredibly high price the wealthy paid to keep and maintain their horses and carriages. Chapter 5 examines the environmental issues surrounding urban stables for horses, including size, fire safety, and public health issues.

From my perspective, the most fascinating chapters in the book were those on nutrition (chapter 6) and health (chapter 7). The nutrition chapter documented the great diversity in the caloric intake of horses across regions and occupational settings. It also highlighted how large advances in agricultural productivity increased hay production by 50 to 200 percent over the late nineteenth century, driving down the price of food for horses. The chapter on health is nicely encapsulated in two graphs. One plots the average death rate of horses and humans by month over a five year interval. This graph clearly shows that the death rates for both horses and humans peaked and troughed in the same months, suggesting that they were both subjected to a common pool of pathogens or that disease spread quickly from one species to the other. The second graph indicates that the same pattern can be observed in annual data. That the for most of the nineteenth century the fate of humans and horses were inextricably linked is perhaps the most important theme to emerge from this study. McShane and Tarr also focus much of their attention in chapter 7 on the great epizootic of 1872, a terrible strain of what was probably influenza that affected horses and thereby disrupted economies across the country.

Overall, McShane and Tarr have written an outstanding and highly creative book. It should interest historians of cities, the environment, economics, and animals.

WERNER TROESKEN, George Mason University and Mercatus Center


Maury Klein’s *Genesis of Industrial America* is an erudite interpretative survey of one of the most important periods of American economic history—the Second Industrial Revolution. Although it is not a work of original research nor a work of truly original ideas, the book nevertheless succeeds in providing the reader with a succinct, coherent, and interesting account of how modern American society was transformed with the advent of the Industrial Revolution. The book can be read for its grand, albeit familiar, interpretive themes for understanding American society and for its informative narrative history, which is interspersed with useful biographies of well-known actors, such as Cornelius Vanderbilt, and lesser-known innovators, such as Samuel Insull who pioneered the distribution of electricity.

The reader should be warned that the book is a historical narrative that lacks the strong analytical and empirical support that some economists may expect. There is no cliometrics here. Yet, the narrative history follows its own logic, and by the standards of narrative history, Klein’s work stands well. Klein skillfully weaves the grand
themes and a wealth of anecdotal evidence into a fairly tight story. Klein also hits many of the right notes in his choice of subjects to highlight.

The overall theme of the book is based on one of the oldest founding myths of America: that the “business of America is business.” Yet, Klein’s message is somewhat novel and ironic. Ever since Alexis de Tocqueville’s commentaries on early America, Americans have been known for their industriousness, but for Klein, American industriousness and individualism were turned on their heads by the rise of the modern corporation—an unintended monster of the Industrial Revolution. The big modern business became an independent force that destroyed traditional American values and replaced them with new values based on mass consumption and materialism.

Thus, the *Genesis of Industrial America* is in large part about the genesis of modern American culture.

As the title of the book indicates, much of the book’s narrative concerns the rise of industrial America. To understand American industrial success, Klein uses a “hot-house” metaphor. From the outset, America was an economic “hothouse” blessed by circumstances and geography. In America, freedom, liberty, a favorable legal foundation, and the unbounded expanse of land gave fertile soil to the growth of American values of independence, self-reliance, individualism, and the promise of the future. The Schumpeterian entrepreneur cultivated and then transformed these values to create the industrial revolution. The entrepreneur defined the American culture of constant progress, change and innovation. The industrial revolution was fueled by creative destruction and the entrepreneurs became the agents of change, the destroyer of the old and creator of the new. Through courage, craving of power, persistence, and determination, entrepreneurs introduced new goods, new production methods, new sources of raw materials, and new forms of organization to the American economy. In response to this entrepreneurial spirit, the inventors provided the American economy with a tidal wave of new technologies and machines that penetrated every corner of daily life. In the early years, inventions came from countless obscure inventors but became institutionalized in research laboratories in later years.

Between 1870 and 1920 the American “hothouse” blossomed into the greatest industrial nation in the world. The Industrial Revolution was underpinned by three technological transformations: power, transportation, and communications. But the revolution in power was the most fundamental. The introduction of coal and electricity not only revolutionized industrial production but it also fueled the revolutions in transportation and in communications. However, the paths toward integrated national networks of transportation and communications differed. The development of a national network of railroads was accomplished mostly through private initiatives. In the early years, railroads adopted a territorial strategy of protecting their own lines, but as this strategy became untenable, they adopted a interterritorial strategy of cooperation, construction, and consolidation. Due to the lack of overall coordination and fierce competition, there were excessive railroad lines. The development of a communication network may have been a little bit more rational if not more monopolistic. Federal government subsidy and consolidation by Western Union quickly led to nationalized uniform service. With the introduction of the telephone, the communications revolution would touch the life of every American.

The Industrial Revolution led to the rise of the modern corporation in a Chandlerian fashion. However, once these giant corporations arose, they took on a life of their own. Created by individuals to serve their industrial needs, they became creatures of Frankenstein proportions that would pose great threats to individualism and free markets. In addition, population growth, immigration, and urbanization added to the unset-
ling of traditional American society. To cope with these new social maladies, Americans entered the second phase of organizational revolution: the creation of a corporate society. As individualism proved inadequate, groups such as labor unions, farm cooperatives, and professional organizations adopted the corporate organizational model to combat their difficulties. In time, these disparate reform efforts coalesced into the Progressive movement. The results were the rise of the federal government and efforts to reform urban and local governments. Yet, these progressive reforms were unable to recover traditional America. Instead, American culture was redefined by material progress and the mass market consumer revolution rather than by rugged individualism. Through the standardization of products, magazines, sports, and other points of culture, American business defined the common national vocabulary.

Although Klein’s narrative account of the genesis of industrial and modern America is provocative and interesting, it is not entirely convincing. Furthermore, Klein’s survey does not pass the test of serious scholarship. Few alternative explanations are seriously explored or cited. Much, if not all, of the recent relevant contributions in economic history on the topics of industrial revolution, inventive activity, general purpose technology, biased technological change, urbanization, the rise of the professions, and Progressive Era reforms are entirely ignored. Despite these shortcomings, Klein’s book is an engaging and thoughtful survey of an important period in American history.

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On the eve of the American Civil War, the district surrounding Natchez, Mississippi was not only a vital epicenter of Southern cotton production, but also host to an enormously wealthy class of slave-owning planters who constituted perhaps the nation’s greatest concentration of millionaires outside of New York City. Occupying the pinnacle of this Natchez slaveholding class was native Pennsylvanian Steven Duncan. Mary Jane Brazy’s An American Planter: Steven Duncan of Antebellum Natchez and New York carefully traces Duncan’s transformation from eastern blueblood to Mississippi transplant who not only dominated cotton and sugar production in Mississippi and Louisiana, but also developed far-flung business interests and political connections that reached nationwide. Brazy digs deeply into manuscript sources to reveal a complex man enmeshed in business networks that reached across the two worlds of the urban Northeast and agricultural Southwest, whose “uniqueness lies in part in his embodiment of both North and South at a crucial juncture in American history” (p. 158).

Brazy’s chronologically arraigned effort offers a succinct overview of the unusual trajectory of Duncan’s life, ably demonstrating that he may very well have been one of the wealthiest and most influential American planters by the Civil War era. It was unusual for a major southern slaveholder to emerge from the northeast, yet Duncan spent most of his early years in Pennsylvania before attending Dickinson College in his native Carlisle to become a medical doctor in the first decade of the nineteenth century. Duncan had wealthy relatives already residing in the newly established Mississippi Territory and moved to Natchez in 1808 to seek a career in the emerging economic opportunities of the Natchez District.

This study shows how Duncan displayed a sophisticated ability to network and create opportunities through his familial and business associations. After arriving in