

which has not been published previously.) Lucas attempts to explain the origins and spread of what Kuznets termed “modern economic growth,” though Lucas does not use the term, does not refer to Kuznets’s contributions, and does not acknowledge that others have done yeoman’s work in addressing the issue. (In particular, see Richard Easterlin, *Growth Triumphant: The Twenty-First Century in Historical Perspective*. Ann Arbor: University of Michigan Press, 1996.)

Many economic historians will find the amount of dynamic programming and the number of first-order conditions and phase diagrams contained in this chapter to be off-putting. However, each section also contains a nontechnical discussion of the main points, which should be examined attentively. For example, contrary to Kuznets and many other economists and economic historians, Lucas argues that the origins of modern economic growth do *not* lie in technological changes or innovations. Rather, his models predict that growth “arises solely out of the concern people have for the well-being of their descendants, combined with a change in property rights that permits people to pass productive resources on to those dependents” (p. 135) and that it is these factors that created the increased agricultural productivity necessary to promote modern economic growth.

Hypotheses such as these are what make this book valuable. Lucas makes strong theoretical predictions about the interactions among fertility, human capital, and international trade and about how these interactions affect the rate, structure, and spread of modern economic growth. These hypotheses must be tested. However, economic historians have, for the most part, not taken the theoretical literature represented by Lucas’s work seriously and have not attempted to assess the empirical validity of this “new growth theory.” (A prominent exception is N. F. R. Crafts, “Exogenous or Endogenous Growth: The Industrial Revolution Reconsidered.” This JOURNAL 55, no. 4 (December 1995): 745–72.) We should view this book as an opportunity to investigate these models and to reject or to incorporate their insights into our research on economic growth and development.

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Island Epidemics. By Andrew D. Cliff, Peter Haggett, and Matthew R. Smallman-Raynor. Oxford: Oxford University Press, 2000. Pp. xxi, 563. \$120.00.

Islands are natural laboratories for the study of biological phenomena in general, and diseases and epidemics in particular; their isolation makes them ideal places to study the biological and social processes that combine to cause disease patterns. Questions such as the minimum community size to permit continuous (endemic) transmission of a disease are ideally answered by isolated populations of varying sizes, and islands are an approximation to this. This is especially true historically, before fast ships and airplanes made islands less socially isolated. *Island Epidemics* is a *tour d’horizon* by three scientists whose prior work—much of it also as a trio—eminently qualifies them to survey this fascinating and important intersection of history, epidemiology, biology, geography, and the social sciences in general. The book is not only an assessment of the state-of-the-science of island epidemiology, but also an intellectual history of the subject, with accounts of how key breakthroughs were made, and by whom.

The book is well organized, with seven subject-specific chapters plus an introduction and a conclusion. Following an extended discussion of why islands are good settings for studying disease, there is a chapter on the threshold population size for endemic transmission,

learned by studying the same diseases in islands of varying population sizes, and a chapter on the impact of epidemics on islands exposed to a pathogen for the first time. Additional chapters deal with intra-island disease spread, the changing accessibility of islands over time, and environmental aspects of island epidemiology. The final substantive chapter is a region-by-region survey of important work not covered elsewhere in the book. Included here are accounts of the diffusion of HIV in the Caribbean, and kuru, a disease of the nervous system found in New Guinea.

Within each chapter, headings and subheadings delimit subject matter. This divide-and-conquer approach makes the book very readable despite the breadth of its subject matter, especially since concepts are introduced to the readers starting from first principles. One need not be trained as a geographer or epidemiologist to grasp the writing, and mathematics is kept to a minimum. But this approach has its limits, since the authors apparently wish to leave no stone unturned. For instance, one chapter sub-subsection deals with the dual use of Ellis Island as a quarantine station and an immigrant-processing center: the passage consists of a graph showing U.S. immigration over time, a page of halftones of Ellis Island, and less than one page of text. We learn that of the 12 million would-be immigrants who passed through Ellis Island, 82,199 were rejected (p. 199); but there is no breakdown by age, sex, time, disease, or country of origin. The reader is left wanting more.

The authors draw on much work, and I think they are most lucid when they deal with their own prolific writing. Examples dealing with measles, the subject of a previous tome by the same authors (*Measles: An Historical Geography of a Major Human Viral Disease from Global Expansion to Local Retreat, 1840–1990*. Oxford: Blackwell, 1993), are particularly well presented. On the other hand, when touching on Norma McArthur's work on the introduction of new diseases to Pacific islands, scrofula (tuberculosis of the lymph nodes) is discussed separately from tuberculosis (presumably meaning pulmonary TB), with no connection drawn between the two (p. 144).

Island Epidemics is comprehensive in its coverage and methodical in its treatment, no small feat for a subject as complex and interdisciplinary as this. Unfortunately, the authors have included too much, and the book bursts with minutiae. When defining islands, the authors make note of "traffic islands, marked areas in a road to provide a refuge for passengers" (p. 6). Is this germane to epidemiology? On the same page, we learn that there are "greater than 10^{20} " islands on earth. I am not sure if the authors mean that each square millimeter of the earth's surface is its own metaphorical island, but that such a statement was not elaborated upon or escaped proofreading does not bode well for the rest of the book.

The authors are to be commended for employing a diversity of graphical data-analysis techniques, as well as copious and clearly drawn maps of island epidemics. Nonetheless, there are far too many illustrations. For example, the authors assert an ever-increasing scientific interest in island diseases, and they illustrate this beautifully with a bar chart of publications on the subject over 200 years (p. 3). There follow two pages of disease-specific subfigures, which could have been omitted without diminishing the point. The portraits of pioneers in the field (10 pages) help breathe life into the story; I presume the photographs of various ships and airplanes are meant to do the same, but I doubt they are worth the eight pages allotted to them. The reproductions of contemporary maps and facsimile copies of title pages and other original works (15 pages total) seem like filler. Overall, most pages contain some illustration or table. The result is that the authors present vastly more information than can possibly be interpreted cogently in a book of this length. The reader is left feeling at a loss.

This book is a survey, not a research monograph. As such, it is quite useful for those who are new to this domain and want to get up-to-speed. The hefty price notwithstanding, the book could be used as a text in an introductory course in island epidemiology at the advanced undergraduate or master's level. Moreover, scholars wishing to explore island epidemics as an interesting way to examine other social phenomena—for example, wages and labor supply—will find a gold mine in the book's 90 pages of supplemental material. Two appendices, arranged by island, provide detail on data sources, and the 50-page bibliography is usefully cross-referenced to sections in the text. For this reason alone, this book will be valuable for libraries. But readers looking for a new synthesis of island epidemiology will not find it here.

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The Emergence of Modern Central Banking from 1918 to the Present. Edited by C.-L. Holtfrerich, J. Reis, and G. Toniolo. Aldershot: Ashgate, 1999. Pp. 398. \$99.95.

This book consists primarily of the proceedings of a conference held at Evora in Portugal in May 1996 to celebrate the sesquicentennial of the Bank of Portugal. The conference comprised two parts, the first involving (central) bank archivists and the second monetary historians. This book covers only the contributions of the monetary historians, though there were a sizeable number of these: 11 papers treat the history of central banks in 17 countries—the United Kingdom; France, Spain; Germany, Japan; Sweden, Finland; Portugal; Italy; Austria, Hungary, Czechoslovakia; the United States, Canada; Argentina, Brazil and Mexico—plus the IMF and the BIS. In addition there is an introduction by two of the three editors, and a concluding comment by Barry Eichengreen, which latter reads more like an earlier introduction, since it refers both to a paper (by Marc Flandreau) presented at Evora but published elsewhere in the meantime, and to another paper (by Michael Collins), which clearly was totally rewritten (and with a new joint author) between the conference and publication; overall perhaps an indication of problems in the publication process?

The title is more than a little misleading about the period covered. Most of the case studies include the earlier history of the central bank in question, some even giving as much prominence to the pre-1914 as to the post-1918 experience (notably the chapters on the Bank of Portugal, by Jaime Reis, and on the Latin American experience, by Carlos Marichal and Daniel Fuentes), and many are somewhat sketchy on the final half of the century. Thus the chapter on the Bank of Italy (by Cosma Gelsomino) goes up to the 1950s only; the chapter on Central Europe (by Aurel Schubert) concentrates on the period 1918–1938; the chapter on Germany and Japan (by Carl-L. Holtfrerich and Toru Iwami) focuses on the postwar reconstruction of central banking in those countries between 1945 and 1950. Indeed a much better title for this collection would have been *Central Banking in the First Half of the Twentieth Century*. Anybody searching for an account of the switch from Keynesian subservience, to monetarism, to central bank operational independence and the adoption of monetary targets should look elsewhere.

But I should not carp about what is not in the book, when the actual contents are so good. The papers presented here are written by careful, expert monetary historians; consequently, their quality is uniformly high. Anyone researching the history of an institution covered in this book will need to read the relevant chapter. It is invidious to try to select