women’s expectations had been shaped by stories of the American Revolution passed down from mothers and grandmothers.

The major strength of this book is how Glyph creates a new narrative about women in the war—across race, class and regional boundaries—by challenging the battlefield/home front divide. This strategy is particularly useful in bringing to the forefront the experiences of enslaved southern black women in the war, who have rarely been depicted as playing an active role in the war effort. Glyph's argument is strongest in relation to the experiences of women in the South. This may be because the fluidity between home and battlefield is easier to see in areas under occupation or threat of occupation (which happened only in small portions of the North). It may also be because the book focuses more on the experiences of (southern and northern) women in the South, rather than women in the North. Overall, this book is a vital contribution to the scholarship on the Civil War because it does not merely illuminate the experiences of diverse groups of women; it also uses that evidence to transform our understanding of the Civil War (and perhaps war) itself.


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For the past fifteen years environmental historians have been laying siege to the corpus of Civil War historiography trying to break through the entrenched lines of battle narratives, slavery studies, and political histories. With this effort by Judkin Browning and Timothy Silver, they have brought their artillery within range of their objective. In a briskly written text of fewer than 200 pages, they highlight the themes Civil War environmental historians have the unique ability to explore and make more relevant to our broader understanding of the conflict. The themes are clearly laid out; however, in an attempt to provide systematic coverage of the entire four years of the war, they are also somewhat unsatisfactorily arrayed in chronological order. Chapter one is “Sickness, Spring–Winter 1861.” The chapter starts with a detailed discussion of
the new diseases that enlistees were exposed to in the first months of the war and how armies adapted to the issue. For example, measles had a particularly debilitating effect on the mustering and training of southern soldiers drawn from rural areas. Of course, it is well known that throughout the war microbes were deadlier than bullets so the authors in the later pages of the chapter move beyond 1861 and discuss later disease challenges, particularly the Union Army’s effective response to malaria and yellow fever.

Chapter two is “Weather, Winter 1861–Fall 1862,” and it illustrates some of the challenges of bringing the environment to bear on military operations. The authors focus on George B. McClellan’s Peninsula Campaign, emphasizing how the soil, topography, and most especially, the weather shaped the outcome. Repeated and heavy rain bogged down McClellan’s advance. In addition, thick mud and standing water weakened the troops by limiting their access to rations and triggering dysentery, typhoid fever, and malaria. By the end of the campaign as much as 20 percent of McClellan’s army was afflicted with illness including twenty generals. Yet after establishing the key role of weather in events the authors steer clear of a deterministic conclusion by noting “McClellan’s personality and questionable decisions make it difficult to evaluate the role of weather in the Union defeat” (65). This cautious, perhaps judicious, approach reoccurs throughout the book as the authors advocate for the environment to be regarded as simply one of many factors influencing military operations. This balance is reflected in the respective backgrounds of the authors. Browning is a military historian while Silver is a specialist in environmental history.

The remaining chapters enhance our appreciation for the role of food, animals, and terrain. The chapter on death and disability is the least enlightening and does not take us much beyond the work of Drew Gilpin Faust and Mark S. Schantz. The chapter on animals, however, is particularly illuminating. Horses, obviously, were an important part of Civil War armies but so many military histories simply take their presence for granted. Browning and Silver establish the huge advantage the North had in the number of horses and the vast scale of their use. In 1864, the Army of the Potomac had more horses than Robert E. Lee had soldiers. The lack of horses limited the mobility of Confederate forces and, for example, shaped Braxton Bragg’s strategy after the victory at Chickamauga where a third of his horses were killed. The rebel army’s regular impressment of horses from civilian farms helped to keep their wagons and artillery in motion but severely affected food production. Feeding animals was a huge logistical challenge that the North managed
very well. A cavalry force of 1,000 horses required seven tons of hay and six tons of grain every day.

Iowa readers may be particularly interested in the impact of the war on pork production in the Confederacy. The staple of the Southern diet became dear as the war dragged on with 70–80 percent declines in the pig population. In the wake of war, the South became dependent on midwestern pork imports. Iowa hogs that were raised on corn had a higher fat content than the lean free-range hogs of the pre-Civil War South. This prompts the authors to speculate, “the Civil War might be partly responsible for the comparatively high rates of obesity, high blood pressure, stroke, and heart disease in the South” (192). The war also illustrated the deficiency of veterinary knowledge in the country, which prompted both the army and many land grant colleges to begin the systematic study of animal health. In 1879, Iowa State College established the nation’s first college of veterinary medicine.

Near the end of their volume Browning and Silver argue that the Civil War brought about a profound change in America’s relationship with its environment. Proving that, however, will be the task of another volume. What they do accomplish is to enrich our understanding of the agency of microbes, animals, and landscape on the military history of the war.


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Peppermint oil is not just a niche product at your local organic food store. It has a long history as a commercial item in the United States, a story which is meticulously surveyed in historian Dan Allosso’s unconventional book *Peppermint Kings: A Rural American History*. It traces the history of three different families who were involved in the production and distribution of peppermint oil. Allosso’s story is one of agricultural entrepreneurs, sometimes odd but always driven, who sought to make their fortunes selling something that the modern world has little use for, other than as a flavoring. But peppermint oil, made by boiling the plant in stills like whiskey, had wide appeal in the nineteenth century. It