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Displaying the Industrial: Toward a Genealogy of Heritage Labor

Cathy Stanton

The hope for a “postindustrial” society is, in fact, only a touristic way of looking at work.

—Dean MacCannell, *The Tourist: A New Theory of the Leisure Class*

Scholarly attention to the class politics of industrial heritage has tended to focus on places and people experiencing deindustrialization within ongoing, global-scaled processes of economic restructuring in the later part of the twentieth century, with attention to the relationships of “old (industrial) economy” and “new economy” workers and the kinds of transitions and redevelopments often grouped under the term *gentrification*. The growing exploration of these relationships and processes adds a welcome critical complexity to our understanding of the production of “heritage” and the multiple roles that heritage sites, narratives, and workers perform. A further welcome development is the nascent exploration of these forms of production as work in themselves—that is, as labor devoted to preserving and interpreting “obsolete” forms and spaces of labor within transformed or transforming economies. At industrial sites, much of this labor has historically been unpaid, provided by railroad and canal enthusiasts, local preservationists, volunteer docents, and countless others. But it intersects in important and revealing ways with the contributions of compensated and increasingly professionalized workers in the present-day knowledge and service sectors. And it also has a much longer genealogy than we tend to assume, with links to conventions and locations that emerged concurrently with industrialism and perhaps with capitalism itself. While the field we now call “heritage” is arguably an outcome of late twentieth-century deindustrialization, this longer genealogy, which I begin to trace in this article, challenges us to rethink the labor of display more generally as a

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1 means of explaining, legitimizing, occasionally challenging, and often repairing the
2 effects of industrial capitalism in its expansive as well as contractive moments.¹

3 In what follows, I survey some locations and manifestations of industrial heritage
4 labor over the long span of the industrial era with an eye to the class positionings
5 of the people undertaking the work of display at industrial and industrial history sites,
6 as a way to illuminate some of the complex roles played by cultural producers within
7 industrial—and now “postindustrial”—capitalism. It is important to note at the out-
8 set that this is a sketch toward a genealogy rather than a comprehensive history. I
9 am building toward the kind of “history of the present” that Foucault envisioned
10 as a way of better understanding the logics and operations of power and particular
11 systems of thought within contemporary institutions and ways of thinking—in this
12 case, ways of thinking about industrial sites and histories. The chronology that begins
13 to emerge from this survey suggests that far from being subsequent or secondary to
14 industrial production—doing what Barbara Kirshenblatt-Gimblett has described as
15 endowing the obsolete or outmoded with “a second life as heritage”—the forms of
16 cultural labor associated with displaying the industrial have in fact been present from
17 the start.² Labor scholars have become highly cognizant of the economic importance
18 of experience, affect, image, and other intangible products associated with postin-
19 dustrial places and processes; the genealogy sketched below shows earlier forms of
20 display prefiguring and in some ways exemplifying those types of contemporary cul-
21 tural production. It also suggests that cultural workers have served crucial functions
22 by explaining and helping people—sometimes including themselves—to adapt to
23 the ongoing volatility of industrialism and capitalism, often from class positions that
24 exemplify the uncertainties of emergent and contingent professions or statuses. Seen
25 this way, the labor of producing heritage and display appears as a complementary,
26 not supplementary, activity that ultimately enables and extends capitalism’s reach, a
27 process that continues into the present and that has now become a primary economic
28 driver—or at least an aspiration—in many places.

29 **A Note on Sources**

30 This initial gesture toward a genealogy draws on a variegated and fragmented body
31 of data that includes primary and secondary, historical and ethnographic sources. In
32 a sense I am looking backward from my own ethnographic study of public historians
33 at a national park devoted to industrial history, a project that showed how closely the
34 class positions of the people interpreting the industrial past mirrored those of visitors
35 to the site and suggested that their cocreation of meanings served a shared purpose
36 in locating themselves more securely within the shift into “postindustrialism.”³ This
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40 1. Elsewhere I have proposed a general framework for broadening the economic and historical contexts
41 within which we examine this type of cultural production; this article begins to trace some of the develop-
42 ments and connections within that broader framework. See Stanton, “Keeping ‘the Industrial.’”

43 2. Kirshenblatt-Gimblett, *Destination Culture*, and see esp. 131–87, “Destination Museum.”

44 3. Stanton, *Lowell Experiment*.

1 interpretation of present-day heritage labor prompts me to read backward into the
 2 secondary literature on historic and commemorative sites.⁴ This now-extensive body
 3 of work contains many hints and clues about the people involved in production and
 4 display but almost never considers their activities as a form of labor in itself, a lacuna
 5 that may reveal something about the methodological and intellectual challenges of
 6 looking too reflexively at those who are engaged in doing work much like historians'
 7 own.⁵ Whatever the reason, the available secondary evidence deals only glancingly, if
 8 at all, with the question of how the producers of industrial display have been situated
 9 within shifting class formations in a given moment. Thus my historical evidence here
 10 is somewhat piecemeal; the records of particular industrial corporations, museums,
 11 parks, and historical societies would no doubt yield further clues that could be con-
 12 textualized much more fully.

13 In addition to a survey of the existing secondary literature, I am reading for-
 14 ward from my vantage point as a participant-observer within a number of research
 15 and planning processes at industrial history sites and national parks over the past fif-
 16 teen years and as an observer more generally of the proliferating contemporary man-
 17 ifestations of heritage discourse and display, which I discuss in the final section. This
 18 *longue durée* approach allows me to consider the production of imagery and ideas sur-
 19 rounding industry very broadly, without drawing too limiting a line between displays
 20 of active industry, preservation and interpretation of defunct industries, and types of
 21 display within the industrial era more generally (for example, the battlefields surveyed
 22 in the next section) that may not appear to relate directly to industrialism or capital-
 23 ism but that nevertheless help us to see how the labor of producing industrial heritage
 24 per se is part of a much broader project of coping with the challenges and contradic-
 25 tions inherent in capitalism. My broad-brush approach is intended to compare loca-
 26 tions and experiences that seem to suggest continuities and inheritances and to clarify
 27 some of the complexities of present-day work in preserving, presenting, and under-
 28 standing the industrial "past." The survey that follows is admittedly heavily focused
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 31 4. This "history and memory" literature is rooted in the work of Maurice Halbwachs, Pierre Nora,
 32 Paul Connerton, Michael Kammen, and others, and includes studies of commemorative practices, post-
 33 conflict memorialization, heritage tourism, museum and collecting practices, cultural and craft revivalism,
 34 and historic preservationism. There is also a substantial (and often peer-reviewed) "gray literature" commis-
 35 sioned by state agencies as part of processes of designation and interpretation of specific historic sites. Sources
 36 cited in this article are drawn from both bodies of scholarship.

37 5. I discuss the issue of historical and ethnographic reflexivity as well as the perceived tensions between
 38 history and heritage, in Stanton, *Lowell Experiment*, 16–28. One exception that may prove the rule in this
 39 case is Leon Fink's attempt to chronicle in some detail the family and political backgrounds of two heri-
 40 tage workers in a North Carolina mill town. The couple in question, initially collegial and supportive of
 41 Fink's research into their community history project, angrily withdrew their consent to use their oral his-
 42 tory interviews when they realized they themselves were being scrutinized. See Fink, "When Community
 43 Comes Home to Roost." To date, the studies that are most explicitly focused on history and heritage pro-
 44 duction as a form of labor have come largely from the social sciences; see, e.g., Handler and Gable, *New
 History in an Old Museum*; Kirshenblatt-Gimblett, *Destination Culture*; Stanton, *Lowell Experiment*; and
 Tyson, *Wages of History*.

1 on the United States, particularly the northeast, where most of my own research has
 2 taken place. While the connections seem strong and suggestive and the region is
 3 undoubtedly significant to an understanding of the emergence, growth, and decline
 4 of manufacturing in North America, the argument will benefit from testing against
 5 other regional cases in industrialized places and—perhaps more suggestively—places
 6 where industrialization and professionalized heritage production are now emerging
 7 simultaneously as twinned aspects of capitalist development.⁶

9 **Nineteenth-Century Proto-professionals**

10 As industrialism was taking hold in northern England and the northeastern United
 11 States in the early nineteenth century, many of its novel and spectacular aspects
 12 became the focus of the kinds of display and visitation that were also emerging in the
 13 nascent tourism industry, enabled by the same new technologies of mass communi-
 14 cation and steam-powered transportation.⁷ In addition to the very well-known indus-
 15 trial expositions and World's Fairs that began at mid-century and the practice of “fac-
 16 tory visiting” among businesspeople themselves, there are many accounts of industrial
 17 production and infrastructure serving as attractions for visitors.⁸ As steam began to be
 18 the motive power of choice in the British textile industry in the early part of the cen-
 19 tury, some older water-powered factories invested in gigantic new waterwheels that
 20 not only expanded production capacity but drew onlookers to marvel. One of these,
 21 revolving at a stately three times per minute and producing up to 140 horsepower,
 22 was described as “one of the wonders of Lancashire” and was a significant draw for
 23 visitors.⁹ The utopian image of early nineteenth-century textile mills at Lowell, Mas-
 24 sachusetts, widely understood as an antidote to oppressive British factory towns, was
 25 burnished through tours and parades that put its state-of-the-art facilities and its earli-
 26 est labor force of young American women on display for observers, including visiting
 27 politicians and celebrities.¹⁰ In Pennsylvania's coal country, tourists thrilled to the jux-
 28 taposition of wild scenery and human ingenuity in the form of railways and process-
 29 ing facilities. Mirroring the Ferris wheels, roller coasters, and other machine-inspired
 30 amusements at fairs and carnivals in this era, the same rail lines that transported coal
 31 also trundled visitors up and down the mountainsides of Mauch Chunk (now Jim
 32 Thorpe) from the earliest days of coal mining in the area, providing an exhilarating
 33 glimpse of what Leo Marx termed “the technological sublime.”¹¹

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 36 6. For a discussion of one such setting, see Sweet and Qian, “History, Heritage, and the Representa-
 37 tion of Ethnic Diversity.”

38 7. See Franklin, *Tourism*, esp. chap. 2; and Sears, *Sacred Places*, esp. the introduction.

39 8. On industrial expositions in the United States, see Rydell, Findling, and Pelle, *Fair America*, 14–44.
 40 On factory visiting, see Bradley, *The Works*, 9–11; and Scranton, *Endless Novelty*, 208–89.

41 9. Malm, *Fossil Capital*, 89.

42 10. See Kasson, *Civilizing the Machine*, 53–106; and Bender, *Toward an Urban Vision*, 21–93.

43 11. On Mauch Chunk, see Sears, *Sacred Places*, 189–208. On the “technological sublime,” see Marx,
 44 *Machine in the Garden*.

1 The existing literature provides little in the way of detail about the specific
 2 people staging and organizing these displays and tours. But an adjacent heritage
 3 setting—the preserved battlefields of the American Civil War—offers some clues
 4 about the emergence of a class of protoprofessional cultural workers in the second half
 5 of the rapidly-industrializing nineteenth century. A good deal more work remains
 6 to be done to produce a fuller account of the (seemingly all white) men and (much
 7 less frequently) women who were employed as the first stewards, interpreters, guides,
 8 and administrators at preserved battlefields. But some preliminary data can be pieced
 9 together from the corpus of administrative histories of battlefield parks produced by
 10 the US National Park Service as well as from other historical and historiographical
 11 studies of battlefield commemoration.¹²

12 These sources reveal a quite remarkable number of lawyers involved in
 13 first-generation Civil War battlefield preservation and interpretation along with a
 14 sizable contingent of educators. For example, at Gettysburg, local attorney, educator,
 15 Civil War veteran, and civic promoter David McConaughy, already instrumental in
 16 transforming the civic landscape through the creation of a garden cemetery in the
 17 prewar years, worked to make the battlefield accessible to the pilgrims who began
 18 arriving almost as soon as the guns stopped firing.¹³ George Carr Round, a Union veter-
 19 eran from New York State, became a lawyer after the war and resettled in Virginia,
 20 where he was an early advocate for preserving the Manassas battlefield. In addition
 21 to organizing veterans' commemorations at the site, including a fiftieth anniversary
 22 "peace jubilee" in 1911, he also served as superintendent of schools and founded a pub-
 23 lic library, all of which seems to locate him within the educational and civic currents
 24 of several Progressive Era cultural and educational movements.¹⁴ For these and other
 25 people in both law and education, social status and authority was not as assumed or
 26 assured as it would later become, reflecting class fluidities that appear to be strikingly
 27 characteristic of cultural work over time. These early battlefield interpreters stood
 28 somewhat uneasily between the living and the dead; between well-educated elites and
 29 those who were closer to manual labor or to working the land; between the state and
 30 various publics; between the firsthand memories of veterans, the curiosity of civilians,
 31 and the different authority of historians, who were themselves becoming increasingly
 32 professionalized in this period; and between the raw reality of battlefields as sites of
 33 industrialized slaughter and visitors' increasing aspirations to gentility as expressed
 34 through ever more commercialized practices of touring historic sites and natural or
 35 human-made wonders.¹⁵

36 This is not industrial heritage labor per se, but it is precisely the kind of work
 37 that I am arguing reflects the specific anxieties and changing class positions char-
 38 acteristic of industrialism and capitalism more generally. Well before any explicit

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 40 12. My own preliminary exploration of these early battlefield stewards was presented in an unpub-
 41 lished talk in 2009 (Stanton, "Oracle at Gettysburg").

42 13. Weeks, *Gettysburg*.

43 14. Zenzen, *Battling for Manassas*, 4–6.

44 15. On Civil War battlefield tourism and aspirations to gentility, see Weeks, *Gettysburg*, 14.

1 articulation of the idea of culture and history as resources to be professionally man-
 2 aged, these workers appear as the precursors to a soon-to-be-elaborated mana-
 3 gerial sector, helping to “sacralize” Civil War battlefields (in Dean MacCannell’s
 4 terms) and render them “visitable” (in Bella Dicks).¹⁶ These acts of transvaluation
 5 and translation—what Kirshenblatt-Gimblett has called “produc[ing] the local for
 6 export”—constitute a mode of cultural production that was becoming more closely
 7 interwoven with economic exchange, even as Americans were using these sacrali-
 8 zed sites to negotiate racial, sectional, moral, and other tensions that seemed distinct
 9 from, even antithetical to, the logic of capitalist markets.¹⁷ Much as subsequent heri-
 10 tage workers have done, these intermediary figures helped to package an experience
 11 of encountering the past that could resolve—at least momentarily—the ambivalence
 12 many Americans felt about modernity and “progress” within their rapidly industri-
 13 alizing society.

14 15 **Building Out the Heritage Landscape**

16 From the turn of the twentieth century into the 1920s, these protoprofessions began to
 17 coalesce into more firmly fixed positions and locations, creating an increasingly cod-
 18 ified landscape of cultural representation that related to industrialism both directly
 19 and indirectly. At the same time as battlefield preservationists were presenting one
 20 kind of counterface to industrialization, well-educated workers and reformers at
 21 rural and urban settlement houses and in historical pageants and craft revivalism
 22 presented another. Through acts of what David Whisnant has termed “systematic
 23 cultural intervention,” they celebrated and promoted non- and preindustrial skills and
 24 lifeways, crafting cultural performances that depicted an orderly march of progress
 25 toward an inevitable and desirable present and future.¹⁸ Although civic and historical
 26 pageants were initiated and performed largely by civic volunteers, pageantry grew
 27 widespread enough to support a cadre of professional organizers who could be hired
 28 to assist with staging what were often vast spectacles with thousands of participants.¹⁹
 29 Pageants were performed everywhere, from tiny rural hamlets to large industrial cit-
 30 ies, while craft revivalism was a more rural phenomenon that took hold with partic-
 31 ular vigor in places that seemed to have been left behind in the march of progress.
 32 For example, in parts of Appalachia, traditional basketry and carving became saleable
 33 badges of cultural identity for impoverished white populations; the cultural workers
 34 in this case were mostly well-educated women, many of them from New England,
 35 who established schools, settlement houses, and craft businesses in rural communi-
 36 ties. Urban settlement-house workers were also mostly women who were similarly
 37 focused on celebrating traditional lifeways even as they guided their immigrant flocks

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40 16. MacCannell, *Tourist*, 43–45; and Dicks, *Culture on Display*.

41 17. Kirshenblatt-Gimblett, *Destination Culture*, 149. On the long-standing connection between bat-
 42 tlefield parks and local economic development, see Lee, “Origin and Evolution of the Military Park Idea.”

43 18. Whisnant, *All That Is Native and Fine*, 13.

44 19. David Glassberg, *American Historical Pageantry*, 108–10, 115–17.

1 toward American modernity and citizenship. There were strong if sometimes unac-
 2 knowledged links between these cultural interventions and programs of civic and
 3 economic promotion or development, with common ground around the goal of mit-
 4 igating or offsetting the tremendous volatility and economic disparity of Gilded Age
 5 industrial capitalism.

6 More squarely within the realm of the industrial itself was the factory tour,
 7 a stylized form of presentation that emerged in the 1890s. To MacCannell, such
 8 “work displays” signal a new phrase in modern mass tourism and modernity more
 9 generally. People in the modern world, he argues, struggle with the task of somehow
 10 comprehending and locating themselves within a dauntingly differentiated socio-
 11 economic setting that creates alienation on a number of levels—among individuals
 12 and groups, between past and present, and between people and the products of their
 13 own work. MacCannell sees tourism as an inchoate but increasingly systematized
 14 attempt to construct some sense of a whole out of the disparate parts of that world,
 15 from things supposedly outside modernity—“primitives,” “nature,” “obsolete” life-
 16 ways and crafts—to its most prototypical sites and emergent trends—new buildings,
 17 spectacular infrastructure, cutting-edge technologies.²⁰ In his view, factory tours,
 18 like visits to infrastructural and civic sights, are quintessentially modern rituals that
 19 help create a sense of holism. They serve to integrate visitors into what he calls “the
 20 universal drama of work” by presenting supposedly transparent views of labor and
 21 production at both the trailing and leading edges of capitalism and industrialism.²¹

22 There were many reasons why corporations began courting tourists during
 23 the Progressive Era. Muckraking journalists had exposed the darker side of indus-
 24 trialization, while repeated economic shocks had made many Americans leier of
 25 large-scale capitalism and corporate influence. As corporations expanded from city
 26 centers into suburban belts, new and often gigantic manufacturing facilities seemed
 27 opaque to neighbors and customers, adding to the sense of distrust and unease. In the
 28 same era, the growth of a managerial and professional class went hand in hand with
 29 the emergence of advertising as a professionalized industry, enabling more sophisti-
 30 cated packaging of corporate images and the cultivation of consumer loyalty through
 31 a range of new techniques, including putting factories themselves on display.²²

32 The rise of factory tours created a new semiprofessionalized role within the
 33 industrial environment: the tour guide, whose position in many ways mirrored that
 34 of the expanding managerial layer of the period. Tasked with creating a sense of
 35 accessibility and transparency while also hewing closely to a company line (“You do
 36 not have the privilege of volunteering any information not given in this Manual,” a
 37 1931 Heinz factory tour script warned),²³ guides performed crucial affective labor for
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 40 20. MacCannell, *Tourist*, 57–76.

41 21. MacCannell, *Tourist*, 63.

42 22. On the rise of managerialism during what is sometimes termed the second industrial revolution,
 see Nelson, *Managers and Workers*; and Noble, *America by Design*.

43 23. Marsh, “Greetings from the Factory Floor,” 383.
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1 their employers, navigating the territory between visitors and the factory floor and
2 between controlled corporate narratives and widespread public uncertainty about the
3 changes taking place in an increasingly industrialized world. Corporations crafted the
4 first generation of factory tour experiences by building special routes, features, and
5 viewing mechanisms into their plants—large windows overlooking production floors,
6 reception areas furnished as elite drawing rooms—and by training in-house guides
7 to present strategically honed messages. The spaces of white-collar labor were omit-
8 ted from these tour routes, as were the less “presentable” of blue-collar workers and
9 tasks. Rather, visitors were treated to carefully curated glimpses of production pro-
10 cesses in ways that emphasized docile workers, well-coordinated assembly processes,
11 stupendous scale, and sophisticated technologies. Spectacular industrial processes like
12 a blast at a steel plant were particularly compelling; in Pittsburgh, the “matinee at
13 the mills” was touted as both educational and celebratory.²⁴ The inclusion of an occa-
14 sional older building provided a sense of continuity with the past, helping to construct
15 a timeline in which visitors could locate themselves in an ever-improving present. In
16 1904, for example, the H. J. Heinz Company floated its founder’s boyhood home five
17 miles downriver to its flagship plant in Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania, where it became an
18 important stop on tours as “The House Where We Began.”²⁵ Tourists’ own physical
19 positions—moving through an industrial campus in a skillfully choreographed pro-
20 gression, looking down at manual laborers from elevated walkways or through panes
21 of plate glass—reinforced their socioeconomic distance from the work that was on
22 display. The fact that the literature on factory tours tells us far more about the physical
23 spaces than about the people serving as guides underscores their essentially facilitat-
24 ing role. Like the battlefield interpreters, they were mediators who were themselves
25 largely invisible, secondary to the industrial spectacle both in their own time and in
26 subsequent historical inquiry. More exploration into the people performing this role
27 could confirm whether, as in many tourism settings, they were operating between sta-
28 tuses, perhaps drawing on insider knowledge or experience in translational and per-
29 formative ways that served both their employers’ interests and their own.²⁶

30 With the establishment of industrial museums per se starting in the 1920s,
31 this mediating role expanded, overlapping with amateur and avocational forms of
32 preservation and presentation in much the same way as was happening at Civil War
33 battlefields and other nascent historic sites. Many factories featured small in-house
34 museums, while some stand-alone sites were also reconfigured as museums. Per-
35 haps most notable was the Slater Mill in Pawtucket, Rhode Island, often touted as
36 the “birthplace of the American Industrial Revolution,” which was purchased and

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39 24. Slavishak, *Bodies of Work*, 94.

40 25. Brian Butko, “Heinz”; Littman, “Production of Goodwill,” 71–84.

41 26. The tourism literature includes many examples of tour guides who create interstitial positions
42 for themselves by drawing on local knowledge, relationships, and authority. For a discussion of the triadic
43 and surprisingly fluid relationship among tourists, locals, and brokers, see Cheong and Miller, “Power and
44 Tourism.” On tourism as a crucial site where the “global” and “local” have long constituted one another, see
Salazar, “Tourism and Glocalization.”

1 restored by a consortium of prominent industrialists in the early 1920s.²⁷ Many of
 2 these projects were instigated and staffed by engineers who were also collectors, hob-
 3 byists, and enthusiasts for the histories of their own fields. Mike Wallace sees this as a
 4 reflection of engineers' transition into the managerial class, a move that both cut them
 5 off from their origins on the shop floor and gave them a platform for celebrating tech-
 6 nological and economic progress alongside employers at whose control they had pre-
 7 viously been more inclined to balk.²⁸ There were some counterhegemonic moments
 8 within the display of industrial culture and heritage—for example, the famous 1913
 9 Paterson Strike Pageant at Madison Square Garden in which thousands of striking
 10 silk workers portrayed themselves in a performance orchestrated by the Industrial
 11 Workers of the World. But by and large, the emerging conventions of industrial dis-
 12 play reflected solidly middle-class visions and socioeconomic locations, mobilized in
 13 service to the interests of the expanding corporate order.²⁹

14 15 **Midcentury Celebration and Repair**

16 The catastrophic collapse of capitalism during the Great Depression paradoxically
 17 extended rather than undermined the project of constructing a visitable industrial
 18 heritage. In the United States, the state's efforts to restart the economy opened up
 19 new roles and livelihoods for historic preservationists and interpreters, creating fed-
 20 eral, state, and local park systems, heritage inventories, and tour routes that still serve
 21 as important elements of cultural-sector infrastructure.³⁰ In many places, remnants
 22 of nonindustrial lifeways were cleared away to create new "natural" spaces, but in
 23 at least some places, sites of industrial or protoindustrial production were incorpor-
 24 ated into the newer attractions. At Hopewell Furnace National Historic Site in
 25 southeastern Pennsylvania, for example, the remains of an eighteenth-century iron-
 26 making site were discovered while the surrounding area was being transformed into a
 27 state park. Before federal work-relief laborers could take away all the stones from the
 28 old furnace to serve as dam- and road-building materials, historians in the National
 29 Park Service—whose own mandate had recently been expanded to include historic
 30 sites—made a case for preserving and restoring the old furnace and some of its sur-
 31 rounding village as an homage to the small-scale origins of the state's iron and steel
 32 industry. As at other heritage sites, many of the staff and volunteers at Hopewell Fur-
 33 nace straddled the line between manual and white-collar status, interpreting ways of
 34 living and working that were framed as past while occupying transitional roles that
 35 looked toward a future in which cultural production was an increasingly important
 36 economic driver in and of itself.³¹

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38 27. Blewett, "Machines, Workers, and Capitalists," 269–73.

39 28. Mike Wallace, *Mickey Mouse History*, 80–81.

40 29. On the Paterson Strike Pageant, see Glassberg, *American Historical Pageantry*, 128; and Green, *New York 1913*.

41 30. On these developments, see Conard, *Benjamin Shambaugh*, esp. chap. 6; and Unrau and Willis, *Administrative History*.

42 31. Glaser, "Administrative History of Hopewell Furnace National Historic Site"; Stanton, "Cultures
 43 in Flux"; Stanton, "Past as a Public Good."

1 Starting in the Depression years, American factory tours shifted toward what
 2 some have since termed “biztainment” as industrialists responded to public resent-
 3 ment and pushed back against more stringent government regulation of business.³²
 4 Taking their cue in part from the “century of progress” expositions that prolifer-
 5 ated in the 1920s, upgraded tours emphasized the benevolence of corporate steward-
 6 ship of environmental resources and the many benefits of job creation and tax reve-
 7 nue for local communities, while the act of touring itself helped to underscore the
 8 message that free markets were open and aboveboard, in contrast to secretive, cen-
 9 tralized socialist economies.³³ Although they were ideologically very different from
 10 New Deal programs of cultural and economic repair, corporate self-displays during
 11 the Depression and early years of the Cold War similarly worked to create bridges
 12 between industry’s past and its present (and sometimes its future, as with General
 13 Motors’s famed “Futurama” display at the 1939 World’s Fair). In Bethlehem, Penn-
 14 sylvania, for example, corporate leaders at Bethlehem Steel partnered with the Cham-
 15 ber of Commerce to promote Christmas-centered tourism keying off the city’s name
 16 and its Moravian heritage, including its small-scale “colonial industrial quarter.” This
 17 venture was launched during the Depression-era downturn in steel production as a
 18 way to shore up the city’s struggling downtown and demonstrate that “the Steel” was
 19 keeping its host community’s best interests at heart.³⁴

20 Corporate self-celebration through heritage production gained new momen-
 21 tum in the United States after the Second World War, continuing to overlap and
 22 occasionally to merge with state-sponsored and community heritage projects as
 23 well as with the increasingly professionalized realms of urban and regional plan-
 24 ning, tourism-oriented marketing, and museums. In Delaware, the Dupont Com-
 25 pany celebrated its 150th anniversary in 1952 by founding the Hagley Museum at
 26 its original powder manufacturing facility; it opened to the public five years later.
 27 The refurbished Slater Mill in Rhode Island was also regularly opening to visitors by
 28 the 1950s. In 1953, Heinz’s “House Where We Began” in Pittsburgh was moved to
 29 Greenfield Village in Dearborn, Michigan, where a second generation of adminis-
 30 trators was beginning to professionalize the presentations at Henry Ford’s idealized
 31 American village as part of a package of attractions that included tours of the iconic
 32 Rouge plant, open to the public since the 1920s.³⁵ The idea of creating holistic her-
 33 itage environments at living history villages and historic districts was more widely
 34 adopted as the postwar years went on; San Francisco’s Ghirardelli Square, an indus-
 35 trial food-production site reconfigured in 1964 as a space of upscale consumption,
 36 became an important model and inspiration for similar “adaptive re-use” and “festi-
 37 val marketplace” projects throughout the industrialized world.³⁶

39 32. Littmann, “Production of Goodwill,” 80; Newsom, Collier, and Olsen, “Using ‘Biztainment’ to
 40 Gain Competitive Advantage.”

41 33. Littmann, “Production of Goodwill,” 80–81; Rydell, *World of Fairs*.

42 34. Taft, *From Steel to Slots*, 67–68.

43 35. Barndt, “Fordist Nostalgia”; Butko, “Heinz”; Swigger, *History is Bunk!* 105.

44 36. Isenberg, *Downtown America*, 256–311; Taft, *From Steel to Slots*, 52. On festival marketplaces, see
 Dagen Bloom, *Merchant of Illusion*.

1 Culture as Resource and Product in the Late Twentieth Century

2 The mix of vernacular, state-sponsored, and corporate interests involved in industrial heritage display became more integrated into economic projects per se as First
3 World economies began to experience more widespread disinvestment and restructuring
4 in the later decades of the twentieth century. Factory tours declined in this
5 period as corporations moved their manufacturing facilities to places where labor
6 and raw materials were cheaper; those that continued shifted further toward biztainment,
7 with staged representations of production processes rather than firsthand visits
8 to the factory floor. In Hershey, Pennsylvania, plant tours were replaced in 1973 by
9 Hershey's Chocolate World, a small empire of glossy attractions that has since spread
10 to Las Vegas and New York's Times Square. Coca-Cola's new corporate museum,
11 The World of Coca-Cola, opened in 1990 in the heart of Atlanta as part of that city's
12 vaunted reinvention of itself as "the capital of the New South," a claim bolstered by
13 its successful bid to host the 1996 Olympic Games.³⁷

14 Not all attempts to reinvent the factory tour were successful. Kellogg's Cereal
15 City USA, built in Battle Creek, Michigan, in 1998, closed within a decade, in part
16 because potential visitors retained a fondness for the older factory tours that the shiny
17 new attraction was intended to replace.³⁸ As steel production dwindled in Pennsylvania,
18 Bethlehem Steel worked with professional developers on a plan to transform its
19 site into a festival marketplace (including a themed entertainment center to be called
20 "The Foundry"), but the idea failed to launch, and it took another decade before a
21 giant casino firm came in to redevelop the property.³⁹ In a more and more crowded
22 and sophisticated cultural marketplace, the brokering and presentation of authenticity
23 and heritage became a highly demanding business that drew on specialized skills
24 and an ability to create novelty while building on familiar, marketable imagery, narratives,
25 and associations.

26 Those presentations were increasingly crafted and delivered by white-collar
27 workers from a set of interlocking professions that generally complemented but
28 occasionally clashed with each other. Within the repertoire of redevelopment strategies
29 sometimes termed "culture-led regeneration," cultural planning emerged as a
30 new mediating location between cultural and heritage workers per se and the business,
31 real estate, and political interests involved in "revitalization" projects of many
32 kinds. At the more purely marketing-oriented end of the spectrum, these workers
33 contributed to projects that drew on industrial tropes and histories in often facile, surface-level
34 ways. The Sands Casino development in Bethlehem created an entertainment facility that
35 gestured only minimally toward the site's previous use and largely discounted the various
36 efforts to preserve and interpret the history of "the Steel."⁴⁰ In
37 North Adams, Massachusetts, a modern art museum in a former electronics factory
38 drew enough visitors to support a boutique hotel in a row of former working-class
39
40

41 37. Harris, "The World of Coca-Cola"; Rutheiser, *Imagineering Atlanta*.

42 38. Che, "What Happened to Tony the Tiger?"

43 39. Taft, *From Steel to Slots*, 51–55.

44 40. Taft, *From Steel to Slots*, 158–66.

1 housing where, in the words of its website, “retro-industrial architecture mingles with
2 modern comforts, cutting edge technology and a design sensibility that could most
3 closely be described as granny chic.”⁴¹

4 More critical, less profit-driven approaches to preserving and depicting the
5 industrial past emerged from fields like public history, oral history, public folklore,
6 historic preservation, cultural resource management, public art, museum studies, and
7 the design world. Echoing the way that engineers had been drawn more fully into
8 managerial status in the earlier decades of the century, those fields became much
9 more professionalized and purposeful in this period, often linked with academic
10 institutions and guild organizations that provided credentials and an intellectual
11 framework for practice. However, more nuanced or even sharply critical takes on
12 industrialism and deindustrialization could also be absorbed quite comfortably into
13 larger efforts to attract new sources of capital—efforts that often had the effect of
14 replicating and widening older divisions between people who controlled the means
15 of production and those scrambling to find niches for themselves on shifting eco-
16 nomic ground. One revealing story from Lowell, where the US National Park Ser-
17 vice established a national park dedicated to textile history in 1978, concerns a local
18 businessman who was blithely dismissive of the park’s class-oriented critique of Low-
19 ell’s industrial heyday. Referring to a comment by historian Mike Wallace that “If you
20 have Old Faithful in your backyard, then you’re in favor of geysers,” historians at the
21 park acknowledged that the businessman’s response reflected an attitude that “if labor
22 history sells, then go ahead and sell it.”⁴²

23 My own ethnographic work among public historians in Lowell and my obser-
24 vations of cultural workers in similar settings showed that at the turn of the twenty-
25 first century, many of them occupied highly transitional, interstitial class positions
26 that seem typical of cultural intermediaries over the longer course of industrial history.
27 The production and maintenance of industrial heritage sites in that historical
28 moment continued to respond to the modern sense of discontinuity with the past and
29 modernity’s peculiar combination of excitement and unease about technological and
30 economic change. The efforts of cultural workers—agents of the state that serves as
31 one of the main markets for their skills—and the corporate leaders who engage with
32 them in a complex dance of meaning- and place-making combined in a continual
33 suturing of something that was felt to be always already coming apart, a project that
34 both extended industrial capitalism and attempted to remediate and explain its many
35 discontents.

36 **A Touristic Way of Looking at Work**

37 In the second decade of the twenty-first century, it is possible to argue that cultural
38 work itself is becoming industrialized, in the sense of being routinized, highly ratio-

41. “About Porches Inn: Where Art Meets Whimsy,” Porches Inn at MASS MoCA, www.porches.com/about-our-bed-and-breakfast/.

42. Stanton, *Lowell Experiment*, 113.

1 nalized, often mechanized, and carefully monitored in terms of its specific outcomes
 2 and contributions to economic and other kinds of productivity (“A healthy civic commons
 3 will enable economic opportunity through which entrepreneurs can build supply
 4 chains and cultivate markets,” states one influential study that undergirds an
 5 ongoing civil-society, place-making project launched in several US cities with support
 6 from a consortium of large foundations. “A vibrant civic commons will entice
 7 newcomers to invest, and bring their ingenuity and their purchasing power”⁴³). Under
 8 the rubric of the “creative economy” and the fetishized term *innovation*, cultural production
 9 is now a taken-for-granted component of planning and development, with
 10 countless studies, campaigns, and offices devoted to supporting its expansion.⁴⁴ It is
 11 also a crucial element of competition within what Anna Tsing terms “the economy
 12 of appearances,” or the image-driven, performative display of viability, stability, and
 13 identity through which cities, regions, and nations attempt to demonstrate their receptivity
 14 to investment and their potential for capital accumulation.⁴⁵ As the manufacturing of tangible
 15 goods continues to recede as a primary economic activity in most parts of the Global North
 16 while professions geared toward “branding” and producing cultural display continue to
 17 proliferate and become more specialized, it seems likely that the class positioning of the
 18 next generation of cultural intermediaries and heritage producers may reflect less of a
 19 blue-to-white-collar transition than has been the case in the recent past. Instead, newer
 20 workers seem more typical of the well-educated “creative classes” or “cultural intermediaries”
 21 who have come of age in settings that we are now used to thinking of as postindustrial.⁴⁶

22 Set against the genealogy sketched above, the term postindustrial begins to
 23 seem more like a mask for the continued workings of industrial capitalism than a
 24 descriptor of some new phase of it. This is precisely the condition that MacCannell
 25 envisioned in the 1970s when he declared, “The hope for a ‘postindustrial’ society is,
 26 in fact, only a touristic way of looking at work.”⁴⁷ MacCannell correctly foresaw the
 27 ubiquity and holism that now characterize the landscapes of both work and tourism—or
 28 rather, the way that those two realms have continued to merge as the logic of capital
 29 investment and the search for new products and sources of profitability continue to
 30 reshape places, jobs, and ideas. “Modern society divides its industrial and esthetic
 31 elements,” he wrote, “and reunites them on a higher social plane.”⁴⁸

32 43. Municipal Art Society of New York, “Re-imagining the Civic Commons.”

33 44. For some examples of recent creative-economy studies from the United States, see Forman, *Creative
 34 New York*; Harris, Collins, and Cheek, *America’s Creative Economy*; and DeNatale and Wassall, *The Creative
 35 Economy*. Newbiggin, “What Is the Creative Economy?” traces the emergence of the concept of creative
 36 industries and its transformation into the more expansive creative economy since the 1990s.

37 45. Tsing, “Inside the Economy of Appearances.”

38 46. “Creative class” is the widely adopted term originated by Richard Florida in *The Rise of the Creative
 39 Class* and subsequent work. “Cultural intermediary” comes from the work of Pierre Bourdieu and has
 40 been adopted in many studies of “creative” labor; for an overview of this field, see Smith Maguire and
 41 Matthews, *Cultural Intermediaries Reader*.

42 47. MacCannell, *Tourist*, 65.

43 48. MacCannell, *Tourist*, 70.



Figure 1 In the early twenty-first century, the labor of professional historians intersects that of planners and developers in complex ways. This group of scholars and National Park Service staff was touring a redeveloped area of Lowell, Massachusetts, in 2014 as part of a critical reconsideration of the extensive preservation work done in the city a generation earlier. Photo by author.

On this higher plane, tangible manufacturing, spaces of former manufacturing, and purpose-built spaces of display are equally visitable attractions produced using a repertoire of techniques learned and honed over many decades by people in what are now termed the “cultural industries.” Tellingly, those industries are now seen as including the high-production-value fields of film and advertising as well as types of labor traditionally associated with fine art and scholarship. In this blurred, recursive set of locations, cultural production and interpretation are highly distributed and fluid, with such occupational niches as historian, archivist, guide, publicist, entrepreneur, and designer overlapping and recombining in practice (see fig. 1).

The results are wildly hybridized and pervasive. Decommissioned blast furnaces are re-spectacularized with sound and light shows; a well-known filmmaker directs a colossal pageant depicting Britain’s “dark Satanic mills” as part of the global spectacle of an Olympics opening ceremony. Factory tours and corporate visitor centers draw on the same techniques of display whether they are selling social and environmental responsibility (for example, at Ben & Jerry’s Ice Cream factory, a top tourist destination in Vermont) or the wonders of fully industrialized agriculture (as at Fair Oaks Farms in Indiana, a gigantic dairy that incorporates a theme park into its oper-

1 ations). The contemporary boom in small-scale artisanal food and drink production
 2 reflects the generational sensibility of born-postindustrial entrepreneurs, with busi-
 3 nesses that are often highly “display-ready,” adept at layering themselves into older
 4 industrial settings through the production of affect-rich, story-dense marketing materi-
 5 als. Ruin-gazers, graffiti artists, and “urban explorers” approach the entire built
 6 environment touristically, entering abandoned or active industrial and infrastructural
 7 spaces with cameras and often paint in hand; in a perhaps predictable twist, aban-
 8 doned theme parks, hotels, and resorts seem to exert a particular fascination for cer-
 9 tain kinds of tourists, achieving a second life as art. Meanwhile, the digital innovators
 10 whose products enable much of this do-it-yourself representation are far more secre-
 11 tive about their own production facilities; there is strikingly little visitable infrastruc-
 12 ture as yet at Silicon Valley’s gigantic tech companies’ headquarters, although comple-
 13 mentary institutions like the Computer Museum in Google’s home town of Mountain
 14 View, California, and the Intel Museum in Santa Clara, California, fill in some of the
 15 gaps with traditional museum display.

16 The particular class positions of contemporary cultural workers involved in
 17 producing industrial heritage may be shifting, but the genealogy outlined in this
 18 essay suggests that contingency, opportunism, and fluidity in this type of labor have
 19 actually been the norm over time, while the expectation of more fixed professional
 20 locations in the late twentieth century begins to look more like the anomaly—an
 21 echo, perhaps, of the death of Fordist expectations and relationships in industrial-
 22 ized places.⁴⁹ MacCannell’s use of the word *hope* in his formulation of the seeming
 23 shift into the postindustrial is particularly telling here. This set of fields both pro-
 24 duces a sense of continuity with the past and forever operates on the edge of uncer-
 25 tainty about the present and future, a state that professionalization and proliferation
 26 have not rendered any more stable or secure and may in fact have exacerbated. Some
 27 critics have seen the rising level of standardization in a crowded cultural marketplace
 28 leading toward what Briavel Holcomb has called “eclectic conformity,” in which the
 29 encounter between local particularities and purposeful place-marketing can end up
 30 contributing to strangely generic presentations of place and history.⁵⁰ Allied with this
 31 is another long-standing tension between the skills and compensation of those con-
 32 structing the presentations and the people whose cultures, practices, and homes are
 33 being presented. This is increasingly expressed as a concern about the gentrifying and
 34 whitening effects of cultural projects, outcomes that become more evident as more
 35 places adopt these strategies as part of wider development or redevelopment plans.⁵¹

36
 37 49. This is the argument of several scholars who have pointed to post-Fordist capitalism’s “haunting”
 38 by a sense of a supposedly more stable Fordist order. See, e.g., Molé, “Hauntings of Solidarity in Post-Fordist
 39 Italy”; and Neilson and Rossiter, “Precarity as a Political Concept.” See also Lloyd, *Neo-Bohemia*.

40 50. Holcomb, “Revisioning Place,” 142.

41 51. For samples of the growing literature on gentrification and cultural projects or institutions, see
 42 Brown-Saracino, *Neighborhood That Never Changes*; Bures, “Historic Preservation, Gentrification, and Tour-
 43 ism”; Cahill, “Negotiating Grit and Glamour”; Dávila, *Culture Work*; Gregory, “Radiant University”; Herzfeld,
 44 “Engagement, Gentrification, and the Neoliberal Hijacking of History”; and Lloyd, *Neo-Bohemia*.

1 The institutions and organizations credentialing and producing (some have suggested
2 *overproducing*) professional cultural workers are implicated in this critique as well.
3 Like museums, historic districts, arts, and cultural quarters—with which they often
4 overlap—universities and other sites of knowledge production have become indus-
5 tries in themselves, heavily involved in planning, building, and representing their host
6 communities as well as representing themselves through spectacular building projects
7 and the “seemingly compulsory” ritual of the guided campus tour.⁵²

8 With the professionalization, specialization, and routinization of many fac-
9 ets of industrial heritage production, we may be seeing a shift in its historical func-
10 tion of creating an active sense of homage and continuity between past and present,
11 something that historically appears to have been linked at least partially to heritage
12 workers’ own transitional class positions and statuses. This type of labor may come to
13 be less like facilitating a ritual and more like producing a commodity, although the
14 two are by no means entirely distinct. It is worth noting, however, that even though
15 today’s “cultural creatives” are clearly on the higher-status side of the labor continuum,
16 many—perhaps most—are actually highly vulnerable to the contingency that char-
17 acterizes contemporary neoliberal economies more generally. In their own increas-
18 ingly entrepreneurial and precarious pursuit of creative labor, these workers may—as
19 factory tour guides have long done—help audiences connect to an *ideal* of industrial
20 capitalism that may symbolically help to compensate for its turbulence and the unfor-
21 giving logic of profit-seeking. This compensatory function of industrial heritage pro-
22 duction can be traced back to the roots of industrial capitalism; in the present day, it
23 may most clearly express itself in the choice to enter fields that seem to offer at least
24 the promise of meaningful, unalienated work with some degree of status and auton-
25 omy. However compromised or illusory that promise might be, it may nevertheless
26 serve as an implied critique of the expanding neoliberal economic order and a basis on
27 which demands for greater accountability and equity might be made and new conse-
28 quential solidarities formed. ■

29
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34 and coauthor, with Michelle Moon, of *Public History and the Food Movement: Adding the Missing*
35 *Ingredient* (2018).
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40 52. Reischer, “Skipping the College Tour.” On campuses, see Campbell, “Universities Are the New
41 City Planners”; Campbell et al., “Shapers of the New City”; Halsband, “Living and Learning”; and Greg-
42 ory, “Radiant University.” On overproduction in arts schools, see Davis, “Why You Should Be Suspicious
43 of the ‘Creative Economy.’” For a similar argument about public history, see Weyeneth, “A Perfect Storm?”
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