The End of Practical Man: Entrepreneurship and Higher Education in Germany, France, and Great Britain, 1880-1940, by Robert R. Locke

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This volume, based on a carefully organized conference prepared by the German Historical Institute in London, pursues a valid and timely premise: that despite significant differences in context and, even more, in historiographical tradition, German and British trade unionisms are far less different than conventionally imagined and therefore can only benefit from renewed comparative study. Duly noted are Germany’s tendency to link unions with political activity and Britain’s to see trade unions as a central and autonomous current in its labor movement. But the volume finds its quest for a more subtle comparative effort on the correspondence of surges of mass unionism after 1880, similar results of strike waves in giving birth to new industrial unions, and other parallels. A number of initial essays are directly comparative, or at least deal with British developments in a more general European context. Thus, Eric Hobsbawm and Sidney Pollard review factors in the “new unionism,” and James Cronin and Friedhelm Boll discuss strike waves and their trade union impact cross-nationally. Subsequent individual essays, most by current leaders in labor history in the two countries, deal either with Britain or with Germany. But, even here, careful organization produces a comparative thrust, as, for example, in the finding that dock strikes before 1900 in London and Hamburg, though superficially quite different, conduced to similar basic results.

The book moves from initial general considerations to the inquiries on strike patterns, assessment of economic and political context, and the organizational features of the union movements. This is followed by a somewhat more diffuse section on diverse currents such as syndicalism, Christian unionism in Germany, and “Free Labour” in Britain. The final two sections return to more central topics, the relationships among unions, employers, and the state—with particularly interesting comments on the dilemmas employers and politicians faced in choosing between efforts to repress and efforts to integrate—and, ultimately, the place of unions in labor politics in both countries. Again, the essays in these last sections deal with one country or the other, usually through some intelligent parallel organization but occasionally with some unfortunate gaps, so that a major phenomenon in one case is ignored in the other.

Most of the essays are brief, and some have the quality of a survey. All are sustained by excellent citations, and most are well written. In addition to the initial comparative premise, the volume contributes particularly in discussions (in several sections) of trade union organization—where considerable structural differences did divide the two countries—and in dealing with the interactions of the unions with the other participants in labor disputes. Coverage is certainly admirable, although one might lament the absence of any sustained comparison of social (as opposed to political and economic) context; we learn little about workingmen’s lives and how these influenced trade union patterns. For most readers the coverage of German unionism will provide more new data than that on Britain, and this achievement alone is welcome; nevertheless, the essays on Britain not only are refreshing reviews but also provide new insights and intelligently use and critique theories on strike patterns and economic waves. Only a few essays rely on discussions available in more extended works by the same authors. One might wish, finally, for an attempt at summary analysis, which would suggest not only the main lines of similarity and differentiation that the essays collectively reveal but also additional topics, within this time period, that might still be usefully explored (for example, unorganized workers, and attention to German employers commensurate with that given, in several good essays here, to British employers or the German state).

Overall, the volume stands as an unusually stimulating comparative venture that combines attention to the staples of labor history—not only trade union politics and ideology but also benefit programs—with newer sectors such as strike patterns and administrative structures. And, although comparative zeal does not extend to a final statement, most of the essays show awareness of the larger purpose while an introductory comment provides a valid framework. In sum, this book is a stimulating study that amply rewards its initial assumptions and will be useful to labor historians of either country in providing entry to major themes and abundant recent work.

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In the provocative introduction to this important study, Robert R. Locke takes on the "revisionists" in the debate over relative national economic performance—both those who deny that Great Britain and France fell behind Germany economically in the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries and those who accept the reality of this lag but deny that entrepreneurial failure was responsible. In contrast, Locke argues for the traditional view: Great Britain and France did fall behind Germany, perhaps not in per-capita economic growth but in economic "development" (that is, industrialization). Moreover, this relative decline stemmed from poor entrepreneurship that, Locke further argues, resulted from deficiencies in engineering and business education. With his interpretive framework thus defined, Locke then proceeds in the body of his work to describe in rich detail how German business and technical education came to surpass that of France and Great Britain by the early twentieth century.

Whether or not differences in higher education were the main determinant of differences in the economic performances of Germany, France, and Great Britain, the rise of business schools and the academic study of business management between 1880 and 1940 is an important, heretofore little explored subject, and Locke provides the best treatment to date of the German side of the story. In telling that story, he first describes the emergence of a new academic discipline, "business economics," from the pioneering work in cost accounting of Eugen Schmalenbach and others. He then shows how succeeding generations of business economists elaborated a body of business theory, trained teachers for secondary schools, worked to disseminate their ideas on efficient management through journals and professional organizations, and eventually ended up as part of the economic planning apparatus of the Third Reich.

Less complete is Locke's treatment of the French side of the story. He addresses the work and impact of Henri Fayol only in passing and too hastily endorses the negative assessment of French management thought and practice enunciated by Pierre Lémy in the late 1920s. After all, if the origins of Germany's postwar economic "miracle" can be located in innovations in German management in the interwar years, as Locke suggests (pp. 282–83), is it not likely that France's no less impressive postwar recovery also had its roots in the interwar years? Locke at least needs to consider the more nuanced view of twentieth-century French business thought and practice found in recent studies by Maurice Lévy-Leboyer, Patrick Fridenson, Alain Baudant, Henri Mersel, Aimée Moutet, and Richard Kuisel, none of which is listed in Locke's otherwise impressive bibliography.

Another criticism is that in his final chapter, "German Business Economics: The Institutionalization of Management," Locke begins by assuming that, in the twentieth century, good management is synonymous with the application of "business science" and the employment of college-educated managers. He then asserts that, by the 1920s, German business management can be characterized as efficient and that this efficiency can be attributed to the business schools simply because some evidence shows that "business science" was being applied by then (for example, by professors serving as industrial consultants). Such a line of argument is rather circular and involves a faith in the efficacy of academic management theory and training that some will find naive, especially at a time when many are blaming America's business woes on the presence of too many "overeducated" M.B.A.'s in the managerial ranks.

These criticisms aside, this is a well-researched, well-written book. It deserves a careful reading by all specialists in the economic history of modern Europe and particularly by those interested in the issue of comparative national economic performance or the development of business theory and business education.

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Karl Dietrich Bracher, so Hans-Ulrich Wehler contended in 1979, "may well be the most significant West German historian of the past two decades." Works such as Die Auflösung der Weimarer Republik (1955), Die nationalsozialistische Machtergreifung (with Wolfgang Sauer and Gerhard Schultz [1960]), and Die deutsche Diktatur (1969) earned him this reputation because of their scrupulous attempt to detail the specific historical steps on the road to the German catastrophe. Rather than allowing us to remain content with overly ambitious pseudo-explanations of this most ineffable of events, he forced us to attend to the contingent circumstances that produced an outcome that was never foreordained while compelling us to take seriously the political and ideological forces that worked to bring it about.

In addition to being a master historian, Bracher has also taught political science at the University of Bonn and maintained a lively interest in political theory. It is essentially wearing this second cap that he wrote his most recent book, Zeit der Ideologien, which has been published in translation by St. Martin's Press. For, rather than providing a closely