

L. COSTABILE - R. PATALANO (Eds.), *Repertorio bio-bibliografico degli scrittori di economia in Campania*. First part (from 1594 to 1861), with the assistance of L. De Iaco and G. Forges Davanzati, La Città del Sole - Istituto Italiano per gli Studi Filosofici, Naples, pp. XXX - 598.

This book is the first in a series which aims to examine both economic theory and the theory of political economy as seen in the works of writers on economy in the Campania region, whose main city is Naples. Please note: writers on economy and not merely economists. The book includes references to administrative documents which refer to the economy. The period examined covers more than two and a half centuries, a period when economic science was of a very high standard in Campania, as a first-class economist such as Joseph A. Schumpeter - to mention only one name - did not fail to recognise.

The research on which this book and later volumes in the series are based aims to reconstruct the list of writers on economy who were born and/or worked in the region. Biographical details and a list of all works (both published and unpublished) are supplied for every author. It should be remembered that the research behind this book and the book itself are the first tangible result of the *Società Italiana degli Economisti's* commendable project which is urging all the Italian regions to work on an Historical Archive of Italian Economists. This book on Campania is the first volume of this project to be published, and so the authors deserve to be congratulated on both their research and their editorial work.

It was decided to do research on each individual region in order to build the most comprehensive store of information and to obviate any possibility of omission. It goes without saying that this division into regions can work up to a certain point. Already the book we are reviewing, for example, contains the names and works of some economic writers who were not born in Campania; or even in Southern Italy, but their being included in the book appears fully justified, bearing in mind that they did a great deal of their work in Naples, that is in Campania. Bearing in mind that Naples for more than six centuries was the capital of the largest kingdom in Italy, it follows that over the centuries the best economic writers in the Kingdom of Naples in actual fact all came to Naples. However, Naples was not the only capital in Italy in the period examined; it is to be expected therefore that in the books on the other regions authors who were not born in those regions are similarly included.

This book also includes those Italian translations of foreign - French and English - authors published in Naples. Between the mid-eighteenth century and 1861, no less than twenty-five foreign authors were brought to the attention of the Italian public and became part of southern Italian - and not only southern Italian - economic theory. The works of John Cary and Thomas Mun were

translated and published in 1757; J. F. Melon's *Trattato* in 1778; Adam Smith's *Wealth of Nations* in 1790-91; W. Godwin was translated in 1796; N. F. Canard in 1809; J.B. Say in 1817; J.S. Mill in 1826; J.F.X. Droz in 1834, and so on.

There is no doubt that the works translated reflected some of the trends which characterised southern Italian economic theory; at all events, these translations emphasised southern Italy's efforts to keep in touch with the development of economic theory in two countries - France and England - which were at that time in the lead in the western world.

No biographical or bibliographical information is supplied for the foreign authors included in the book; this, however, is not the case for the Italian authors. Biographical information is scanty only in the case of very few authors, but this deficiency is due to no documentation having been found. However, the biographical and bibliographical details supplied for most authors, including the minor authors, are abundant, and enable the reader to set the author mentioned in context with regard to doctrine, in his own individual circumstances and in the social circumstances of the time. It should be pointed out that some of the minor authors included in the book have been hitherto practically ignored. And so, from this point of view, the book is a precious contribution to increasing knowledge about economic theory in southern Italy, and it stimulates new research in this field.

Many of the authors included in this book were concerned with the economic and social problems of their time rather than with economic theory. Together with the hundreds and hundreds of writers listed, the book also deals with authoritative theorists such as Antonio Serra, C. A. Broggia, Antonio Genovesi, Ferdinando Galiani, and with a large and by no means insignificant group of writers who preferred to study the problems which assailed the economic and social life of Naples and Italy as a whole, suggesting remedies which are important from a theoretical point of view, as well as bringing into focus significant socio-economic situations. Sometimes there were descriptions of production sectors where better growth was desired (industry, agriculture, maritime traffic and so on), and so measures to be taken were put forward; sometimes the writers dealt with foodstuff price trends, or land tax, or even how to improve wine or cultivate cotton: even the most significantly theoretical writers mention existing economic problems in their books. The wealth of data and of complex economic matters that appears in the works of writers such as Serra, Broggia, Genovesi, Galiani and so on is well-known.

The works of the writers on the economy in the Kingdom of Naples show that there was a close connection between fact and theory and between theory and fact - so much so that we can rightly assert that as well as being of great interest to scholars dealing with the history of economic theory and economic policy, this book is also extremely useful to economic and social historians, in that it points to a variety of sources able to supply a wealth of data and analyses.

This book is therefore extremely important. Although it has many precedents

in other countries, especially in Anglo-Saxon countries, it is completely new in Italian economic literature. The results achieved reward the intelligent care and the laborious commitment with which the editors and their assistants have carried out this painstaking work which proposes, perhaps unwittingly, an outline of the history of southern Italian economic theory. The publication of the second part is eagerly awaited: it should be no less significant and valuable than this first part, in that the period with which it will deal is largely taken up with the so-called "southern issue", a problem which still today, no less than in the past, inspires socio-economic debate.

LUIGI DE ROSA

E. ELDEM - D. GOFFMAN - B. MASTERS, *The Ottoman City between East and West. Aleppo, Izmir and Istanbul*. Cambridge University Press, 1999, pp. XVI - 244.

This book consists of three papers by three authoritative scholars on three historical Ottoman cities: Aleppo, Izmir and Istanbul. However, it is not a mere collection of papers. As is explained in the Preface, the book is the fruit of a project which has come to maturity over several years, during which time the research has been the subject of in-depth comparisons on the part of the authors. Eldem, Goffman and Masters have aimed to ascertain whether Ottoman history has given birth to a single city-model rather than to a number of urban centres, each differing from the other to a greater or lesser extent.

The book is, in a certain sense, an answer to Weber's idea of a city. Weber believed the "city" to be a self-governing municipality, whose inhabitants have a distinct sense of their collective identity. It is well-known that Weber claimed that an urban centre in Islamic and other non-European countries governed by bureaucrats who represented an imperial power, which often differed linguistically and ethnically from the inhabitants, could not be called a city. For Weber, whereas diversity was the characteristic of European cities, "Islamic cities (were) monolithic and indifferntiated".

Weber published this theory in 1921. However the debate it fuelled led to a series of studies aimed at reconstructing the identity of one Ottoman city or another, rather than to the confutation or the confirmation of the theory. Research was published on Aleppo, Cairo, Jerusalem and other cities. Over the past fifty years research on Islamic, Ottoman or Arab cities has increased. Sauvaget, David, Masters, Marcus, Hanna, Lapidus, Barbir, Cohen and others had different approaches to the history of individual middle-eastern cities: they dealt with the organisation of society, the economy, institutions, architecture, reforms and the politics of the dominant factions.

In this wealth of varied research there was some criticism of Weber's theory. But it was occasional criticism, prompted by the illustration of some aspect or

other of the cities studied. Nonetheless, this literature has produced results. On the one hand, it has considerably broadened our knowledge of Arab-Ottoman urban reality; on the other hand, it has stimulated the debate as to whether an Arab-Ottoman type of city exists or not. Research such as that of Abdel Nouron on the urban history of Ottoman Syria and that of Raymond on the great Arab cities of the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries was published. And so the Arab world began to be separated from the Ottoman world, and within each of these entities, the appearance and the characteristics of one city were differentiated from those of another. Since it was the Arabs who were under the sway of the Ottoman world, studies on urban history have over the years stressed forms of anti-Ottoman nationalism. And so it was emphasised that Baghdad, Damascus and Cairo were undoubtedly Arab cities, and that alongside the Arab cities there were the Balkan (Muslim) cities¹. And that, within the Ottoman world, the inland cities of Anatolia appeared to be further from and more different from Istanbul and from the other cities of western Anatolia than from the Arab cities. All the more so in that some coastal cities, such as, for example, Izmir, showed marked traces of western influence.

All this has been reiterated to explain why, in order to define the existence of a model for the Arab, Ottoman or Islamic city, the three authors of this book have chosen as the subject of their analyses and comparisons Aleppo - an Arab city, Izmir - an Anatolian city, and Istanbul (where Stanbuli stands for Ottoman) - an anomalous city. B. Masters writes about Aleppo and thus adds further conclusions to his previous research on Aleppo in the seventeenth, eighteenth and nineteenth centuries. D. Goffman, whose important study *Izmir and the Levantine World, 1550-1650*² we have already had cause to commend, here writes on Izmir. E. Eldem, whose many and original articles on the Ottoman capital, on Galata and on the Ottoman Imperial Bank are well-known, here writes on Istanbul.

The reconstruction of the events of the three cities generally starts with the early modern age and ends with the first world war. However, Aleppo existed before Ottoman rule began and was already a large regional market at the beginning of the second millennium B.C., and so the paper on Aleppo includes references to the early events in the city's history, to the role it played at the time of the Crusades, during Mameluke's rule. Aleppo became Ottoman in the sixteenth century, like Izmir or Smyrna, whereas Istanbul had become Ottoman in the fifteenth century.

For the authors of this book, Aleppo was the caravan city of the Ottoman Empire, Izmir the city that, from starting as a village, had risen to become a colonial port, and Istanbul the city that had fallen from being the capital of an

¹ N. Todorov, *The Balkan City 1400-1900*, University of Washington Press, Seattle - London, 1983, pp. XXVII-64 1.

² University of Washington Press, Seattle - London, 1990, pp. XV-236.

Empire to being a provincial capital. Three cities and three different histories. These three histories are reconstructed using both published and unpublished sources with confident mastery: institutions, state intervention, economic and political events, natural disasters, ethnic conflicts and foreign influences are all interwoven. The result is a vivid picture, not entirely removed from the history of the Ottoman Empire and the history of the western Europe.

The conclusions are the most thought-provoking and problematic part of the book. Not only is the "singularity... of Aleppo, Izmir and Istanbul" stressed, but also that of other Ottoman cities in the Mediterranean, such as Bursa and Alexandretta. It is recognised that "in spite of Ottoman attempts at central planning, Izmir spread almost spontaneously..." as a natural consequence of the expansion of trade between Anatolia and Europe. The people who flocked there were, like the "city itself" mainly the product of the tumultuous regional and international trade. Thus the city's élite had their origins in trade. From this point of view, Izmir resembled Alexandretta and Beirut, which, from being minor ports, had, during the Ottoman period, been transformed into great centres for commercial distribution, whereas Istanbul had a great deal in common with Cairo, despite the fact that Cairo remained essentially Arab.

On the other hand, Aleppo and Istanbul were centres of culture and Muslim teaching. Aleppo was a city midway between Ottoman and Arab traditions. But in so far as it was an entrepot for the region, Aleppo did not differ greatly from other historic caravan cities of the Middle East. Whereas Damascus lost a lot of transit trade between the East and the West when Indian trade was rerouted directly to Lisbon and Amsterdam, Aleppo continued to attract European trade, especially Iranian silk, for at least another two centuries.

The three cities examined all had in the Ottoman period, i.e. from the sixteenth to the twentieth centuries, districts where Europeans (Dutch, English, French and Venetian) lived. The districts of Galata, Istanbul, the "factories" of Aleppo and "the street of Franks" of Izmir - enclaves which did not exist in the other Ottoman cities of similar size, age and power - were characteristic. However, of all the cities, Izmir was the most willing to open churches and synagogues. In Izmir, moreover, there was a strong European presence in trade and limited Muslim activity: this was the opposite of the situation in Aleppo and in Istanbul where the Muslim élite were the dominant group.

Not all three cities had the same pattern of growth. Izmir grew more than any other city in western Anatolia, but Aleppo and Istanbul developed differently. In the nineteenth century they underwent numerous changes. And they appeared even more different at the end of the 1920s, when the three cities came under the economic domination of the West, while politically they were part of the nations which had risen from the ruins of the Ottoman Empire.

To sum up, the concept of an "Ottoman", "Arab" or "Islamic" city is somewhat changed after reading this book. The authors recognise that such definitions, like the expressions "the golden age of the Ottoman empire", "the

seventeenth-century crisis", "Ottoman decadence", "world economic system" and so on all contain elements of truth, elements which, however, do not contain the whole truth about the subject in question. From this point of view, the authors believe - and they do not seem to be wrong - that to classify the cities studied, it would be better to use geography or other material features, such as trade and industry.

LUIGI DE ROSA

F. MICHEAU (ed.), *Les relations des pays d'Islam avec le monde latin du milieu du X.e siècle*, Editions Jacques Marseille, Paris, 2000, p. 249.

This is a collection of seventeen essays, six of which are by the editor of the book while the remaining ones are by different authors. They have already appeared in various journals and academic publications or have been taken from books that have already been published.

The theme that runs through all the essays giving the book an overall coherence is that they all examine the relations between the Islamic countries and the Latin world in the four centuries from the tenth to the thirteenth century from various standpoints, considering not just economic aspects but also historiographical, political, cultural, linguistic and other aspects too. The book is divided into five sections: 1) The Muslim east and the Crusades; 2) Andalusia: reality and representation; 3) the Normans and east Maghreb; 4) Mediterranean trade; 5) cultural loans.

As we can see from the subdivision, the essays dealing mainly with economic questions are nearly all included in the fourth section. Most of them are by scholars who are still active. Except for the essay by Goitein, which was written in 1967, all the others were published between 1994 and 1999. Naturally the four essays making up the section focus above all on the role of Italians in the trade between the two areas in the period under study. Except for Goitein's essay, which also uses documentation preserved in the Gueniza in Cairo, the other works are based on the vast literature that has appeared about the subject over the years.

The authors draw various conclusions. Abulafia believes that the opening of the Levant to Italian trade and maritime power coincided with the first Crusades. The commercial, tax and warehousing privileges granted to Genoa, Pisa and Venice before they ventured into the interior for their trade, were a consequence of the help provided at the siege of Acre, Jaffa, Haifa and Tiro. Nonetheless, like the other authors, Abulafia does not go as far as to say that there was no trade between Italy and the Muslim world up to the eleventh century. Abulafia accepts that such trade was kept alive in the medieval period by cities in South Italy including Naples and that the Amalfitans were the first

Italians to trade with the ports of the Maghreb and with the Muslim east. Using documents from the Gueniz, Goitein himself mentions Sicilian and Amalfitan ships which, apart from silk, exported products from South Italy: cheese and honey. But relations with north Africa and with the Levant had already been fostered in the tenth century by Pisan and Genoan ships while Venetian vessels also traded in the east. Balard's essay on trade between Italy and Egypt is of special interest, and with regard to Egypt we should also draw attention to Jacoby's conclusion, according to which Egypt was well ahead of all the other regions in the east Mediterranean and that it was Egypt's organisation and the extent to which it had progressed that prevented the Italians from getting a hold there as they were able to do in Byzantium and the Latin Empire with permanent colonies.

Overall this is an interesting work, with some original insights, some of which should be examined more closely. Considering that these essays are not easy to get hold of we commend the effort to bring them together in a single work which is easy to consult.

LUIGI DE ROSA

L. N. ROSENBAUM, *Paper Making in Eighteenth-Century France*, Management, Labor and Revolution at the Montgolfier Mill, 1761-1805, The John Hopkins University Press, Baltimore-London, 2000, pp. XV - 210.

The paper mill under study belonged, and still belongs, to the Montgolfier family, some of whose members were to claim universal fame in the eighteenth century with the celebrated first flight in a hot-air balloon.

On the eve of the French Revolution the Montgolfier paper works were among the largest in France, despite its being technologically backward. Stifled by diverse regulations and hampered in its development by work methods which were largely out of date, the paper works experienced a very dramatic time in 1781, that is eight years before the outbreak of the French Revolution. It was at the centre of a major strike which was followed by a victorious lock-out by the owners who as a result were able to take into their hands all the power which they had shared with the workers up to that moment. The book reconstructs this event and the ensuing consequences.

The book is divided into five chapters dealing with 1) the old industry; 2) the events and the lock-out of 1781; 3) management; 4) the scale of innovation; 5) the end of hand-made papermaking. The book concludes with a series of tables and figures concerning the number of workmen employed until 1805, the average number of days worked each year, labour costs in certain periods, daily production and other aspects.

However, this book is not only the history of an industrial enterprise,

important as this is; it is a reflection on a transformation which affected large areas of France, Holland, Switzerland and other countries with continual technological transfers, mainly from Britain, and re-exported to other countries. The Montgolfiers' workers strike was the opportunity to break a managerial trend which would have increasingly marginalised the business in relation to the market.

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A. TEICHOVA, H. MATIS, A. RESCH (eds), *Business History. Wissenschaftliche Entwicklungstrends und Studien aus Zentraleuropa*, Wien (Manz) 1999.

The latest volume of the *Veröffentlichungen der Österreichischen Gesellschaft für Unternehmensgeschichte* comprises 21 articles of economic historians focusing on business history. Their publication follows a conference hosted by the Vienna University of Economics in April 1999. This conference, in turn, marked the highlight of the international cooperation of economic historians from Central European countries, under the umbrella of a project dealing with Austria's Central European role during the interwar period. Alice Teichova initiated and coordinated the research.

The contributions to the volume are grouped under four headings: business history as a field of specialisation for economic historians in Europe and USA, banks and cartels in central Europe, selected case studies in the history of industry and commerce and, lastly, the entrepreneurial factor as related to political conditions.

The first section dealing with the rise of an historical discipline over the past decades draws a lively picture of the development of business history in Sweden, Great Britain and the USA, Germany, the Czech Republic, Hungary and Austria. Contributions from Terence Gourvish, Hakan Lindgren, Toni Pierenkemper and Alois Mosser show that, from early stages, its business history was greatly influenced by the work of Alfred D. Chandler. However, Chandler's work did not fail to generate debates among business historians. The authors clearly illustrate the underlying disagreement on the theoretical approaches considered to be appropriate for business history, the task of which discipline is, according to Hakan Lindgren, to lead to a more conscious application of modern economic theory, thus building a bridge between economics and history.¹ With the exception of Lindgren's comments on Sweden all authors point out that access to archives of different enterprises/ firms is still not the general rule. From this Terence Gourvish draws the generally accepted conclusion that business

¹ Hakan Lindgren, *Methodology and Business History: Some Observations from Sweden*, 32.

historians, when dealing with representatives of corporate business should argue in favour of accessible historical documentation. Ágnes Pogány, Milan Myska and also Toni Pierenkemper deal with the fate of business history in those parts of Europe formerly dominated by the Soviet Union. Here a significant change happened after 1947-48, in the sense that theoretical models imported from Russia came to be applied. Research focused on the development of businesses and branches of industry from the viewpoint of the working class. Only after 1989 has the role of entrepreneurship become a topic of interest in business history while at the same time the institutional conditions and material subsidies for business historians have deteriorated. Ágnes Pogány shows quite clearly the present dilemma of business history in Hungary: after a brief period of public interest following privatisation in 1989 the discipline quickly declined again. The reason why managements for a short time took an active interest in the history of their firms lay in their miscalculating the effects of a scientifically demonstrated corporate tradition shares of business quoted on the new Budapest stock-exchange. All too soon, it turned out that investors did not make their decisions dependent on a firm's glorious past.

Another point Pogány dwells upon refers to the changing framework in which Hungarian firms operated. Nationalisation followed private capitalism in 1945 or 1947 respectively: large firms were divided into smaller units or conversely small units merged into bigger entities. The same happened again after 1989. Famous names in the corporate world disappeared without any legal succession. Thus there remains hardly an enterprise the history of which can be traced back to the XIXth century without any major problems. Moreover Pogány questions the preparedness of the newly privatised firms for having their history written based on a modern approach. But Hungarian business history could greatly profit from a methodological advance, which would allow the gap with western standards in the subject to be closed.

Akos Paulinyi's contribution to the volume concludes the introductory section. Paulinyi pleads for close cooperation between business history and the history of technology stating that both disciplines can be enriched by incorporating aspects of the other.

Although the following papers differ greatly: whether in their topics, their scientific approaches, or the fact that they deal with institutions, enterprises or entrepreneurs of different countries - most of them reveal a common thread which can be traced nearly throughout the rest of the book. Internationalisation, multinationalisation and upheaval of the economic order due to the rise of the Nazi regime and the beginning of World War II are the key words to which most of the papers refer. The contributions of Stefan Eminger/Karl Haas and Herbert Matis illustrate the effects of the rising power of the Nazis and its influence on the Austrian economy and enterprises by the nazification process, which had started already in the thirties at the height of the depression. Herbert Matis in his paper on the former Austrian, owned forwarding agency Schenker during

the Nazi-era shows how an internationally operating enterprise reacted to the political change and how it was made use of by the Nazi-regime. He points out that many a general question arises when dealing with this period in historical operational analyses. Many of these enterprises, which nowadays find themselves in newspaper headlines and have to face law suits for their involvement with the Nazi economy, acted on legal grounds since the Nazis perverted the legal system by declaring injustice to be justice. Thus many leading managers had been able to refer to this engagement as "fulfilling one's duty" for such a long time. The field of political tensions is furthermore the topic of Otto Hwaletz and Gertrude Enderle-Burcel, who write on the *Österreichische-Alpin Montangesellschaft* and the lobbying of different Austrian industrial groups in the twenties and the thirties respectively.

As mentioned above, the aspect of internationalisation - multinationalisation is an important facet in many of the papers and has to be considered either within the context of the outcome of World War I or as being induced by the economic political trend of the past twenty years. The studies of Vlastislav Lacina, Jaroslav Pátek and Andreas Resch on the *Böhmische-Escompte Bank und Credit-Anstalt* and on the history of the Czech and Austrian cartels once more provide the proof that the so-often stated economic desintegration after the break-up of the Habsburg Empire was only a result of the worldwide depression of the thirties. Until then international/multinational cooperation continued, i.e. existing relations were carried on and even intensified with the help of western investments. This is also underpinned by the fact that the meetings of the board of directors of the *Böhmische Escompte und Credit-Anstalt* were published in Czech as well as in German up to the thirties. Pátek and Resch show that the cooperation within the cartels of the respective countries turned into an international cartel and that this cooperation was reduced to the national level only as a reaction to the onset of the world-wide depression in the thirties. Pátek analyses the historical development of the cartels in the Czech republic and also shows how Germany attempted to build up a sphere of interest via the participation in cartels instead of direct capital investment. Andreas Resch, on the other hand, first gives a survey of the vast contemporary and present literature as well as the different theoretical approaches concerning the studies on cartels and thus makes the reader acquainted with his work in progress. His first assessments lead to the assumption that once he publishes his full study it will bring about a revision of the most common assumption about the policy of cartels and their effects on economic progress.

Internationalisation being the reaction to political and economic developments during the past two decades can be regarded the main topic of the contributions of Peter Eigner and Oskar Grünwald. They show the development of Austria's banking sector and its oil industry from being state regulated and dominating their respective economic sectors to their becoming sectors in which foreign capital flowed in as state influence diminished. The

banking sector revealed a variant of internationalisation - its "Europeanisation" as a result of European political and economic integration.

Margarita Dritsa's work on Greek tourism, Jana Gerslova's on Emil Kolben and the development of the Czech electrical industry or André Pfördtner's comparative study on American and German business administration round up the contributions to this book. All authors have to be congratulated on their valuable contributions to the discipline of business history which indeed functions as a bridge between economics and history.

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