



# European management and European business schools: Insights from the history of business schools



Andreas Kaplan \*

ESCP Europe, 79 Avenue de la République, 75011 Paris, France

## ARTICLE INFO

Article history:  
Available online 13 April 2014

Keywords:  
Business schools  
Cross-cultural management  
European management  
History  
Interdisciplinarity  
Societal management

## ABSTRACT

This article looks at the history of business schools and identifies specific characteristics that are common to European management schools. On the basis of these characteristics, European management is subsequently defined as a cross-cultural, societal management approach based on interdisciplinary principles. In a final step, a closer look is taken at how European business schools should prepare their students for the unique European management context. It is suggested that such schools should provide courses on cross-cultural management and courses explaining the interdependencies between the private and public sector, offer students opportunities to experience other cultures over the course of their studies, and teach management from an interdisciplinary and practically-oriented perspective.

© 2014 Elsevier Ltd. All rights reserved.

*"Nowhere do cultures differ so much as inside Europe"*  
(Fons Trompenaars 1993)

## 1. Does European management exist?

With globalization entering business education, one might think that all business schools are alike. Many would even argue that business schools are primarily a US phenomenon, exported to the rest of the world. But is this indeed the case? Or do European business schools differ, in fact, from their counterparts in the US? This raises a more general question, one that is particularly salient in a publication titled *European Management Journal*: Is there even such a thing as "European management"? And if so, what unique knowledge should European business schools impart to future European managers? This article is an attempt to answer these questions.

Europe is made up of approximately 50 countries, in which more than 60 different languages are spoken. While the rise of the European Union has led to European integration in the economic, legal, and political spheres, cultural homogenization is not one of the EU's aims. Despite a trend towards globalization, Europe fosters the idea of diversity of cultures and languages; for example, the EU Commission enacts a multilingualism policy encouraging language acquisition, promoting a multilingual economy, and giving all EU citizens access to information in their own languages.

The European emphasis on multiculturalism has informed its approach to higher business education—which, some might be surprised to discover, was not imported from the US but rather originated in 19th-century France. As will be elaborated in what follows, Europe's multicultural approach, together with other qualities, has historically distinguished European business schools from their predominant US counterparts. Although these differences have blurred in recent years, owing to post-World War II Americanization and a general globalization of management education, Europe's business schools have recently begun to emancipate themselves from American influence.

In the following sections, this article will look at the historical evolution of business schools, in which management education is incorporated and institutionalized, in an attempt to identify the common threads linking European business schools and to pinpoint the distinctions between these schools and comparable institutions in the US. On the basis of this examination, a definition of European management will be derived. Finally, this paper will discuss which knowledge and skills European business schools should impart to their students in order to form successful European managers within a globalized world.

## 2. History of business schools

The history of business schools in Europe can be broadly divided into two periods: The first, spanning the years 1819–1944, is referred to as the Founding Period. In this period, two types of schools were established: the "Southern" model, led by France and Belgium, and the "Northern" model, led by Germany. The sec-

\* Tel.: +33 1 49 23 22 50.

E-mail address: [kaplan@escpeurope.eu](mailto:kaplan@escpeurope.eu)

ond period, the Assimilation Period, started after World War II and continues to this day. The year 1945 marks the beginning of an Americanization of European business schools, and the year 1997 reflects the beginning of Europe's (re)emancipation. Clearly, the latter processes were influenced by the general phenomenon of globalization as well as by the emergence of new approaches to the study of management (e.g., the increasing emphasis on scientific research).

## 2.1. Founding period of business schools: 1819–1944

### 2.1.1. The Southern (French/Belgian) model

In 1819, trader Vital Roux and economist Jean-Baptiste Say co-founded the world's first business school: ESCP Europe, whose first campus was established in Paris (Blanchard, 2009). The first curriculum was based on a combined theoretical and practical approach to business education, including pedagogical simulation games. Influenced by Vital Roux' insistence that a business school should be international in scope, ESCP Europe adopted a global perspective; about one-third of its students were from outside France, with ten different languages being taught soon after the school's opening (Renouard, 1999). The school's approach to management was social and demand-oriented, owing to the influence of Jean-Baptiste Say, who was a neo-classical economist (Forget, 1999).

ESCP Europe was initially privately financed by a group of businessmen, until it was acquired by the Paris Chamber of Commerce in 1869. In fact, the Chamber of Commerce had refused a request to fund the school at its inception, rejecting any type of institutionalization of theoretical business education (Lemerrier, 2003). Thus, French business schools evolved outside the public university system, with the chambers of commerce playing a predominant role in French management education (Blanchard, 2009).

A second pioneering institution was the Belgium Higher Institute of Commerce in Antwerp, founded in 1852. The program offered there was similar in content to ESCP Europe's interdisciplinary curriculum, including such courses as geography, history, and foreign languages (Grunzweig, 1977; Renouard, 1999). However, in contrast to the privately-financed ESCP Europe, the Antwerp Institute was state-funded and university-like in nature.

Several schools based on the French/Belgian model were subsequently established in Europe's Mediterranean area, most notably in Italy. The curriculum of the first Italian school, the Ca' Foscari, established in Venice in 1868, was highly similar to that of ESCP Europe, with foreign languages being an important part (Kipping, Üsdiken, & Puig, 2004). While most Italian schools were state-funded and were of a university nature, and as such imitated the Belgian model (Longobardi, 1927), a notable exception was the privately-financed Bocconi school, founded in 1902. Italian business schools, initially independent, became increasingly academicized and by the mid-1930s were integrated into the university system (Fauri, 1998).

### 2.1.2. The Northern (German) model

The first German schools—founded several decades after the first business school in France—also served as role models for European business schools, particularly for schools in Northern European countries. The first German business school, Handelshochschule Leipzig, was founded in 1898, upon an initiative of the Leipzig Chamber of Commerce. The school, which was created outside the public university system, adopted a curriculum integrating theoretical and practical components as well as foreign language instruction. Additional areas of study, interdisciplinary in nature, included economics, law, geography, commodities, science and technology, commercial technique, and humanities (Meyer, 1998). German business schools had to overcome opponents who

were convinced that management could only be learned in practice, a problem that the founders of theoretical business education in France had also encountered (Kieser, 2004).

Whereas French business schools resisted an overly theoretical approach to business education, Germany moved rapidly towards academicization of the field, moving away from professionalization and interdisciplinarity. This led to the emergence of a completely new academic field, the so-called *Betriebswirtschaftslehre* (science of business administration). Humboldt's tradition of education through science, deeply rooted in Germany, rejected the distinction between educational and scientific activities, on the basis of the premise that only through scientific research can students acquire deep and specialized knowledge of a discipline.

Prominent academic and economist Eugen Schmälchenbach, active during the early 1900s, insisted that a school's objective is to maximize common welfare rather than to increase individual profit. In making this claim, Schmälchenbach encouraged the recognition of management as an academic discipline, an idea that public universities had previously rejected (Kieser, 2004). By the mid-1910s, most German business schools had been integrated into public universities and adopted a highly academic approach to teaching management; the initial, more practically-oriented approach was abandoned (Üsdiken, 2004).

Other countries, particularly Scandinavian countries, adopted the German business school model. The first to do so was Sweden, whose Handelshögskolan i Stockholm, founded in 1909, was financed by the business community as an independent private institution (Engwall, 2004).

### 2.1.3. US business schools

The first business school in the US, the Wharton School of Finance and Commerce, was founded in 1881 by industrialist Joseph Wharton through a \$100,000 donation. Influenced by Taylorism and inspired by the work of Adam Smith, the school's guiding principle was the improvement of economic efficiency, especially through labor productivity (Wren & Van Fleet, 1983). The Harvard Business School was established more than 25 years later, in 1908, and pioneered both the case-study approach and the MBA degree. Quite early on, in 1916, a group of prominent US business schools initiated the establishment of the AACSB (Association to Advance Collegiate Schools of Business), an accreditation institution that enabled US business schools to be standardized.

Whereas business schools in Europe were internationally-oriented from the beginning, US business schools did not actively encourage a global perspective. For example, foreign languages were absent from Wharton's first curricula, and Joseph Wharton's stated objective was "to create a liberally educated class of leaders for American society" (Sass, 1982, p. 20).

Like their European counterparts, US business schools were not well received by the academic community, but for slightly different reasons. European schools, initially founded outside the established universities, were doubted in their capacity to teach business, a practical discipline, through a theoretical approach. US business schools, which were collegiate in nature, were accused of lowering the universities' academic standards and were criticized by professors of established university disciplines (Engwall & Zamagni, 1998). This critique led to the rapid establishment of a discipline, a process that was in line with Wharton's original objective: transforming the study of business from a trade into a rigorous profession. The school's first curricula were less interdisciplinary in nature than their European counterparts', comprising several business and finance courses. The influence of Frederick Taylor (1911), advocate for the development of a true science of management "resting upon clearly defined laws, rules, and principles, as a foundation" (p. 7), was clearly present.

## 2.2. Assimilation period of business schools: 1945–present day

### 2.2.1. Americanization

After World War II, with Europe's economy in ruins, the US approach to training managers began to be perceived as a “weapon of social change” (Leavitt, 1957, p. 155). Several programs such as the Ford Foundation promoted US-style management across Western Europe (McGlade, 1998). France and Germany, role models during the Founding Period, were somewhat resistant to Americanization, whereas in other countries, such as Great Britain and Spain, the Americanization process took root more deeply (Engwall & Zamagni, 1998).

Although resistant to Americanization, French schools adopted parts of the US model by introducing permanent faculty who had been trained primarily in the US. INSEAD, founded in 1958 as a private institution and financed partly by the Ford Foundation, offered the first MBA degree in Europe. Germany's rapid post-war economic recovery, the *Wirtschaftswunder* (“economic miracle”), was attributed mainly to American management techniques (Kieser, 2004). However, the deep integration of German management education into universities prevented the rise of the more practically-oriented US business school model (Locke, 1989). Only recently has the German model begun to return to its roots, adopting a more practical approach to management education. This approach is reflected in the establishment of such schools as the WHU, founded in 1984, as well as the reopened Handelshochschule Leipzig, both at the initiative of local chambers of commerce.

Motivated by the Frank report arguing that the UK needs US-type business schools (Williams, 2010), most universities in the UK began to offer MBAs and to apply the case-study approach. The London Business School was established in 1964 through Ford Foundation grants, and the Association of MBAs (AMBA) was created in 1967 to promote the MBA degree in the UK. Spain was also heavily influenced by the Americanization process and established US-style business schools. The first was EOI, founded in 1955, followed by ESADE and IESE, both established in 1958. IESE was even described by the Ford Foundation as Barcelona's Harvard (Mosson, 1965).

### 2.2.2. European (re)emancipation

In 1997 the EQUIS (European Quality Improvement System) accreditation system was founded, marking a turning point in the European business school landscape and the beginning of Europe's (re)emancipation from the domination of US-style business schools.

There are several important differences between EQUIS and the previously established US accreditation system AACSB; these differences reflect clear distinctions between European and US business school models. For example, EQUIS has strict requirements on internationalization, whereas AACSB only evaluates this area if it is part of the school's own mission. While EQUIS analyzes a school's general strategy and how it differentiates itself from other schools, AACSB looks more at curriculum design. The two accreditation systems also reflect differences in the structures of stand-alone European and collegiate-in-nature US institutions for management education, such that EQUIS only accredits business schools, whereas AACSB can accredit any management or accounting program in a university (e.g., a management program in a school of engineering) and grants university-wide accreditation.

Before the establishment of EQUIS, the UK Association of MBAs created the AMBA label in an attempt to curb the MBA “invasion” of the UK landscape. The situation had gotten out of hand; an article in *Management Today*, for example, discussed the overabundance of MBAs in the UK, stating that the “MBA glamour [of the '80s had] quickly faded in the harsh climate of the '90s” (Oliver, 1993, p. 26). Like EQUIS for Europe in general, AMBA tried to eman-

cipate itself from US domination. This may explain why AMBA accreditation and, correspondingly, triple-crown accreditation (AACSB, AMBA, EQUIS), are pursued primarily by European institutions, whereas only one US school is AMBA-accredited, and none has triple-crown accreditation.

The homogenization of European business schools has been fostered not only by the rise of European accreditation institutions but also by the EU. Specifically, in 1999 EU members initiated the Bologna process, through which European countries agreed to ensure comparability in the standards and quality of higher education and to facilitate mobility of students within Europe. This initiative transformed the European higher education landscape in general and that of business schools in particular.

### 2.2.3. Worldwide trends in business education

In addition to the Americanization trend observed in the mid-20th century, followed by the emancipation of European schools, it is important to note two global trends promoting the standardization of business schools worldwide.

The first trend is the emergence of research-based business schools (e.g., Ghosal, 2005). This trend was triggered by a US Ford Foundation survey (Gordon & Howell, 1959) that pointed out the lack of research-based business education. Extensive financial resources have been invested towards reforming US business schools and promoting the ‘scientization’ of management education. This trend has taken root on a global scale, yet the US continues to dominate scientific management research. This development corresponds to the emergence of journals such as *Management Science*, whose first issues clearly reflect the objective of creating a science of business administration that adheres to the natural sciences model. In fact, some US business schools have shown a preference for hiring narrowly-trained specialists able to publish in so-called A-journals (Bennis & O'Toole, 2005), a trend adopted by many business schools worldwide.

A second trend leading to more standardization worldwide is the heightened significance of international rankings for business schools (in addition to the aforementioned accreditations) as an effective magnet for recruiting students. Schools aiming to achieve a high ranking must comply with the various ranking criteria and therefore evolve in a specific, uniform direction. For business schools in Europe, the most important ranking is that of the *British Financial Times* (FT); this ranking was responsible for the creation of an entire organizational field of management schools (Wedlin, 2007). The FT first introduced an MBA ranking in 1999, and in 2005 it incorporated a ranking for the more traditionally European Master's Degree in Management. Business schools all over the world, including in China and in India, have recently begun to apply for this ranking (as well as to pursue triple-crown accreditation), suggesting that the globalization of business schools is no longer unidirectional from the US to the rest of the world but has also started to be influenced by the European landscape.

## 3. European management and European business schools

This section develops a definition of European management. Briefly, it suggests that European management entails cross-cultural, societal management based on an interdisciplinary approach. This definition is based on the values fostered by European business schools starting from their initiation: As discussed above, these schools were international in scope, created to deliver value for society at large; they were interdisciplinary in nature and practically-oriented. After identifying the characteristics of European management, the question of how a European business school might prepare future managers to succeed in the unique European context will be addressed.

### 3.1. European management and its defining characteristics

#### 3.1.1. Cross-cultural management

The cross-cultural management approach aims to understand how culture affects management practice, to identify means of increasing global management effectiveness, and to identify cross-cultural similarities and differences in management practices (e.g., [Calori & Dufour, 1995](#)). As discussed above, the first business schools in Europe were more cross-cultural in their approach than their US counterparts; this difference can still be observed, for example, when comparing EQUIS, which emphasizes a school's international strategy, with AACSB, which does not. Current studies show that the cross-cultural approach is still a crucial component of European management. The European manager must develop strong cultural skills to be able to quickly adapt to different contexts. [Calori and de Woot \(1994, p. 237\)](#) for example, state that the European manager needs "international experience, competence in at least three languages, geographical mobility and global thinking".

The question is whether cross-culturalism is a distinctly European characteristic, that is, whether a European manager has a greater need for cross-cultural skills than do managers in other regions in the world. [Trompenaars \(1993, p. 8\)](#) answers by stating: "Nowhere do cultures differ so much as inside Europe". Indeed, several studies (e.g., [Hofstede, 1980](#)) have pointed to clear cultural differences among different European countries, grouping them into clusters with similar management styles. Europe can be described as embracing maximum cultural diversity at minimal geographical distances. As expressed through the EU slogan "United in Diversity", cultural diversity is considered to be a reflection of richness, leading to creativity and innovation. Thus, a key role of European management is to integrate different styles while acknowledging and respecting the differences amongst them.

#### 3.1.2. Societal management

In line with [Takas \(1974\)](#), societal management can be defined as management that takes into account society's overall welfare in addition to mere profitability considerations. European business schools are not necessarily the only business schools that are societal in their approach; however, it seems that the fundamental principles of European schools have historically been much more society-oriented compared with those of US schools. For example, as discussed above, Schmalenbach viewed societal welfare, rather than individual profit, as the main purpose of business schools ([Kieser, 2004](#)), whereas US schools were founded on principles of Taylorism. The US approach was criticized, in fact, by Wallace [Donham \(1933\)](#), dean of the Harvard Business School, whose article titled "The failure of business leadership and the responsibility of the universities" questioned the lack of interest in considering business problems within their broader, societal context.

More recent research indicates that the societal notion of the welfare state continues to be more pronounced in most European states than in the US, although both regions have a common history of humanism ([Calori, Steele, & Yoneyama, 1995](#)). [Pudelko and Harzing \(2007\)](#), for example, argue that, compared with US management, European management has a more balanced approach of economic efficiency and social matters. Furthermore, the fact that public administration, whose *raison d'être* is a society's well-being ([Kaplan & Haenlein, 2009](#)), is of higher relevance in Europe than in the US is an indication of Europe's inherently more societal approach to management, as compared with that of the US.

#### 3.1.3. Interdisciplinarity

Interdisciplinarity involves the combination of two or more academic disciplines into one activity. It is about creating something

new by crossing boundaries and combining the knowledge encompassed in different domains ([Klein, 1990](#)). While studies within a single discipline tend to emphasize scientific rigor, the interdisciplinary approach aims to achieve greater practical relevance by applying a broader view to problems. Correspondingly, in teaching, an emphasis on scientific rigor is often considered to reflect a more theoretical approach, whereas interdisciplinarity reflects a more practically-oriented teaching style.

Initially, both European and US management education approaches incorporated interdisciplinarity, since there was "no matter of scientific nature to teach in a commercial school [since] it still had to be created" ([Locke, 1989, p. 71](#)). However, as previously indicated, the collegiate structure of US schools rapidly led to the creation of a discipline of management. The fact that German-type business schools, which were quickly integrated into universities, partly overtook their US counterparts in their evolution toward academization, does not cancel out the fact that initially they were more interdisciplinary in nature.

More current studies indicate that European schools continue to be more interdisciplinary than their US counterparts. [Calori and de Woot \(1994, p. 237\)](#), for example, state that the European manager needs "a broad vision with an aptitude for interdisciplinary views and deep social, philosophical and ethical understanding." With respect to the research-based business school, [Welter and Lasch \(2008\)](#) suggest that, compared with US research, European research is more open to qualitative and exploratory approaches and is more contextual in nature.

### 3.2. How can European business schools train future European managers?

#### 3.2.1. Cross-cultural management

In order to train a European manager, a business school first needs to develop the student's cultural intelligence. This is defined as an individual's capabilities to function and manage effectively in culturally diverse settings ([Earley & Ang, 2003](#)).

One means of enhancing students' cultural intelligence is to provide students with the opportunity to experience different cultural contexts. Several studies (e.g., [Earley & Peterson, 2004](#)) have shown that living in foreign countries increases a student's cultural intelligence. An effective duration of a stay in a foreign country should be longer than six months ([Ang, Van Dyne, & Tan, 2011; Eisenberg et al., 2013](#)). To provide students with such opportunities, business schools might set up exchange programs, offer double degrees with partner universities, or develop cross-border multi-campus concepts. INSEAD, for example, has set up a campus in Singapore, and ESCP Europe has campuses in five European countries.

[De Vita and Case \(2003\)](#), however, argue that the development of a cross-cultural approach takes more than just "infusing" a few international elements into a program's contents. [Doh \(2010\)](#) supports this claim, stating that merely exporting students to foreign countries is not enough. Thus, another potentially effective means of fostering cross-culturalism is to offer specific courses on cross-cultural management. Such training might even serve as a substitute for some actual experiences abroad ([Eisenberg et al., 2013](#)).

Finally, [Kedia and Harveston \(1998\)](#) show that students become more culturally intelligent when they are taught by faculty with previous international experience. Cultural diversity within the student body further enhances this effect. This, together with the fact that international ranking systems such as the FT system favor international diversity, might explain why business schools foster diversity in the national backgrounds of faculty and students. However, the extent of cultural diversity may have an upper limit; in some UK schools, for example, more than 80% of students come



from China. This suggests that a highly international student body might not necessarily be culturally diverse.

### 3.2.2. Societal management

A European manager's decisions must take into account the well-being of society at large. One means of developing this skill might be to offer classes in business ethics. Notably, the instruction of business ethics as a subject is mainly a US invention; business ethics courses have been offered in Europe only since the early 1980s (van Luijk, 2001). This might seem counterintuitive. Recall, however, that European business schools started out with clear societal objectives, suggesting that ethics should be inherently part of any course, be it accounting, finance, or strategy. The fact that ethics were less pronounced in the first US schools might explain the development of designated business ethics courses. It might further explain why EQUIS attributes lower importance to business ethics than AACSB does (Moore, 2004).

Moreover, business ethics courses in the US and Europe do not focus on the same contents. Enderle (1996) claims that European courses discuss ethical choices made within tight constraints, whereas the US approach considers loose constraints. This difference might be a result of the fact that governmental influence is stronger in most European countries than in the US, which leads to tighter European regulation on employment rights, healthcare, etc. Managers in Europe thus need to devote less thought to morals in business; the State does this for them. In contrast, the more flexible US frameworks require firms to come up with their own moral guidelines for doing business.

Thus, instead of focusing on the instruction of business ethics, European schools might offer more value to their students by showing them the influence of the State and public administration on the private sector. As implied above, the prominence of the public sector in Europe as a funding resource for schools might play a role in European business schools' propensity to adopt a societal approach. Thus, several European business schools, such as ESADE, offer a so-called Master of Public Administration (MPA) in addition to an MBA in their portfolios.

### 3.2.3. Interdisciplinarity

The aim of interdisciplinary teaching is to offer a more cross-functional/integrative approach to management (Smart, Tomkovic, Jones, & Menom, 1999). McKeage, Skinner, Seymour, Donahue, and Christensen (1999) stress that the success of an integrated interdisciplinary course is dependent on the level of communication and coordination between and within faculty and student populations. According to Wentworth (1995), faculty need to think "program, as opposed to courses". There are numerous different means of incorporating interdisciplinarity into a business school (a comprehensive review is beyond the scope of this article; the interested reader is referred, for example, to Klein, 1990). Briefly, there are two main approaches to encouraging interdisciplinarity: a broader approach that entails integrating non-business disciplines, and a more narrow approach that combines disciplines that are usually taught in business schools, e.g., marketing and accounting.

In the latter approach, simulation games are commonly used as a means of teaching students to take multiple management-related areas into account when making decisions. However, this teaching approach, and the ability to foster interdisciplinarity in general, may be hindered by the fact that many business schools are divided into departments with narrowly defined subjects. To overcome this limitation, Kates (1989, p. B3) advises "providing for the long-term security and sustenance of individual scholars working beyond disciplines" as well as "alternatives to tenure based solely on discipline or department".

The broader approach to interdisciplinarity—i.e., integrating non-business disciplines—is typically implemented to some extent

within certain specializations such as entrepreneurship, which might bring together different disciplines such as industrial design, marketing, and creative industries. In many cases, however, this is done from a multidisciplinary approach and not a truly integrative interdisciplinary one. Another possibility is to offer entire programs combining two disciplines. Schools in Germany, for example, offer certification in engineering management, a specialized form of management that is concerned with the application of engineering principles to business practice.

The prevalence of interdisciplinary teaching has decreased since the recent emergence of research-based business schools, which emphasize the use of rigorous scientific methods (instead of practical relevance).

## 4. European management on the rise?

Identifying the distinctions between European and US business schools is relatively straightforward. As discussed above, there are clear differences between the two regions in terms of the content of the education they offer. Moreover, Europe and the US differ in their teaching methods. ESCP Europe initiated the use of pedagogical simulation games, whereas the Harvard Business School invented the case study approach. McNulty (1992) states that European business schools value professional projects, internships, and action learning more than US schools do. Kipping and colleagues (2004) describe the rejection of the case-study approach by European business schools (with the exception of the UK) during the Americanization process.

Yet although this paper has attempted to derive general contours for the concepts of European management and the European business school, it is difficult to generalize these broad constructs across Europe, owing to the vast diversity of cultural contexts the continent encompasses. Indeed, Locke (1989) states that teaching methods vary substantially across European countries. However, management styles change over time, and it is possible that, at some point, there will be a homogeneous management style across Europe. New EU initiatives resembling the Bologna process or Erasmus might promote such a development. In fact, it is possible that culture at large will become global, with everybody watching the same TV shows, communicating globally on the same social media applications, and listening to the same massively open online courses (MOOCs).

However, at least two arguments speak against a homogeneous European management style. First, as indicated, Europeans see diversity as an advantage and thus are likely to try to maintain cultural differences. Second, Europeans speak different languages, which reflect their different cultures and impact their behavior. As long as there are different languages, it is likely that there will be different styles of management. This reaffirms the importance of language courses in business schools, since only through the comprehension of a language can one truly begin to understand a culture.

These ideas are reinforced by the principle that in times of globalization, cross-cultural competencies actually become increasingly important. This suggests that European management education—and particularly the international attractiveness of Europe's MBA programs and its uniquely European Master's in Management programs—should be on the rise. Pudelko and Harzing (2007, p. 206) "predict a more multi-polar world in which the virtual monopoly of the United States in setting the standards for 'best practices' in management will weaken". Indeed, in a recent statement, the AACSB (2009) indicated that its main challenges are "differences in organizational and cultural values" and "cultural diversity among employees and customers". European business schools have been dealing with these challenges for centuries.

## References

- AACSB (2009). *Eligibility procedures and accreditation standards*. Tampa, FL: AACSB.
- Ang, S., Van Dyne, L., & Tan, M. L. (2011). Cultural intelligence. In R. J. Sternberg & S. B. Kaufman (Eds.), *Cambridge handbook on intelligence* (pp. 582–602). New York: Cambridge Press.
- Bennis, W. G., & O'Toole, J. (2005). How business schools lost their way. *Harvard Business Review*, 83(5), 96–104.
- Blanchard, M. (2009). From “Ecoles Supérieures de Commerce” to “Management Schools”: Transformations and continuity in French business schools. *European Journal of Education*, 44(4), 586–604.
- Calori, R., & de Woot, P. (1994). *A European management model: Beyond diversity*. New York: Prentice Hall.
- Calori, R., & Dufour, B. (1995). Management European style. *The Academy of Management Executive*, 9, 61–73.
- Calori, R., Steele, M., & Yoneyama, E. (1995). Management in Europe: Learning from different perspectives. *European Management Journal*, 13(1), 58–66.
- De Vita, G., & Case, P. (2003). Rethinking the internationalization agenda in UK higher education. *Journal of Further and Higher Education*, 27, 383–398.
- Doh, J. P. (2010). From the editors: Why aren't business schools more global and what can management educators do about it? *Academy of Management Learning and Education*, 9, 165–168.
- Donham, W. (1933). The failure of business leadership and the responsibility of the universities. *Harvard Business Review*, 11, 418–435.
- Earley, P. C., & Ang, S. (2003). *Cultural intelligence: Individual interactions across cultures*. Palo Alto, CA: Stanford University Press.
- Earley, P. C., & Peterson, R. S. (2004). The elusive cultural chameleon: Cultural intelligence as a new approach to intercultural training for the global manager. *Academy of Management Learning and Education*, 3, 100–115.
- Eisenberg, J., Lee, H.-J., Brück, F., Brenner, B., Claes, M.-T., Mironski, J., & Bell, R. (2013). Can business schools make students culturally competent? Effects of cross-cultural management courses on cultural intelligence. *Academy of Management Learning and Education*, 12(4), 603–621.
- Enderle, G. (1996). A comparison of business ethics in North America and Continental Europe. *Business Ethics: A European Review*, 5(1), 33–46.
- Engwall, L. (2004). The Americanization of Nordic management education. *Journal of Management Inquiry*, 13(2), 109–117.
- Engwall, L., & Zamagni, V. (1998). *Management education in historical perspective*. Manchester: Manchester University Press.
- Fauri, F. (1998). British and Italian management education before the Second World War: A comparative analysis. In L. Engwall & V. Zamagni (Eds.), *Management education in historical perspective*. Manchester: Manchester University Press.
- Forget, E. L. (1999). *The social economics of Jean-Baptiste Say*. London, UK: Routledge.
- Ghosal, S. (2005). Bad management theories are destroying good management practices. *Academy of Management Learning & Education*, 4(1), 75–91.
- Gordon, R. A., & Howell, J. E. (1959). *Higher education for business*. New York: Columbia University Press.
- Grunzweig, A. (1977). *Histoire de l'Institut Supérieur de Commerce de l'Etat à Anvers*. Brussels, Belgium: Cercle des anciens étudiants de l'ISCEA.
- Hofstede, G. (1980). *Culture's consequences. Comparing values, behaviors, institutions and organizations across nations*. London, UK: Sage.
- Kaplan, A. M., & Haenlein, M. (2009). The increasing importance of public marketing: Explanations, applications and limits of marketing within public administration. *European Management Journal*, 27(1), 197–212.
- Kates, R. (1989). The great questions of science and society do not fit neatly into single disciplines. *The Chronicle of Higher Education*, 35, B2–B3.
- Kedia, B. L., & Harveston, P. D. (1998). Transformation of MBA programs: Meeting the challenge of international competition. *Journal of World Business*, 33(2), 203–217.
- Kieser, A. (2004). The Americanization of academic management education in Germany. *Journal of Management Inquiry*, 13(2), 90–97.
- Kipping, M., Üsdiken, B., & Puig, N. (2004). Imitation, tension, and hybridization: Multiple “Americanizations” of management education in Mediterranean Europe. *Journal of Management Inquiry*, 13(2), 98–108.
- Klein, J. T. (1990). *Interdisciplinarity: History, theory, and practice*. Detroit, MI: Wayne State University.
- Leavitt, H. J. (1957). On the export of American management education. *Journal of Business*, 30, 153–161.
- Lemerrier, C. (2003). La chambre de commerce de Paris, acteur indispensable de la construction des normes économiques (première moitié du xix<sup>e</sup> siècle). *Genèses*, 1, 50–70.
- Locke, R. R. (1989). *Management and higher education since 1940: The influence of America and Japan on West Germany, Great Britain, and France*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Longobardi, E. C. (1927). Higher commercial education in Italy. *Journal of Political Economy*, 35, 39–90.
- McGlade, J. (1998). The big push: The export of American business education to Western Europe after the Second World War. In L. Engwall & V. Zamagni (Eds.), *Management education in historical perspective*. Manchester: Manchester University Press.
- McKeage, K., Skinner, D., Seymour, R. M., Donahue, D. W., & Christensen, T. (1999). Implementing an interdisciplinary marketing/engineering course project: Project format, preliminary evaluation, and critical factor review. *Journal of Marketing Education*, 21(3), 217–231.
- McNulty, N. G. (1992). Management education in Eastern Europe: ‘Fore and after’. *Management Executive*, 6(4), 78–87.
- Meyer, H.-D. (1998). The German Handelshochschulen, 1898–1933: A new departure in management education and why it failed. In L. Engwall & V. Zamagni (Eds.), *Management education in historical perspective*. Manchester: Manchester University Press.
- Moore, G. (2004). Regulatory perspectives on business ethics in the curriculum. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 54(4), 349–356.
- Mosson, T. M. (1965). *Management education in five European countries*. London: Business Publications.
- Oliver, J. (1993). UK: A degree of uncertainty – MBA. *Management Today*, 7(6), 26–30.
- Pudelko, M., & Harzing, A.-W. (2007). How European is management in Europe? An analysis of past, present and future management practices in Europe. *European Journal of International Management*, 1(3), 206–224.
- Renouard, A. (1999). *Histoire de l'École supérieure de commerce de Paris*. Paris: Raymond Castell éditions.
- Sass, S. A. (1982). *The pragmatic imagination. A history of the Wharton School 1881–1981*. Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania Press.
- Smart, D. T., Tomkovic, C., Jones, E., & Menom, A. (1999). Undergraduate marketing education in the 21st century: View from three institutions. *Marketing Education Review*, 1, 1–9.
- Takas, A. (1974). Societal marketing: A businessman's perspective. *Journal of Marketing*, 38(4), 2–7.
- Taylor, F. W. (1911). *The principles of scientific management*. New York: Harper Bros.
- Trompenaars, F. (1993). *Riding the waves of culture: Understanding cultural diversity in business*. London: Nicholas Brealey Publishing.
- Üsdiken, B. (2004). Americanization of European management in historical and comparative perspective. *Journal of Management Inquiry*, 13(2), 87–89.
- van Luijk, H. J. L. (2001). Business ethics in Europe: A tale of two efforts. In R. Frederick (Ed.), *A companion to business ethics* (pp. 643–658). Cambridge: Blackwell.
- Wedlin, L. (2007). The role of rankings in codifying a business school template: Classifications, diffusion and mediated isomorphism in organizational fields. *European Management Review*, 4, 24–39.
- Welter, F., & Lasch, F. (2008). Entrepreneurship research in Europe: Taking stock and looking forward. *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice*, 32(2), 241–248.
- Wentworth, J. R. (1995). Recent interdisciplinary evolution in Indiana University's MBA program. *Advances in Strategic Management*, 11, 129–132.
- Williams, A. P. O. (2010). *The history of UK business and management education*. London: Emerald.
- Wren, D. A., & Van Fleet, D. D. (1983). History in schools of business. *Business and Economic History*, 12(1), 29–35.