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teachers to implement the new lesson plans, teachers’ skepticism of inquiry teaching, and the tumultuous political and social contexts of the 1960s. After a brief overview of the “history wars” of the 1990s, Cuban describes the New, New History through a focus on the recent work of Sam Wineburg and his colleagues at the Stanford History Education Group who promote a historical approach to teaching history in which students learn that history is an interpretation of the past.

In the next two chapters, Cuban revisits Glenville and Cardozo in the early 2010s to see what changed and what remained the same during the past fifty to sixty years. The macro-contexts of each school changed, yet the “grammar of schooling” and teachers’ pedagogy showed continuity. Although the teachers whom Cuban observes use different lesson plans and activities than he did during the 1950s and 1960s, “teacher-centered instruction with occasional mixes of student-centered activities prevailed among the profiled history teachers” (p. 135). In the final chapter, Cuban attempts to make sense of the change and continuity that he observes at Glenville and Cardozo. Cuban concludes, “in this small sample of history teaching at Glenville and Cardozo urban high schools, all of the teaching fell within the historical framework of teacher-centered, content-driven instruction with the clear development of hybrids” (p. 175). According to Cuban, this conclusion demonstrates that educational reformers who focus so tightly on outcomes and fixing “broken schools” have ignored the “grammar of schooling,” macro-contexts of schooling, and teachers who are expected to implement change that they had little to no part in formulating. Teaching History Then and Now is a valuable contribution to the topics of history pedagogy, urban schooling, and educational policy reform. History teachers, policymakers, and education reformers who wish to understand the complex and often conflicting relationship amongst educational policy, reform, and practice in the nation’s high schools will find Cuban’s insightful and subtle book of interest.

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In Lillian Gilbreth: Redefining Domesticity, part of the Westview Press Lives of American Women series edited by Carol Berkin, Julie Des Jardins distills into a readable volume the essential contributions of Lillian Gilbreth to scientific management, home economics, and her own household economy. As such, it is a valuable work in humanizing a person who is often mentioned only nominally in reference to the motion study, which in the early twentieth century divided workers’ movements into “therbligs” (roughly “Gilbreth” spelled backwards”) (p. 67) and reconfigured them in “The One Best Way” (p. 68) to eliminate unnecessary motion. Alternatively, Gilbreth is remembered in the book and subsequent film Cheaper by the Dozen in a largely passive domestic role. What can be obscured
in these renditions is that Lillian Gilbreth became one of the most prominent professional women in the country, and that she was a “pioneer” of combining profession and motherhood (p. xv).

Citing the historian Laurel Graham, Des Jardins states that Gilbreth contributed about half of the literary work of her and her husband, Frank, even though she was not always acknowledged as a co-author. Frank, who was not college educated, was more of an inventor than a scholar. He was initially drawn to her intelligence and was curious about her opinions on various subjects. He encouraged her to obtain a Ph.D. and relied on her to shepherd his writings through the editorial process. As a couple, they had an enormous output of books and articles, completing over fifty papers in the nine years after she finished her doctorate in applied management from Brown University in 1915. Des Jardins suggests her influence showed in Frank Gilbreth’s seminal Motion Study, published in 1911. Indeed, in a poem he wrote her in 1920, Frank said that Lillian first came up with the idea of dividing tasks into component movements.

Gilbreth accomplished this while managing a household of twelve children. The Gilbreths developed a system whereby the older children would take care of and tutor the younger ones, along with an extensive system of charts. Lillian also used a Dictaphone to record notes in spare minutes. However, Des Jardins points out that the Gilbreths also employed servants, and Frank Gilbreth’s mother did the cooking for him.

After her husband died in 1924, Lillian Gilbreth soldiered on as an analyst of home economics and efficiency for women’s workplaces. She taught male managers methods of motion study, redesigned the sales floor of Macy’s, and developed several designs for better kitchens. She also worked as head of the Women’s Division of President Herbert Hoover’s Emergency Committee on Employment. Des Jardins points out that Gilbreth lost some consulting clients due to discrimination, although according to Jane Lancaster in Making Time, Gilbreth’s consulting work continued well into the post-World War II period.

One question raised implicitly by the book, and addressed more thoroughly in the longer treatment by Lancaster, is the relationship between the professionalization of management—and attendant opportunities for women—and skilled workers’ autonomy. Des Jardins does not explore in significant depth the effect of Gilbreth’s innovations on workers or how they felt about it. Though she argues that Gilbreth focused on psychology and fatigue, as against the speed-up of Frederick Winslow Taylor, Gilbreth was part of the larger movement of scientific management, which sought to assert managerial control over the methods of production that had traditionally been in the hands of skilled workers. In The Fall of the House of Labor, David Montgomery argues that this process led to an upsurge in worker militancy. Although Des Jardins says with respect to the Gilbreths’ process of recording workers’ movements that “participating in the micromotion films made the worker an integral member of their investigative team” (p. 68), studying workers is very different from involving them actively or giving them a voice in the conditions of their labor.

Lillian Gilbreth would make an excellent addition to the reading list of an undergraduate women’s history course and provides useful anecdotes that could
illustrate lectures on business at the turn of the century in the introductory survey. It would also provide useful counterpoint in a labor history course and fit very well into a business history course. It provides rich detail in a clear, organized way and preserves a sense of humor about the Gilbreths’ scientific management of their home. The author also provides some useful study questions in the back of the book. It is a welcome contribution to a subject of critical importance in a manner that is highly accessible for students and teachers.

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Scholarly interest in the cultural dimensions of the Cold War rivalry between the United States and the Soviet Union, conducted from the end of World War II to the collapse of the Soviet Union in 1991, continues to grow. In the late 1940s, the Soviet-sponsored world peace movement began establishing the World Peace Council to promote the international policies of the Soviet Union and its allies. The WPC sponsored conferences, publications, and art that depicted the Soviet Union as the global champion of justice and anti-imperialism. The Chilean poet, diplomat, and politician Pablo Neruda was one of many Latin Americans associated with the WPC. Awarded the Nobel Prize for Literature in 1971, Neruda is widely regarded as twentieth-century Latin America’s most important poet.

In Neither Peace nor Freedom: The Cultural Cold War in Latin America, historian Patrick Iber writes cogently about Latin Americans like Neruda who were attracted to the World Peace Council. Others included the Brazilian writer Jorge Amado, whose novels of life in the state of Bahia won worldwide praise. Amado grew up on a cacao plantation. In his early works, he wrote of the mistreatment and suffering of the poor who harvested cacao, commonly suggesting Communism as solution to their troubles. Several of Amado’s books were banned in Brazil. Amado became a journalist in 1930 and was imprisoned by 1935. He was elected to the Constituent Assembly as a federal deputy representing the Communist Party of Brazil in 1946, but the party was outlawed in 1948. Due to his political activities, Amado frequently lived in exile. Diego Rivera, the celebrated Mexican painter whose murals inspired a revival of fresco painting in Latin America, also worked with the WPC. Rivera lobbied Mexican President Lázaro Cárdenas to grant asylum to Leon Trotsky in 1936. A central participant in the Bolshevik seizure of control in Russia, Trotsky had been second only to Vladimir Lenin at the beginning phase of Soviet Communist government. Trotsky was defeated by Joseph Stalin in the struggle for power that ensued after Lenin’s death. Directed by Stalin, a Spanish assassin ended Trotsky’s life in Mexico in 1940. Iber makes clear how debates and divisions like these of the international Left became reframed within the Cold War context.
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