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RELIGION, ORGANIZATION AND COMPANY LAW –A CASE STUDY OF A QUAKER BUSINESS

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RELIGION, ORGANIZATION AND COMPANY LAW
- A CASE STUDY OF A QUAKER BUSINESS

Abstract

This paper examines the effect of changes in corporate law in the mid-nineteenth century – incorporation and limited liability – on the ownership, control and socio-economic objectives of a Quaker family firm between 1841 and 1972. The Religious Society of Friends (Quakers) were well-known for adhering to internalized quasi-legal rules and self-governance, and had a strong reputation, which persists today, for trust, integrity and honesty in all business dealings. We read existing archival research on Quaker firm Huntley & Palmer (the biscuit manufacturer) against the grain to trace how incorporation and limited liability fundamentally changed its capital structure and the family’s control of the firm and which, in turn, led to a gradual weakening of its social ambitions. We argue that changes to the law are akin to changing the rules of the game within which players’ play, and we show how Quaker quasi-legal rules became subordinate to corporate law resulting in unexpected and non-trivial impacts that play out over long, longitudinal periods of time.

Keywords

Quakers: Religion; Corporate law; Socio-economic wealth; Family business

Introduction

In this paper, we address the effect of socio-legal changes in corporate law in the mid-nineteenth century (incorporation and limited liability) on the ownership, control and socio-economic objectives of a Quaker family firm between 1841 and 1972. Specifically, our paper jointly analyses how the Joint Stock Act, 1844 and the Limited Liability Act, 1855¹, substantively widened the scope of incorporation and permitted limited liability for shareholders. We locate these legal changes as an ‘anchor’ point from which to trace the effect on the ownership structure of a Quaker firm, on competitive dynamics, and on the balance between its financial and socio-economic objectives.

The relationship between religious entrepreneurs and capitalism has intrigued scholars for decades, from Weber to Benjamin, and yet the relationship is still recognized as under-developed (eg, Tracey, 2012), despite the publication of various volumes that explore the importance of religion on entrepreneurship and commerce (eg, Roberts, 2012; Tawney, 2017). Much of this scholarship has noted how members of religious communities were often at the forefront of industrial activity, none more so than the Religious Society of Friends (Quakers). In this respect, Quakers in the United Kingdom are an especially interesting and important case study. Quakers have a reputation for honesty, integrity, trustworthiness, and for the way in which Quaker businesses in the nineteenth and early-twentieth centuries foregrounded socio-economic ambition. Quaker family partnerships were also often very successful and innovative, credited with playing a major role in the development of accounting rules, the cheque, modern banking, public infrastructure, and cooperative enterprise (Walvin, 1997; Windsor, 1980). Quakers explicitly drew upon their religious principles and ethics in the organization of their ventures (Fincham, 2017; Tracey, 2012), and they also pioneered socio-economic objectives such as the provision of employee welfare benefits,

¹ Given that the Acts were implemented to provide investment opportunities for the investor class and stimulate economic growth (Harris, 2013), our paper analyzes the effects of the Acts jointly.

1
2
3 pension schemes, and subsidized housing for employees (e.g., Burton and Turnbull, 2019; Walvin,
4
5 1997).

6
7 Our paper focuses on one of the most well-known Quaker businesses², Huntley & Palmer
8 (H&P), a large biscuit manufacturer located in Reading, Berkshire in the United Kingdom, in order
9
10 to analyse the effect of conversion from a family partnership to a limited liability company in 1898
11
12 on its ownership, control and socio-economic ambitions. We chose to examine Huntley & Palmer
13
14 as it is one of a number of successful Quaker businesses that was established as a family partnership
15
16 by members of the Quakers in the early-to-mid nineteenth century and which later incorporated in
17
18 the 1890s. However, despite being a well-known brand, it is rather puzzling that it has received little
19
20 scholarly attention, unlike the Quaker chocolatiers. Our paper begins with a short overview of
21
22 Quaker business history. We follow this with a discussion of the context and intent of the changes
23
24 in corporate law that introduced incorporation and limited liability in the UK. We then describe our
25
26 research method and proceed to discuss the case analysis of Huntley & Palmer (H&P). We follow
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28 this with an extended discussion and conclude with final remarks and pathways for future research.
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35 36 **The Quakers**

37
38 The economic and social contribution of Quakers businesses in the UK throughout the
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40 nineteenth and early-twentieth centuries has recently attracted scholarly interest from management
41
42 scholars, theologians and historians (e.g., Burton and Hope, 2018; Burton and Turnbull, 2019;
43
44 Dandelion and Angell, 2017; King, 2014; Walvin, 1997; Windsor, 1980). For example, Burton and
45
46 Hope (2018) highlight the importance of corporate responsibility and ethics to the Quaker logic of
47
48 business, and draw parallels with contemporary movements, such as the UN Sustainable
49
50 Development Goals and B-corporation accreditation, that seem, at least in part, to replicate Quaker
51
52 concerns. Similarly, King (2014) argues that ‘Quakernomics’ is a distinctive form of ethical
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59
60 ² The term ‘Quaker business’ might encompass issues of ownership, control, management, culture, and ethos.
For our purposes, we take it to mean a business established by members of the Religious Society of Friends (Quakers).

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2
3 capitalism that deserves renewed attention, while Burton and Turnbull (2019) emphasise the
4
5 complex inter-relationships between the cooperative and social behaviours of Quakers and religion,
6
7 as well as the power of the Quaker kinship and network ties, that underpinned the success of many
8
9 Quaker businesses.

10
11
12 Originating with the ministry of George Fox (1624-1691), at the heart of Quaker theology is
13
14 the idea of the 'Light within' that manifests itself in interactions with the social world through the
15
16 Quaker testimonies to Truth, Integrity, Equality, Peace and Simplicity (Muers and Burton, 2018).
17
18 Early Quakers were heavily persecuted during the seventeenth century, and excluded from political
19
20 and public life, as well as from universities. Thus, although there was a high 'hedge' between
21
22 Quakers and the State (Dandelion, 2019) until the late-1800s, Quakers turned their attention to the
23
24 opportunities afforded by business and commerce where they were well-known for their honesty,
25
26 hard work and yeoman spirit (King, 2014).
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30
31 Though small in number³, Quakers had a significant impact in industry and produced a
32
33 remarkable and disproportionate number of businesspeople, scientists, thinkers, and campaigners
34
35 for justice, peace and human rights (Furtado, 2013; Raistrick, 1950). While Quaker involvement in
36
37 the chocolate industry is well-documented (e.g., Cadbury, 2010; Rowlinson, 1988; 1995; Rowlinson
38
39 and Hassard, 1993), much less well-known is that Quakers were also pivotal in the development of
40
41 industries, such as banking, life assurance, accounting, iron, biscuits, shoes, soap, chemicals,
42
43 brewing, metals, glass, wool, railways, and canals (eg, Child, 1964; Freeman, 2013; Raistrick, 1950;
44
45 Prior and Kirby, 1993; Walvin, 1997; Windsor, 1980). Because of their belief in the Inner Light,
46
47 Quakers were self-disciplined, self-reliant and confident in their individual and collective roles in
48
49 contributing to business and society. This conjunction of inner religious beliefs, outward
50
51 entrepreneurial action, and extensive social networks meant that Quakers were well-placed to both
52
53 shape and take advantage of the national and global development of trade and the early forms of
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³ Sahle (2015, 3) estimated Quakers have, at most, represented 1.8% of the population in 1700.

1
2
3 capitalism associated with the industrial revolution. For instance, Quaker businesses were important
4
5 actors in the trans-national mobilisation of people and resources, including the British cotton
6
7 industry which relied upon the ‘Triangular Trade’ between West Africa, the Caribbean and Britain
8
9 (Cazden, 2013). Thus, the Quaker network acted not only as a religious network, but also as a well-
10
11 functioning business network providing access to capital and resources from other Quaker
12
13 industrialists (Kirby, 1993; Turnbull, 2014). The reach and influence of Quakers also extended to
14
15 wider management practice. Windsor (1980), for example, argued that Quakers were instrumental
16
17 in innovations such as fixed product prices, ‘just’ weights and measures, formal accounting and
18
19 auditing procedures, bills of exchange, the cheque, employee welfare provisions, works’ councils,
20
21 pensions, subsidised housing, medical and dental care provision, profit-sharing, and cooperative
22
23 ownership.
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28 Because of their opposition to conventional Christian religious practice, and separation from
29
30 the State and its associated functions and institutions, the Quakers had to create their own
31
32 organizational forms, practices and quasi-legal rules (e.g., record keeping in all forms, including
33
34 accounts for debt). Their culture of writing and inscription – as evidenced by their assiduous practice
35
36 of record-keeping and providing written advice to members – was distinctly modern, compared to
37
38 pre-scientific, oral cultures. Furthermore, given their earlier separation from the State, Quakers
39
40 created an internal system of quasi-legal rules that governed and moderated the behaviour of its
41
42 members, including business owners. The quasi-legal rules were frequently published by Britain
43
44 Yearly Meeting (the corporate body), and oversight was enacted through local and area meetings.
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49 An intriguing and under-explored part of the story is how and why most of the Quaker
50
51 businesses lost their Quaker character in the first-half of the twentieth century. Today, the most
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53 famous – Cadbury, Rowntrees, and H&P – are now only ‘Quaker’ by historical association. Possible
54
55 explanations can be located in the family business literature and in Quaker scholarship. For example,
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57 in the stewardship stream of the family business literature, a number of scholars have argued that
58
59 transgenerational succession poses significant risks to maintaining a stewardship culture across
60

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2
3 successive generations as leadership becomes dispersed (eg, Pearson & Marler, 2010). In Quaker
4 scholarship, a few authors have discussed social and political drivers. Cadbury (2010, 223), for
5 instance, posited that the emergence of the welfare state in the UK in the first-half of the twentieth
6 century reduced the need for a ‘charitable Quaker businessman’, and that the social reforms in the
7 UK distanced religion from business. Slepwood (forthcoming) analysed the effect of World War I
8 on Quaker businesses through the lens of one Quaker firm - Albright and Wilson, a chemical
9 manufacturing firm. Slepwood argues that Government control of the firm introduced significant
10 commercial challenges, and a willingness to accept military and defence contracts in contradiction
11 to the Quaker testimony to peace. As a consequence, Slepwood charts the departure of key Quaker
12 figures due to their pacifist principles – and the increase in non-Quaker board members willing to
13 accept such contracts – which she associates with the business ceasing to be distinctively Quaker.
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28 Other Quaker scholars have examined changes internal to the Society. For example, King
29 (2014) and Walvin (1997) highlight that reducing membership of the Society meant fewer Quakers
30 able to take up management roles in Quaker businesses. Along similar lines, Tibbals (2014; 2017)
31 noted that expulsions from the Society in the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries for non-payment
32 of debts or marrying a non-Quaker depleted the number of Quakers in membership, thereby
33 weakening Quaker kinship and network ties. However, explanations that rely solely upon reduced
34 membership have been contested. In a study on Quaker membership, Stroud and Dandelion (2005)
35 have noted that while Quaker membership has fallen in recent years, membership actually rose
36 between the mid-1860s and early 1970s from c13,800 to c15,800. Thus, while the reasons for a
37 decline in Quaker’s establishing and managing successful businesses is complex and multi-faceted,
38 our paper seeks to provide an alternative exogenous explanation that situates changes in corporate
39 law in the mid-nineteenth century as an anchor event that ultimately weakened Quaker social
40 ambitions.
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Changes in corporate law

Until the mid-nineteenth century, the vast majority of businesses in the UK, including Quaker-owned businesses, were structured as family partnerships via partnership agreements (Sleapwood, 2017). The family partnership was the original venture capitalist enterprise, reinvesting profits as capital for further investment (Windsor, 1980). It had the distinction of unlimited liability, such that the partner's liability for debt was unlimited, and extended beyond the assets of the business in the event of failure. However, the partnership was also an extension of an individual's personality, and symbolically the partners often lived in their place of work (Taylor 2006, 24).

The challenges of sustaining a family-based partnership in the late nineteenth century were similar to today: ensuring effective succession, minimizing the potential for debt, and raising capital to finance growth and expansion (Turnbull, 2014). Until the Joint Stock Act 1844 was passed, only certain organisations were permitted to benefit from incorporation, either via common law, parliament, royal charter, or prescription (Holdsworth, 1922). Incorporation, under one of these methods, typically came with monopoly rights, and so was granted only in exceptional cases, such as to finance overseas ventures (for example, the East India Company was awarded a charter in 1600), and to finance companies involved in capital-intensive infrastructure projects like canals, railways⁴, and utilities, where there was a public benefit to incorporation.

Even though incorporation was rare, unincorporated joint-stock associations began to appear in the late 18th century as groups of individuals used trusts and mutual covenants to effect an organisational form somewhat akin to a corporation, albeit bereft of legal personhood. However, this opened up opportunities for fraud with the result that many investors lost money in the early 19th century having invested in joint-stock associations (Ireland, 2010). Investors also complained that the constraints on legal incorporation was limiting economic growth (Harris, 2013)⁵.

⁴ The first railway – known as the 'Quaker line' (Stockton & Darlington Railway Company) – was formed in 1821 by a group of Quaker businessmen as a limited company.

⁵ Harris (2013) suggests that there were just 124 incorporated joint stock companies in 1824.

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3 Eventually, the 1844 Joint Stock Act enabled a much broader scope of incorporation and became a
4
5 right for almost anyone involved in business. As affirmed in the landmark case, *Salomon v Salomon*
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7 (1897), the corporation became: an autonomous legal entity; it continued to exist even after the
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9 original founders (shareholders) had left the company or died; the shareholders acquired rights and
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11 responsibilities – for example to appoint managers; and, ownership (by shareholders) was separated
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13 from control (by managers). An important consequence of the Act was the ‘economic’ sphere was
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15 largely separated from the ‘social’ sphere in how a corporation was defined and understood. In other
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17 words, corporations were understood as economic institutions, and social concerns were understood
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19 as largely a negative externality to be managed by governments and other public agencies (Banerjee
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21 2008). As Perrow (2002, 41) noted, this was not “a mistake, an inadvertence, a happenstance in
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23 history, but a well-designed plan devised by particular interests who needed a ruling that would
24
25 allow for a particular form of organization”.

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30 The emergence of the corporation as a singular, distinct entity ran counter to a basic Quaker
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32 belief in the centrality of the individual and their consequent suspicion of collectivist models of the
33
34 world. This was also an important reason why many Quakers disliked trade unions and the socialist
35
36 focus on collective action, power and social class (Freeman, 2013). Hence, the notion of the
37
38 company as a unitary entity, separate from its constituting individuals, was contrary to their
39
40 individualistic ideology.
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44 Limited liability quickly followed incorporation via the 1855 Limited Liability Act. Prior to
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46 the Act, default on a liability to another was based upon a system of debt and credit, and thus an
47
48 individual’s character, personality and morality were of utmost importance (Finn, 2007; Taylor,
49
50 2014). Such a system was well-aligned with the Quaker ethos, but it had long been criticized based
51
52 on the argument that it stymied innovation and growth as unlimited liability disincentivized wealthy
53
54 individuals from investing in risky ventures. Such individuals were also being lured to invest their
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56 money in France and the state of New York where forms of limited partnerships had emerged
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58 (Smith, 2004, p. 72; Kempin, 1960). After half-a-century of contested debate on the merits or
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3 otherwise of introducing limited liability, it was eventually introduced via an amendment to the
4
5 Companies Act 1855 to encourage the working and middle class to participate more fully in the
6
7 economy, and to provide more investment opportunities for the rentier class (Kahan, 2009). The
8
9 rentier class was also becoming increasingly powerful, as evidenced by the fact that between 1815
10
11 and 1875 British investors exported a capital surplus amounting to about half a billion pounds (Jenks
12
13 1927, p. 333).

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15
16 For Quakers, the issue of limited liability struck to the core of their belief system as honesty
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18 in trade, including the avoidance of debt, was a condition of membership of the Religious Society
19
20 of Friends from its inception in the 1650s. Quakers had a reputation for being scrupulously honest,
21
22 and they abhorred the idea and practice of failing to pay one's debts. Hence, for most Quakers –
23
24 with some notable exceptions – “the possible inability of a limited company to meet its debts fully
25
26 was regarded as immoral” (Cottrell, 1980, 41).

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28
29 An important effect of the new joint-stock model was that it clearly differentiated between
30
31 the rights and responsibilities of shareholders and the management team. This was a significant
32
33 departure from the partnership model favoured by the Quakers, where a small number of closely-
34
35 related participants were actively involved in managing the business, sharing ownership of the
36
37 assets, and having joint and several unlimited liability. If there were external investors, then these
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39 were invariably well-known, if not related, to the partners and were expected to take an active
40
41 interest in the business. The new shareholder structure associated with incorporation also typically
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43 increased the number of shareholders quite significantly – partly because of a growing trend towards
44
45 lesser denominations of ordinary shares (Payne 1967) – while there was no requirement for the
46
47 shareholders to know one another. This was quite different from the Quaker partnerships where
48
49 there were typically a small number of owners who knew one another intimately. Decision-making
50
51 by the shareholders in this new context was also quite different. Under the shareholding structure,
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53 decisions were made by majority vote, a decision-making process with which Quakers have
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3 traditionally been uncomfortable (Morley, 1993). Moreover, a corollary of these changes was that
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5 ownership became steadily more divorced from control.
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7 The combined legal changes, however, were initially slow to have an effect ‘on the ground’
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9 (Payne 1967). For instance, Jefferys (1938) estimated that in 1885 limited companies accounted for
10
11 only between 5 and 10 percent of all-important business organisations, excluding sole traders and
12
13 public utilities. Thus, partnerships and sole traders were still very much the dominant form of
14
15 business organisation in the late nineteenth century. Three significant events led to a much greater
16
17 rate of incorporation in the latter part of the nineteenth century. First, the Long Depression of 1873
18
19 to 1879 saw an increasing number of bankruptcies which highlighted the benefits of incorporation.
20
21 Second, a ready supply of cheap money became available in the 1890s when the Bank of England
22
23 official minimum rate of discount stood at only 2 per cent. Third, in 1877 the company lawyer
24
25 Francis Palmer published a guidebook, *‘Private Companies; or how to convert your business into a*
26
27 *private company, and the benefit of so’*, in which he observed that even small partnerships and sole
28
29 traders could incorporate using nominees to meet the minimum requirement of seven members
30
31 (Palmer, 1877). Palmer’s book was influential – by 1900 it was in its eighteenth edition – and the
32
33 rate of incorporation steadily increased from 500 per year between 1856 and 1865 to 6700 per year
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35 between 1908-1914 (Ireland, 1984; 1996).
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42 The new legal ‘rules of the game’ struck at the heart of the Quaker belief system – that is,
43
44 debts should be honoured – and encouraged excessive risk-taking, a lack of personal responsibility
45
46 and an “un-English” approach to business (Taylor, 2014, 7). Taylor (2006, 22) concluded, “An array
47
48 of contemporaries believed that whereas the partnership system of commerce was predicated on
49
50 notions of character, trust and credit, companies marginalised these qualities and encouraged their
51
52 members to behave immorally”. As we shall see, given the competitive pressure to incorporate, most
53
54 of the prominent Quaker businesses incorporated in the late-nineteenth and early-twentieth
55
56 centuries: Consett Iron Company (1864), Ransomes (1884), Bryant & May (1884), Truman &
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58 Hanbury (1888); Reckitt (1888), Albright & Wilson (1892), Allen & Hanbury (1893); Carr (1894),
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3 Fry's (1896), Crosfields (1896), Rowntree (1897), Huntley & Palmers (1898), Cadbury's (1899),
4
5 Baker Perkins (1902), C & J Clark (1903) Swan Hunter (1903), Stewarts & Lloyds (1903).⁶
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8 **Method**

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11 Our case analysis centres upon a close re-reading of the text '*Quaker enterprise in biscuits:*
12
13 *Huntley and Palmers of Reading 1822-1972*' (Corley, 1972), an authoritative account of the
14
15 company's history, according to the website that accompanies the archives. In addition, we reviewed
16
17 and analysed the wider literature on Quaker business practice and corporate law. Thomas Corley
18
19 wrote his study of Huntley and Palmers (H&P) during the 1970s when he was a management
20
21 historian at the University of Reading, where he enjoyed access to the company archives held in the
22
23 university library and nearby local museum. The University Library held the documentary materials,
24
25 mostly business records, while the museum material consists of around 7,000 items including biscuit
26
27 tins, photographs, oral histories, and marketing and advertising collateral dating from 1822 to the
28
29 1980s. One of the key strengths of Corley's work is his use of references, dates, and sources, as
30
31 well as his close proximity to, and knowledge of, the archival records.
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36 Our analysis is a critical re-reading of Corley's text. Although Corley was not commissioned
37
38 by the company to write a corporate history, we acknowledge the limitations of drawing upon
39
40 corporate histories. There are potential issues relating to selectivity bias and de-contextualization
41
42 (Rojas 2010), social legitimization bias (Alvesson and Sköldbberg 2009), constraints on reflexivity
43
44 (Megill 2007), and a predisposition to an objectivist narrative form (Rowlinson, Hassard and
45
46 Decker, 2014). Despite these criticisms, we reflexively locate our case analysis as a critical re-
47
48 reading against the grain (Clark, 2004). Our re-interpretation aims to position itself as an
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50 analytically-structured history (Rowlinson, et al., 2014) that connects changes in corporate law to
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60 ⁶ From Grace's Guide to British Industrial History - <https://www.gracesguide.co.uk> .

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3 subsequent changes in ownership and control of the firm, and changes in firm objectives, linkages
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5 that Corley does not emphasize in his text.
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7 We approached Corley's text with incorporation of the firm in 1898 as an 'anchor' event, in
8
9 order to examine the subsequent effects on capital structure and the socio-economic objectives of
10
11 the firm. Thus, we began with two *a priori* themes: "ownership and control" and "(non) socio-
12
13 economic practice" to guide our analysis (see King, 2004; King and Brookes, 2017; 2018). We
14
15 coded the text using a template analysis approach adapted from Burton and Galvin (2018) that
16
17 combines template analysis and temporality. Template analysis is a distinctive and
18
19 epistemologically flexible type of thematic analysis that has recently gained traction in management
20
21 and organisation studies (Burton, 2018; Burton and Galvin, 2018; Waring and Wainwright, 2008).
22
23 While we had two *a priori* themes to guide our analysis, we coded Corley's text interpretively in
24
25 order to uncover sub-themes and related themes that related to our research interests. Furthermore,
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27 given the long, longitudinal nature of events, the templates were organized into time-periods to trace
28
29 change events chronologically (Burton and Galvin, 2018).
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36 **Case of Huntley & Palmers**

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38 Although H&P can be traced back to 1822 with the formation of J. Huntley & Son, it wasn't
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40 until June 1841 that Quakers Thomas Huntley and George Palmer settled a partnership agreement
41
42 for a biscuit manufacturing company based in Reading, Berkshire. The agreement included
43
44 provision to buy the share of the other should the partnership be wound up. The initial capital for
45
46 the partnership was supported by a loan by William Golding, a Quaker iron-founder. By 1845-6, the
47
48 business had grown; turnover had reached nearly £7,000, with profits exceeding £1,000 for the first
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50 time, and sixteen people were employed.
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54 With strong growth in the first few years, and George having imaginative ambitions – more
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56 so than Thomas – the partners negotiated the purchase of a factory for £1,800 on a mortgage loan.
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58 To begin to mechanize the factory, purchases of plant and machinery amounted to c. £1,000, in
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3 addition to capital required to refit the factory. By 1848-49, turnover had increased to £18,000, and
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5 profits to nearly £3,500 allowing the partners to pay down some debt, invest in further production
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7 mechanization, and reduce consumer prices. By 1850-51, although turnover had increased to over
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9 £40,000, with a profit of just under £7,500, and the business was able to finance its growth via
10
11 retained profits, discord began to emerge between Thomas and George. George was concerned about
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13 his workload, and he also felt that his partner's diligence was below par. In addition, George had
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15 raised a question about bringing his brother, Samuel Palmer, into the business as a manager,
16
17 potentially offering him a partnership at an undetermined later date. Thomas refused, unless his only
18
19 son, Henry Huntley, was given a similar opportunity. George declined. Eventually, as is the common
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21 practice among Quakers, the matter was referred to the Society, and three Quakers acted as
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23 arbitrators. As a result, a book-keeper was appointed to relieve Thomas; his son, Henry, went to
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25 Colchester to receive professional training, while Samuel was appointed to a sales role in Reading.

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30 The early to mid-1850s were a buoyant period for the business. William Isaac Palmer,
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32 brother to George, was brought into the business as factory manager, and the workforce now totalled
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34 around one-hundred and fifty. Between 1852 and 1855, a further factory, land, and houses was
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36 purchased. Profits in 1855-6 had grown to over £12,000 on turnover of £105,000. In 1856, Samuel
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38 and William Isaac had been promised partnerships, but for the time being were awarded
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40 remuneration by profit-share. Henry Evans Huntley – son of Thomas – was not brought in on the
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42 same basis at this time. Thomas Huntley died in 1857, leaving an estate of £35,000, and the
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44 partnership was dissolved.

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49 The 'second' partnership comprised the three Palmer brothers, following payments of
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51 around £34,000 to Henry, and that partnership continued until 1874. In 1857-8, George took this
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53 opportunity to take a step back from the day-to-day affairs of the business to focus on his public
54
55 interests. The period between 1857-8 and 1873-4 was a further buoyant period for the business with
56
57 turnover increasing by almost a factor of six, and net profit to over £84,000. Over a similar period,
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2
3 significant capital was invested in the factory sites. The full re-developed site was declared ‘open’
4
5 in late-1873, with around 2500 employees.
6

7 Between 1874 and 1893, the partnership transcended the next generation. George Palmer’s
8
9 eldest sons – George William and Alfred – joined the business as apprentices in 1868 and 1869
10
11 respectively and were admitted to partnership in 1874. Samuel’s son, Ernest Palmer, George’s third
12
13 son, Walter, also became partners in 1879 and 1880. Later, Samuel’s younger sons – Charles,
14
15 Howard and Albert – became partners in 1883, 1887, and 1892 respectively. By 1893, the capital
16
17 was distributed equally, 50% owned by George Palmer and his three sons, and 50% by Samuel and
18
19 his four sons. However, in 1887, Samuel’s health began to deteriorate, and his two elder sons took
20
21 over his duties in the London office. Brothers George and William Isaac also ceased to be involved
22
23 with the business through death or infirmity. William Isaac died suddenly in 1893, and in the mid-
24
25 1890s George’s health worsened. In all but a formal sense, the management of the business had been
26
27 passed to the second generation. By 1898, the sons of George and Samuel had only produced seven
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29 sons, and concern arose about the ability of the family to fulfil roles in the business in the future. Of
30
31 the grandchildren, only five entered the business. The problem of succession was compounded by
32
33 trying to maintain financial control of the business. At this time, the partnership was under the
34
35 control of three brothers from the first generation and seven children from the second generation.
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42 H&P’s main competitors embraced incorporation in the late nineteenth century. Jacob’s had
43
44 gone public in 1883, Carr and Co in 1894, Meredith and Drew in 1891, MacKenzie & MacKenzie
45
46 in 1898, and later Peek Frean in 1901 and MacFarlane Lang in 1904. Given this, the media reported
47
48 that H&P would ‘go public’, though this was denied by the company. Nonetheless, in 1894 H&P
49
50 instructed the Quaker accountants, Price Waterhouse, to investigate the benefits of incorporation.
51
52 The accountants set out the advantages and drawbacks of incorporation, with one major drawback
53
54 being the business might “have thrust upon it persons whom they don’t want” (Morley, 1972, 151).
55
56 At least initially, the matter was not acted upon. However, after George died in 1897, the surviving
57
58 partners immediately pursued preparations for incorporation, and this was subsequently enacted in
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1
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3 March 1898. The new company's share capital was fixed at £2.4m (£1m in ordinary shares and
4
5 £1.4m in 4% preference shares), owned equally by George's three sons on one side, and Samuel's
6
7 four sons on the other. The Articles of Association referred to 'George Palmer' and 'Samuel Palmer'
8
9 shares; each type offered to sale to the relevant side of the family before being offered to the other.
10
11 In other words, at least initially, the capital structure remained unaltered, and the limited company
12
13 was a family partnership within a joint-stock company structure. In this respect, H&P was similar
14
15 to other large British family partnerships that became limited liability corporations but issued no
16
17 shares or debentures to the public in order to retain family control of the business (Payne 1967).
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21 In 1904, Ernest Palmer, who was also a director of the Great Western Railway, proposed
22
23 that the Board elect a Chairman and Deputy Chairman – George William was then elected Chairman
24
25 and Ernest as Deputy – and that a new management structure be created to attract new skills and
26
27 expertise. Despite these changes, H&P's performance in its home market reduced, and the
28
29 shareholders began drawing down all of the profits as dividends, though in 1905 the company was
30
31 still the 38th largest corporation in the UK (Payne 1965). Howard Palmer replaced George William
32
33 Palmer as Chairman in 1906, and Charles Palmer became Deputy Chairman. Despite the
34
35 shareholders being Board members, Howard implemented a new era of professionalism, though
36
37 sales continued to fall, and many directors became pre-occupied with outside interests. Ernest, who
38
39 continued on the Board, expressed concern regarding H&P's strategic direction. Charles had similar
40
41 concerns, though the Board did not accept his proposal that a reserve fund be created to protect the
42
43 company. He stood down in 1912 to be replaced by Eustace Palmer.
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49 In the same period, the economic environment was volatile, and over-production and
50
51 reduced demand encouraged closer co-operation between manufacturers. The trade association –
52
53 the Association of Biscuit Manufacturers (ABM) – was set up in 1903 to promote the interests of
54
55 trade and collective action. However, the two largest manufacturers, Peek Frean and H&P, declined
56
57 to join, and Peak Frean instead ramped up its marketing and discounts to distributors, resulting in
58
59 tit-for-tat pricing in the industry and increasing competitive pressures. Given this competitive
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1
2
3 context, a firm of London brokers, Mitchell Hain & Co, approached various biscuit manufacturers
4
5 with a proposal to amalgamate into a public company, under a combine of H&P. The core logic of
6
7 the proposal was to defend against the ‘cheap’ biscuit trade initiated by CWS, one of the new
8
9 competitors that had entered the biscuit market in 1873. These cooperative ties were initially resisted
10
11 by Howard Palmer and the other directors, and the plan for consolidation collapsed.
12
13

14 The years either side of the First World War were characterised by restless labour relations,
15
16 as the firm reacted to volatile markets. During 1911, many employees unionized to campaign for
17
18 better wages and working conditions, following a series of redundancies. The local newspaper, the
19
20 Berkshire Chronicle, noted that low wages at the company were creating and sustaining depression
21
22 in Reading. Despite raising wages in 1912 (for the first time since 1900), in 1916 there was a
23
24 significant strike at the firm. The partners refused to discuss wages with the unions, but did
25
26 eventually establish a Workers’ Representative Committee.
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30 By July 1919, the Chairman, Howard Palmer, was advocating that H&P be converted into a
31
32 public company. He was preoccupied by three related matters. First, he was concerned that there
33
34 would be too few family members – and hence family shareholders – to sustain the company, and
35
36 that this would negatively impact family control. Second, with estate duty at 20% on estates over
37
38 £1m, premature deaths might lead to the forced sales of shares to meet death duties. Third, capital
39
40 was being used to maintain control rather than improve the competitive position of the company. It
41
42 was becoming clear to Howard that the only way to address all of these issues was to either
43
44 consolidate with other firms and revive the ideas turned down in 1912, ‘go public’ on its own, or
45
46 sell out to another conglomerate.
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50 The H&P Board initially decided to ‘go public’. But, before proceeding – since the second
51
52 generation was reaching very mature years – members of the third generation affected a ‘virtual
53
54 take-over’ of the firm, which was not resisted. However, Howard, with the Board’s support, was
55
56 also engaged in conversations with Peek Frean about a possible merger. After six months of
57
58 negotiations, the ordinary shares (excluding preference shares and debentures) were exchanged on
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3 a ratio of 52.2% to 47.5%, in favour of H&P, for shares in a new holding company capitalized at
4
5 £2.5m. The holding company, Associated Biscuit Manufacturers Ltd, was incorporated in December
6
7 1921, with Howard Palmer elected as Chairman and Arthur Carr of Peek Frean as Vice-Chairman.
8
9 The merger between H&P and Peek Frean allowed the two companies to benchmark key
10
11 performance indicators against each other, and this was quickly followed by a range of efficiency
12
13 advancements, such as cost reductions, economizing on labour and wages, changing distribution
14
15 towards retail, and more disciplined approaches to financial management. However, Howard Palmer
16
17 did not live to see this new direction, having died in 1923. Despite cost reductions and innovations,
18
19 profits halved, which initiated closing a factory and making various detrimental changes to the
20
21 labour force and wages. These changes included discharging some male workers at age eighteen,
22
23 turning over work to lower-paid female employees, and force-closing the factory until various new
24
25 terms were agreed by the workforce. All was not well as profits continued to fall.
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30 In 1926, Eustace resigned as Chairman due to health reasons. He was replaced by Eric and
31
32 Cecil was appointed his Deputy. Eric introduced a more informal style, but he continued to be
33
34 concerned about the competitive environment. Despite increasing buyer discounts, it was clear that
35
36 ‘cheap’ biscuit manufacturers were exploiting demand for lower-priced biscuits, and further cost
37
38 savings in H&P were required. A system of ‘scientific management’ was introduced throughout the
39
40 factory resulting in net savings of over £90,000. Despite these cost savings, and the investment of
41
42 retained earnings and reserves in capital projects, the company had effectively run out of money by
43
44 the mid-1930s. The Board examined every conceivable opportunity – from selling off assets, selling
45
46 preference shares, and further collaboration with Peek Frean – to minimize costs. The outcome was
47
48 to establish a Group Experimental Department for innovation and economization. Management
49
50 consultants, Urwick Orr & Partners, worked with the Board to consolidate administration and
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52 clerical functions in a new building, and by 1937 Reginald Palmer had persuaded the Board that the
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54 key to unlocking further efficiency advancements was the full mechanization of production.
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3 By 1940, only six family members formed part of the Executive, with four from outside the
4 family. Following hard years of rationing from 1945 to 1952, the company's fortunes seemed more
5 assured. In the first-half of the 1950s, output increased by nearly 50% as post-war demand returned
6 and the technology-equipped factories had come into operation. Dramatic increases in output
7 culminated in the building of a new production and packing facility near Liverpool in 1955, and so,
8 by around 1960, the production had been technologically-upgraded to a fully automated facility.
9 The price for these long-term investments was significant, with capital spend in the 1950s amounting
10 to an average of c. £300,000 a year. While profits had grown substantially, the rate was not high
11 enough to cover this kind of capital investment. With Peek Frean mirroring H&P's spend on new
12 technology, the Group had borrowed £1.5m from preference and ordinary shareholders, and bank
13 overdrafts neared the limit of £3.5m. The 1957 'credit crunch' was therefore very untimely, and the
14 Group estimated it would need £3.5m over five years.

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31 The advising bank highlighted the issues: offering further ordinary shares would weaken the
32 family's control, while other methods were unviable because the Group companies held preference
33 shares outside the Group, which ranked higher than ordinary shares. Thus, in 1958, the Group took
34 over both companies' preference shares and consolidated them with its own, effectively altering the
35 capital structure of the Group so that H&P and Peek Frean both became wholly-owned subsidiaries
36 of the Group. This permitted the Group to create some debenture stock which could clear the £3.5m
37 of debt, but also raise new funds (£2m). As the same directors sat on the Group and 'unit' boards,
38 the Group now exercised effective control over the operations of the H&P and Peek Frean 'units',
39 despite them each continuing to be run as largely separate enterprises.

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51 Notwithstanding the cost savings, the Group was still falling short of its profit ambitions due
52 to operational inefficiencies and intense competitive pressure. Thus, under the guidance of Gordon
53 Palmer, two new automated plants were constructed in 1957 and 1960. Consultants were also
54 employed to review its sales organisation and assess how sales and profitability could be increased.
55 They recommended further consolidation in sales, marketing and distribution, and the Group shifted
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3 to a more formalised planning and control system to more-effectively link production, marketing
4 and sales. At the same time, the mid to late-1950s witnessed the growth of supermarkets, and ‘own-
5 brand’ products began to materialise. Consolidation was also on the cards: the Group combined
6
7 with the Liverpool-based arm of Jacob’s, with Jacob’s becoming a wholly-owned subsidiary of
8
9 Associated Biscuit Manufacturers Ltd in 1960, increasing the share capital by £1.5m to £7.2m.
10
11 Three Jacob’s directors joined the Group board. The then Vice-Chairman of the Group, and
12
13 Managing Director of Peek Frean, sought to enhance the enlarged Group’s integration and
14
15 efficiency, and a new wave of professional management and efficiency advancements ensued. Stage
16
17 2 of the new era began with the Group appointing further consultants to achieve more economies in
18
19 production and marketing by consolidating factory organisation. By 1968, the new Group structure
20
21 unfolded, with three divisions: Biscuits, Overseas, and Tins and Light Engineering, which relegated
22
23 Huntley & Palmer as a ‘division’ of the wider Group. Roderic O’Connor, Chairman and Managing
24
25 Director of Jacob’s, was appointed as the Managing Director of the Biscuit Division, known as
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27 Associated Biscuits Ltd, while the three ‘units’ were now only retained as ‘brands’.
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36 Discussion

37
38 Games provide a useful lens through which to analyse the H&P case. Games, as
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40 communities, include players, supporters, managers and management teams, commentators,
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42 referees, analysts, administrators, sponsors, regulators, etc. There are also those who develop and
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44 produce games and game *matériel*, clubs, and associations, while administrative and rule-making
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46 practices are also integral to games. In turn, there are layers to the ‘rules of game’. So, for instance,
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48 there may be habitual practices – such as a team forming a huddle prior to a football game – that
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50 come to be law-like, as well as quasi-laws that are typically implemented by a referee, whose
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52 decisions are supported by a quasi-legal system consisting of a hierarchy of disciplinary committees,
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54 appeal processes, etc. There may also be local by-laws, such as a club rule that all substitutes must
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56 be given game-time. And these quasi-legal rules operate in a complex legal environment where the
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3 law of the land applies. For instance, a player will not be brought to court for handling a ball in
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5 football, but the courts might become involved if one player viciously assaults another. In turn, all
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7 of these law-like rules, quasi-legal local and general rules, as well as the law of the land, are subject
8
9 to interpretation and change.

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12 To add to the complexity, communities of practice associated with a game will invariably
13
14 have a heterogeneous and competing set of values, and indeed it is this tension that often vitalises
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16 the community. For instance, games routinely foster heterogeneous and sometimes competing
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18 values such as playing a game for its own sake, winning, losing graciously, respecting one's
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20 opponent, fairness, healthy competition, honesty, teamwork, individualism, etc. And there may also
21
22 be a temporal tension between some values, such as the desire to win this particular game versus the
23
24 desire to succeed over the longer term. The rules, values and practices of games also change over
25
26 time, though these changes often occur slowly – a game of football played a century ago is still
27
28 recognisable as the same game played today – which is why historical, long-term longitudinal case
29
30 studies are an appropriate methodology in studying such change.

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35 In our discussion that follows, we focus on how the legal 'rules of the game' – specifically
36
37 changes to corporate law enacted in the mid-nineteenth century – profoundly affected the subsequent
38
39 practices of Quaker businesses such as H&P, and came to supplant the quasi-legal rules that had
40
41 previously governed their practice. This effect resulted in them losing, during the early twentieth
42
43 century, control and ownership over the firms they had founded. H&P is an illustrative case, but key
44
45 parts of its narrative are shared by many other Quaker businesses (e.g., Cadbury, 2010; Hyde, Ellert,
46
47 and Killing. 1991; Kavanagh and Brigham, 2018; 2019). While earlier scholars have remarked that
48
49 Quakers lost control of the businesses they created, scholarship has yet to trace the exogenous
50
51 relationship between changes in corporate law ('rules') and the subsequent effects of those changes
52
53 on the way Quaker businesses were owned and managed.

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58 Our long, longitudinal case analysis shows that the quasi-legal (Quaker) logic was
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60 supplanted, from the late-nineteenth century, by a dominant legal logic, which created and operated

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3 a different set of rules of the game. The Quaker logic, which was quasi-legal in nature, was founded
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5 on maximising socio-economic outcomes, family partnership was the preferred organisational form,
6
7 and business practice was self-governed within the Quaker community. In fact, Britain Yearly
8
9 Meeting communicated frequently with its members on quasi-legal rules to do with business
10
11 practice. The scope of advice ranged, for example, from informing members that they had a moral
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13 duty to repay ‘just’ debts, to be honest and truthful in all business dealings, to avoid bankruptcy, not
14
15 to trade beyond means or capability, and to keep clear accounts (Tibbals, 2017). Oversight of the
16
17 rules was vested in local and area Quaker meetings, often to Elders. Although the effectiveness of
18
19 this kind of oversight has been recently disputed (Sahle, 2018), most Quaker scholars have remarked
20
21 that local and area Quaker meetings acted to ensure compliance and retained the ultimate sanction
22
23 of expelling a member from the Society for continued transgressions and bringing the Society into
24
25 disrepute (King, 2014; Tibbals, 2017). As Walvin noted (1997, 78), Quakers “had to satisfy not
26
27 only their partners, customers and suppliers, but also their fellow Friends [Quakers] – they were
28
29 expected to open their ledgers, show their receipts, reveal their bills and correspondence to satisfy
30
31 their co-religionists”. Moreover, internalizing the quasi-legal rules of the game by Quakers served
32
33 to strengthen the Quaker as a figure of honesty and integrity (Prior & Kirby, 1993).
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40 The Quaker quasi-legal logic went into decline partly because of internal changes within the
41
42 Quaker community. For example, in the mid-nineteenth century, Quakers were no longer expelled
43
44 for marrying non-Quakers, by 1871 Quakers were permitted to enter English universities, and in the
45
46 1830s Quakers were eligible to stand for Parliament (Dandelion, 2019). According to Dandelion, in
47
48 the mid-nineteenth century the State was beginning to tolerate Quakers, and Quakers tolerated the
49
50 State. These internal changes within the Society, along with falling membership, disrupted the quasi-
51
52 legal logic of the Quakers, occurring at the same time as a competing, legal logic emerged centred
53
54 on the idea of the corporation as a separate legal entity, with shareholders having limited liability,
55
56 and where maximising shareholder wealth trumped the notion of maximising socio-economic
57
58 wealth.
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3 How did changes to the legal rules that governed the new market economy inform the future
4
5 of Quaker businesses such as H&P? Wagner-Tsukamoto (2008, 843) have argued that in general
6
7 terms Quaker businesses and the Quaker ethic failed because “institutional structures and
8
9 mechanisms of the market economy were ignored”. In our view, this type of generalized argument
10
11 is too simplistic and reductionist.
12
13

14 First, our case analysis shows how access to external share capital was a strategic imperative
15
16 for the firm. Incorporation and limited liability had fundamentally changed the capitalization of
17
18 family firms in the UK at the turn of the twentieth century. Whereas Quaker firms previously held
19
20 an advantage in being able to access cost-effective capital in the Quaker kinship and social network,
21
22 easier access to external shareholder capital through market mechanisms undermined this economic
23
24 advantage. Furthermore, mechanization, fast-paced technological change and consolidation in the
25
26 industry increased the demand for capital and strengthened competitive intensity. For H&P, the
27
28 capital needed to survive and prosper exceeded the levels that could be raised via retained profits or
29
30 from other Quaker industrialists that earlier generations of the family partnership were able to draw
31
32 upon. To compound the problem, the industries Quaker firms populated were highly capital-
33
34 intensive and integrated (e.g., transport, manufacturing) or intensely competitive and subject to fast-
35
36 paced growth and internationalisation (eg. chocolate and biscuits).
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42 Incorporation enabled transferable shares to be issued to attract external share capital from
43
44 non-family (and non-Quaker) investors (such as through merger) to either provide liquidity to
45
46 finance expansion, withstand competitive dynamics, or enable existing family members to exit the
47
48 firm. Our case analysis shows how H&P consolidated manufacturing and production to achieve
49
50 scale in a merger with rival Peek Frean in 1921, forming Associated Biscuit Manufacturers Ltd
51
52 (ABM), and later ABM merged with Jacobs, ultimately diluting the family’s previously
53
54 concentrated shareholding. By the late 1960s, following a capital reorganization at ABM, H&P had
55
56 become a division and brand within ABM, losing its identity as a separate Quaker firm. As Stephen
57
58 Morland (quoted in Child, 1964, 312) summed up at the Conference for Friends in Industry in
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3 Bristol, 1959: “Some have expanded so greatly that their Quaker character has been lost; some have
4 failed and closed; some have been merged in larger combines; and some have had no Quakers to
5 carry on.”
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10 Second, incorporation and limited liability had an effect not only on the capital structure of
11 family firms, but it also challenged the primacy of the socio-economic objectives of Quaker family
12 firms. Family firms often hold heterogeneous objectives that endeavour to balance profit generation
13 with the social and emotional needs of family members of the firm (Berrone, Cruz, and Gomez-
14 Mejia, 2012; Neckerbrouck, Mueleman and Manigart (in press) and wider society. While Quaker
15 family firms were not resistant to creating an economic surplus, socio-economic objectives were
16 also vitally important to Quaker owner-managers and to the wider Quaker community. Scholarship
17 of other Quaker firms such as Cadbury have noted similar observations (eg, Cadbury, 2010;
18 Fincham, 2017; Walvin, 1997; Windsor, 1980; King, 2014).
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31 However, in contrast to this scholarship, our case analysis highlights that the socio-economic
32 objectives of Quaker firm H&P was supplanted by economic and market objectives. We identify
33 that as the share capital of H&P became less concentrated in family hands, the Quaker character of
34 the firm diminished, and the firm turned to management practices that would have been contrary to
35 the earlier advice and guidance published by Britain Yearly Meeting. To add to this, as the firm
36 grew, family representation in key managerial positions also diminished. Gomez-Mejia, et al. (2007)
37 noted that family firms often suffer from principal-principal conflicts that arise between family and
38 non-family shareholders (Martin, Gomez-Mejia, Berrone, and Makri, 2017) due to substantive
39 differences in the extent to which socio-economic goals are pursued (Neckerbrouck, Mueleman and
40 Manigart in press). In our case analysis, we have shown how the primacy of socio-economic
41 objectives weakened as the heterogeneity of the capital structure of the firm was expanded. In
42 particular, as the share capital expanded and its ownership diversified, firm efficiency became a key
43 driver for shareholders throughout much of the first half of the twentieth century, illustrating the
44 type of principal-principal conflicts that existed between Quaker and non-Quaker principals. With
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3 investments in new technologies and mechanization required to advance efficiency and meet the
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5 financial demands of shareholders, the impacts on the workforce and division of labour were
6
7 significant. Whereas Quaker employers had a reputation for care of employees (Fincham, 2017;
8
9 Tibbals, 2019; Turnbull, 2014), the firm had advanced various efficiency initiatives in order to
10
11 compete effectively, and labour relations at the firm significantly worsened both after incorporation
12
13 and over time as the capital structure diversified. For example, with low-pay, poor working
14
15 conditions and significant redundancies in 1910, the workforce at H&P unionized and went on strike
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17 in 1911 and again in 1916 after unfair treatment of a group of female workers. As noted by
18
19 Neckerbrouck, Mueleman and Manigart (in press), enhancing firm efficiency is a key driver for
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21 value creation and attracting external investors, but efficiency can often conflict with the socio-
22
23 economic goals of the family, especially when it involves restructuring and cost reductions.
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28 From the perspective of H&P's financial objectives, incorporation, in many ways, had the
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30 desired effect as the firm experienced significant growth in the first half of the twentieth century. In
31
32 addition to the 'growth story' of H&P, Quaker firms Cadbury and Rowntrees also experienced
33
34 significant growth following incorporation (Cadbury, 2010; Fincham, 2019; Vernon, 2013).
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36 However, our case analysis highlights a 'dark side' to incorporation that puts financial and socio-
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38 economic objectives in competition and runs the risk of socio-economic objectives being supplanted
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40 by purely financial objectives.
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45 We contribute to the management and organizational history literature in the following ways:
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47 First, we characterize incorporation and limited liability as legal rules of the game that govern the
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49 way that actors who play the game behave. Incorporation and limited liability supplanted the quasi-
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51 legal rules that Quaker businesses had previously operated within with some success. Second, we
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53 trace the effects that incorporation and limited liability had on the way in which family firms
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55 capitalized, and we show how the capitalization of firms is affected by competitive dynamics, and
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57 vice versa. Third, in light of the changing legal 'rules' and subsequent heterogeneous capital
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3 structure, we show how H&P was unable to sustain its socio-economic ambitions across successive
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5 generations. We locate the tension between financial and socio-economic objectives as a principal-
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7 principal problem that often bedevils family firms that wish to capitalize to survive or prosper. Thus,
8
9 in contrast to Wagner-Tsukamoto (2008), we do not find evidence that the mechanisms of the market
10
11 economy were ignored; rather the opposite. Quaker businesses embraced, perhaps with mixed
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13 emotions, the legal and financial rules of the market, and while the businesses they founded grew
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15 into large and successful enterprises, the Quaker families eventually lost control of the businesses
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17 they founded.
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22 **Endings and the End of Business**

23
24 Early Quaker businesses were able to create supportive social networks to develop their
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26 commercial interests. Their religious convictions that emphasised individual self-reliance, thinking
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28 for oneself, and self-discipline, enabled Quakers to be at the heart of industrialisation and early
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30 capitalism in the United Kingdom. However, over only a few decades in the first-half of the
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32 twentieth century, many Quaker businesses went ‘out’ of business – in the literal and metaphorical
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34 sense. Instead, they began putting greater effort into domains such as education, social work and
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36 campaigning for international peace and justice in a significant way after the First World War. We
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38 have shown how H&P, and Quaker businesses more generally, were eclipsed by a number of
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40 changes, most significantly changes in the rules of the game enacted by changes in company law.
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42 The business system that Quakers were integral in making, based on the integration of financial and
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44 socio-economic objectives, became less viable with changes in the socio-legal status – and
45
46 subsequently the capital structure – of organizations. We have argued that this aspect of management
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48 and organizational history, especially in relation to Quaker or other religious businesses, has been
49
50 neglected in the literature. Our close re-reading of Corley’s account of H&P provides, we suggest,
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52 a new perspective for management historians that includes more hitherto neglected aspects of family
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54 businesses.
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3 Because changes in the legal status of the firm did not have an immediate effect, it is more
4
5 difficult to determine the scope of the effect of socio-legal changes. Business and management
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7 historians are particularly well-placed to contribute to understanding the nuanced interplay of
8
9 continuity and change because they take a long view and bring historical sensitivity. Starting from
10
11 an historical anchor event and using a template analysis to identify relevant themes pertinent to our
12
13 interest, we have shown how changing the rules of the game for business activity and growth brought
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15 about changes in the way firms raised capital, limited liability and were managed. We have shown
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17 how the Quaker socio-economic objectives became increasingly extraneous and the importance of
18
19 analysing this through understanding the impact of a changing socio-legal context.
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23 Debate about the role, scope and legitimacy of the modern corporation is becoming
24
25 increasingly widespread, often emphasising the need to rebalance organizations and society
26
27 (Mintzberg, 2015). There is then a growing interest and focus on the legal status of the corporation
28
29 and how this frames economic and social activity. We have pointed to the future by looking back at
30
31 one Quaker business in detail, connecting the firm's history to the wider context of legal changes.
32
33 It is our hope that others will follow in exploring the relationship between corporate law and
34
35 corporate forms. Sir Adrian Cadbury acknowledged (foreword, King, 2014) that a return to Quaker
36
37 business practice in a public limited company is impossible. Our historical case analysis points in
38
39 the same direction. However, despite this pessimism, interest in no-longer-alternative organizational
40
41 forms such as the B-Corporation, common or cooperative ownership and employee-ownership are
42
43 gaining traction, as a way in which to balance financial and socio-economic objectives (e.g., Bauer
44
45 and Umlas, 2017; Moroz, Branzei, Parker, and Gamble, 2018). For example, B-corporation
46
47 accreditation requires the amendment of Articles of Association to reflect socio-economic
48
49 ambitions. Similarly, the literature on prosocial organizing encourages common forms of ownership
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51 as a pre-requisite for prosociality (e.g., Peredo, Haugh, and McLean, 2018).
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3 There are very few businesses today with an explicitly Quaker character⁷. Nonetheless, seen
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5 longitudinally, many Quaker values – integrity in business dealings, accountability of the impact of
6
7 a business to a wider group of stakeholders, well-being of employees, to name a few – have become
8
9 commonplace and taken for granted features in contemporary management practice. In this way,
10
11 Quaker beliefs can also be understood as having been integrated into modern capitalism even if
12
13 Quaker businesses themselves no longer exist as they once did. Drawing on our analysis of H&P,
14
15 initiatives around new organizational forms can be understood as attempts to rewrite the rules of the
16
17 game for twenty-first century pro-social businesses that draw on, replicate and reinvent, at least in
18
19 part, Quaker concerns and priorities.
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22

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25
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28

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31
32 None
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35 36 **References**

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58 ⁷ Although one notable exception is the Scott Bader Commonwealth which converted from a private limited company
59 to a commonwealth structure in 1951 (see, Muers & Burton, 2018). Scott Bader Commonwealth’s constitution is
60 available at https://www.scottbader.com/wp-content/uploads/5843_constitution-printed-dec-2014.pdf (accessed 17th
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