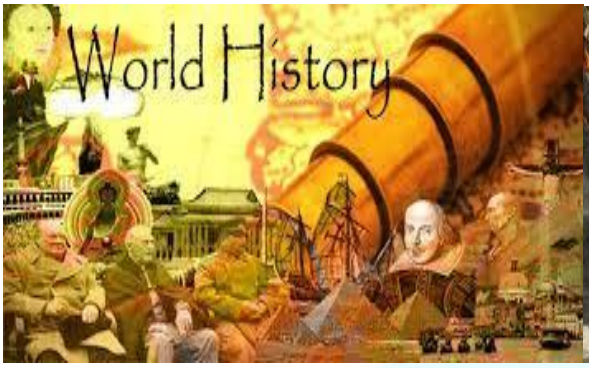
ENTRI

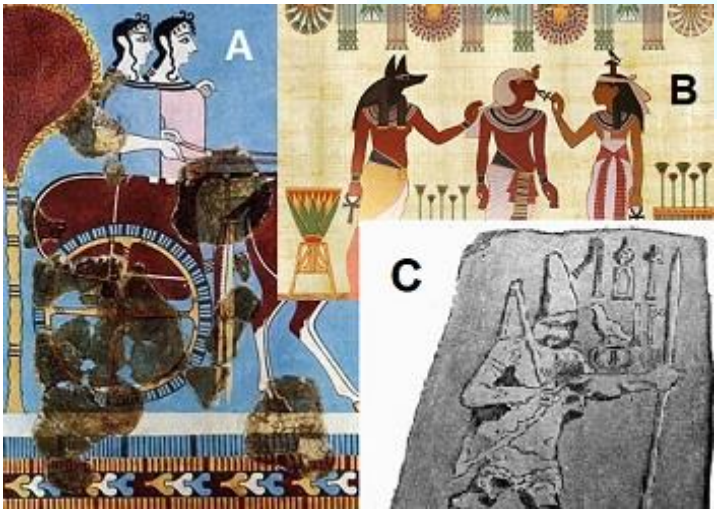
SET HISTORY UNIT VI PART 1

THEMES OF WORLD HISTORY



MODULE 1

BRONZE AGE CIVILISATIONS



- **The Bronze Age** is a term used to describe a period in the ancient world from about 3000 BCE to 1100 BCE. That period saw the emergence and evolution of increasingly sophisticated ancient states, some of which evolved into real empires. It was a period in which long-distance trade networks and diplomatic exchanges between states became permanent aspects of **political, economic, and cultural** life in the eastern Mediterranean region. It was, in short, the period during which civilization itself spread and prospered across the area.
- The period is named after one of its key technological bases: the crafting of bronze. Bronze is an alloy of tin and copper. An alloy is a combination of metals created when the metals bond at the molecular level to create a new material entirely.
- Needless to say, historical peoples had no idea why, when they took tin and copper, heated them up, and beat them together on an anvil they created something much harder and more durable than either of their starting metals.
- Some innovative smith did figure it out, and in the process ushered in an array of new possibilities.
- Bronze was important because it revolutionized warfare and, to a lesser extent, agriculture. The harder the metal, the deadlier the weapons created from it and the more effective the tools. Agriculturally, bronze plows allowed greater crop yields.
- Militarily, bronze weapons completely shifted the balance of power in warfare; an army equipped with bronze spear and arrowheads and bronze armor was much more effective than one wielding wooden, copper, or obsidian implements.
- An example of bronze's impact is, as noted in the previous chapter, the expansionism of the New Kingdom.
- The New Kingdom of Egypt conquered more territory than any earlier Egyptian empire. It was able to do this in part because of its mastery of bronze-making and the effectiveness of its armies as a result.

- ➔ The New Kingdom also demonstrates another noteworthy aspect of bronze: it was expensive to make and expensive to distribute to soldiers, meaning that only the larger and richer empires could afford it on a large scale.
- ➔ Bronze tended to stack the odds in conflicts against smaller city-states and kingdoms, because it was harder for them to afford to field whole armies outfitted with bronze weapons.
- ➔ Ultimately, the power of bronze contributed to the creation of a whole series of powerful empires in North Africa and the Middle East, all of which were linked together by diplomacy, trade, and (at times) war.

The Bronze Age States

There were four major regions along the shores of, or near to, the eastern Mediterranean that hosted the major states of the Bronze Age: Greece, Anatolia, Canaan and Mesopotamia, and Egypt.

Those regions were close enough to one another (e.g. it is roughly 800 miles from Greece to Mesopotamia, the furthest distance between any of the regions) that ongoing long-distance trade was possible.

While wars were relatively frequent, most interactions between the states and cultures of the time were peaceful, revolving around trade and diplomacy.

Each state, large and small, oversaw diplomatic exchanges written in **Akkadian** (the international language of the time) maintaining relations, offering gifts, and demanding concessions as circumstances dictated.

Although the details are often difficult to establish, we can assume that at least some immigration occurred as well.

One state whose very existence coincided with the Bronze Age, vanishing afterwards, was that of the Hittites.

Beginning in approximately 1700 BCE, the Hittites established a large empire in Anatolia, the landmass that comprises present-day Turkey.

The Hittite Empire expanded rapidly based on a flourishing bronze-age economy, expanding from Anatolia to conquer territory in Mesopotamia, Syria, and Canaan, ultimately clashing with the New Kingdom of Egypt.

The Hittites fought themselves to a stalemate against the Egyptians, after which they reached a diplomatic accord to hold on to Syria while the Egyptians held Canaan.

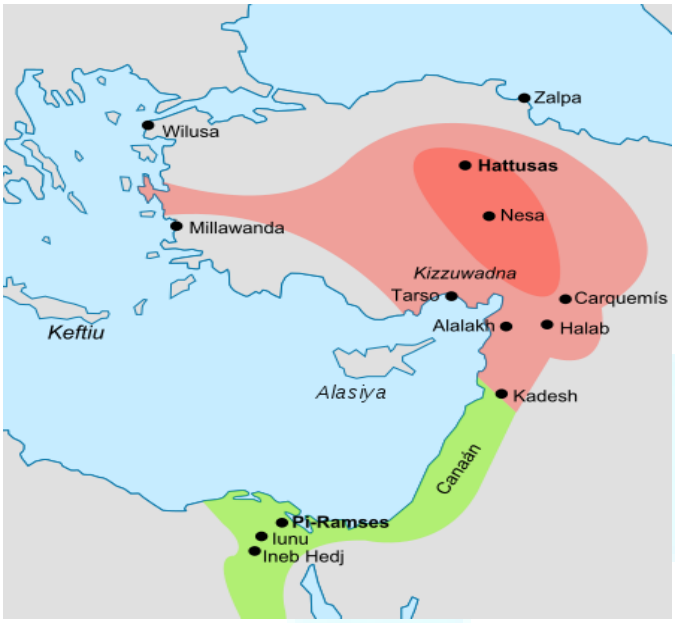
Unlike the Egyptians, the Hittites had the practice of adopting the customs, technologies, and religions of the people they conquered and the people they came in contact with.

They did not seek to impose their own customs on others, instead gathering the literature, stories, and beliefs of their subjects. Their pantheon of gods grew every time they conquered a new city-state or tribe, and they translated various tales and legends into their own language.

There is some evidence that it was the Hittites who formed the crucial link between the civilizations of Mesopotamia and the civilizations of the Mediterranean, most importantly of the Greeks.

The Hittites transmitted Mesopotamian technologies (including math, astronomy, and engineering) as well as Mesopotamian legends like the Epic of Gilgamesh, the latter of which may have gone through a long process of translation and re-interpretation to become the Greek story of Hercules. Simply put, the Hittites were the quintessential Bronze Age civilization: militarily

powerful, economically prosperous, and connected through diplomacy and war with the other cultures and states of the time.



ENTRI

The Collapse of the Bronze Age

- The Bronze Age at its height witnessed several large empires and peoples in regular contact with one another through both trade and war.
- The pharaohs of the New Kingdom corresponded with the kings and queens of the Hittite Empire and the rulers of the Kassites and Assyrians; it was normal for rulers to refer to one another as **"brother" or "sister."**
- Each empire warred with its rivals at times, but it also worked with them to protect trade routes.
- Certain Mesopotamian languages, especially Akkadian, became international languages of diplomacy, allowing travelers and merchants to communicate wherever they went.
- Even the warlike and relatively unsophisticated Mycenaeans played a role on the periphery of this ongoing network of exchange.
- That said, most of the states involved in this network fell into ruin between **1200 – 1100 BCE**.
- The great empires collapsed, a collapse that it took about 100 years to recover from, with new empires arising in the aftermath.
- There is still no definitive explanation for why this collapse occurred, not least because the states that had been keeping records stopped doing so as their bureaucracies disintegrated.
- The surviving evidence seems to indicate that some combination of events – some caused by humans and some environmental – probably combined to spell the end to the Bronze Age.
- **Around 1050 BCE**, two of the victims of the collapse, the New Kingdom of Egypt and the Hittite Empire, left clear indications in their records that drought had undermined their grain stores and their social stability.
- In recent years archaeologists have presented strong scientific evidence that the climate of the entire region became warmer and more arid, supporting the idea of a series of debilitating droughts.

- Even the greatest of the Bronze Age empires existed in a state of relative precarity, relying on regular harvests in order to not just feed their population, but sustain the governments, armies, and building projects of their states as a whole.
- Thus, environmental disaster could have played a key role in undermining the political stability of whole regions at the time.
- Even earlier, starting in 1207 BCE, there are indications that a series of invasions swept through the entire eastern Mediterranean region.
- The New Kingdom of Egypt survived the invasion of the **"sea people,"** some of whom historians are now certain went on to settle in Canaan (they are remembered in the Hebrew Bible as the Philistines against whom the early Hebrews struggled), but the state was badly weakened in the process.
- In the following decades, other groups that remain impossible to identify precisely appear to have sacked the Mycenaean palace complexes and various cities across the Near East.
- While Assyria in northern **Mesopotamia** survived the collapse, it lost its territories in the south to Elan, a warlike kingdom based in present-day southern Iran.
- The identity of the foreign invaders is not clear from the scant surviving record. One distinct possibility is that the **"bandits"** (synonymous in many cases with **"barbarians"** in ancient accounts) blamed for destabilizing the region might have been a combination of foreign invaders and peasants displaced by drought and social chaos who joined the invasions out of desperation.
- It is thus easy to imagine a confluence of environmental disaster, foreign invasion, and peasant rebellion ultimately destroying the Bronze Age states.
- What is clear is that the invasions took place over the course of decades – from roughly 1180 to 1130 BCE – and that they must have played a major role in the collapse of the Bronze Age political and economic system.

- While the precise details are impossible to pin down, the above map depicts likely invasion routes during the Bronze Age Collapse. More important than those details is the result: the fall of almost all of the Bronze Age kingdoms and empires.
- For roughly 100 years, from 1200 BCE to 1100 BCE, the networks of trade and diplomacy considered above were either disrupted or destroyed completely.
- Egypt recovered and new dynasties of pharaohs were sometimes able to recapture some of the glory of the past Egyptian kingdoms in their building projects and the power of their armies, but in the long run Egypt proved vulnerable to foreign invasion from that point on.
- **Mycenaean civilization** collapsed utterly, leading to a Greek "**dark age**" that lasted some three centuries.
- The Hittite Empire never recovered in Anatolia, while in Mesopotamia the most noteworthy survivor of the collapse – the Assyrian state – went on to become the greatest power the region had yet seen.

MODULE 2

GRECO- ROMAN AND JUDEO CHRISTIAN FOUNDATION

Early Experiments in Participatory Government

Instead of rule by a single person, Athens and Rome developed governments with widespread participation by male elites, which lasted about 170 years in Athens and about 480 years in Rome.

Deep Time

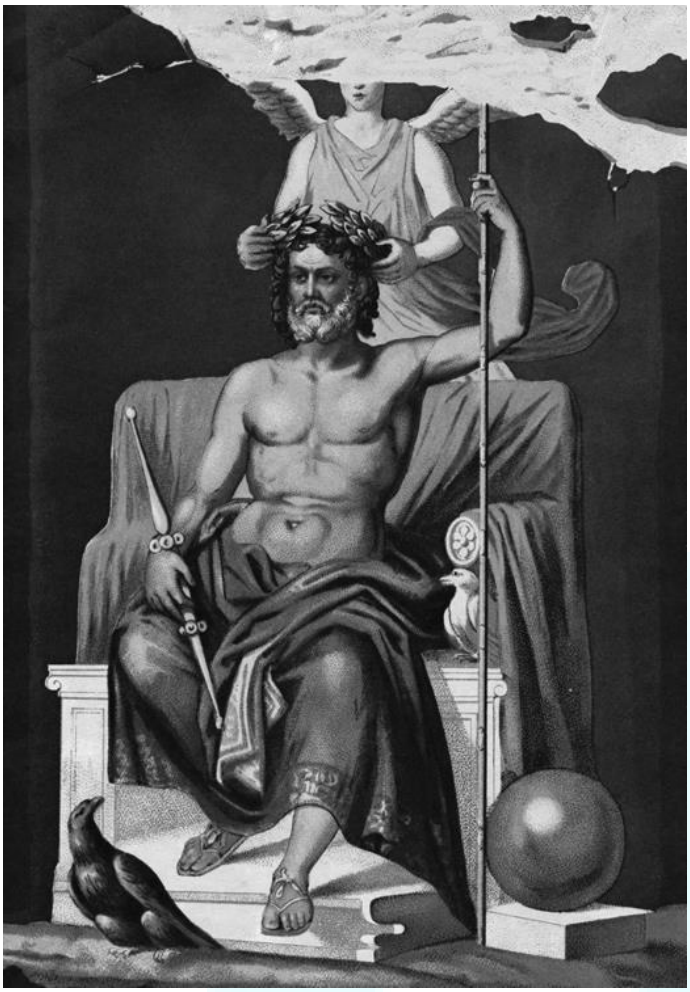
Present-day Greece, with Athens as its capital, and Italy, with Rome as its capital, are neighbors along the northern shore of the Mediterranean Sea. Eighty-five million years ago they were already neighbors, but across the sea on a thumb of land, a promontory of the continent of Africa.

By 55 million years ago continental drift had carried the European and African continents together, and by 5 million years ago the promontory consisting of the future Italy and Greece had collided with the European crust, overriding it and piling the deformed crust higher and higher, creating the Alps and the mountains of Greece.

After 5 million years of rocks and water pouring out of the Alps over Italy, countless earthquakes, the apparent drying out and refilling of the Mediterranean Sea, and microplates (Corsica and Sardinia) swinging down the Italian peninsula, the northern coast of the Mediterranean became the setting for the development of two distinctive societies, with the Romans eventually swallowing the Greeks as part of the Roman Empire.

Location and Food

- On the Greek peninsula the Greeks occupied the southern shoreline, called Attica. Another group, the Macedonians, inhabited the northern territories.
- Attica was composed of rocky soil on steep mountains. The poor soil could sustain barley, grapes, and olive trees, and could accommodate sheep and goats, but not much else — just some figs and lentils. Hence, Greeks stayed near the coast and took to the sea for extra food and for trading with other people.
- Fortunately for Athenians (who had built their city near the southern coast of Attica), a large silver deposit near Athens brought them wealth and paid for additional timber from Italy, which they used to build warships that gave them a powerful navy. (Athenians reduced their own forest cover from about 50 percent in 600 BCE to about 10 percent in 200 BCE.)



The Romans had a more productive site on the western side of the Italian peninsula. They built their city on seven hills by the Tiber River, not at the seashore, but inland 18 miles (30 kilometers). This gave them protection from naval attacks, while they could still access the Mediterranean by river to the port city of Ostia. To the north lived the Etruscans, and to the south Greeks formed colonies along the coast and on the island of Sicily. In their fertile river valley, early Romans grew wheat, barley, oats and rye, grapes, and olives. They used goat's and sheep's milk for cheese. Their local fruit trees included apples, pears, plums, and quince. They harvested many **vegetables, but not corn, potatoes, or tomatoes** — those came later from the Americas.

For meat, they had fish, oysters, chickens, ducks, geese, and pigs; they seldom consumed cows. Salt, found in selected places, was controlled by the government. Soldiers were sometimes paid in salt, a practice from which our word salary derives, as does the phrase "**worth your salt.**"

Athens and Greece

From 1600 to 1100 BCE Indo-European immigrants, called the Mycenaeans, occupied the mainland of the Greek peninsula. They attacked Troy, a city in Anatolia (now Turkey), on the other side of the Aegean Sea from Greece. This war is described in The Iliad, one of the earliest written pieces of Western literature, attributed to Homer and written down around the eighth century BCE.

By 800 BCE small, competing city-states, called **"poleis"** (or singular, polis), were forming in the mountains of southern Greece. These city-states each contained some 500–5,000 male citizens and had varying degrees of popular participation in political life. The total Greek population may have been 2–3 million.

The city-states shared a common language and religion, and after 776 BCE they came together every four years for competitive games held near Mount Olympus.

The Greeks used their expanding population to set up more than 400 colonies along the shores of the Mediterranean and the Black seas between the mid-eighth and late sixth centuries.

Their colonies in the **Black Sea** gave them access to fish, furs, timber, honey, gold, amber, and slaves from southern Russia. Greece introduced metallic coins in the seventh century BCE to facilitate trade; by 520 BCE they carried Athens' emblem of an owl, the sacred bird of the goddess Athena. Instead of expansion by conquest, the early Greeks expanded by colonization.

Sparta and Athens, the chief city-states, differed profoundly in their culture and politics. The Spartans conquered their neighbors and forced them to live as slaves, providing agricultural labor. To keep them in control, Sparta developed an austere culture based on maintaining an elite military force, with a ruling council of 28 elders.
Athens, on the other hand, gave wealthy men full political rights. A growing number were added as they could afford armor and weapons to serve in the army (a duty of all participants in government).

By 450 BCE holders of public office were chosen by lot, and even the 10 military generals were elected. Since women, children, slaves, and foreigners had no vote, perhaps 10–12 percent of the estimated 300,000 Athenians were participating in government.
Five hundred years before the Common Era, the largest and wealthiest agrarian civilization in the world was the Persian Empire. It conquered some of the Greek colonies on the shores of Anatolia but when the Athenians fought the Persians, they won — on land at Marathon in 490 BCE and in great sea battles.

A runner, Phidippides, carried the news of victory the 26 miles from Marathon to Athens and died after shouting, **"Rejoice, we conquer."** (The day before he had run 140 miles to Sparta and back, asking for help, which for religious reasons the Spartans wouldn't give until the Moon was full.) Phidippides's effort 2,500 years ago also spawned the 26.2-mile marathon running races that are so popular today.
After their victory over the Persians, Athens enjoyed a golden age of cultural creativity of some 150 years.

The high tide of democratic participation took place under the elected general Pericles, who served 32 years in the mid-fifth century. Athenian merchants had earlier brought knowledge and ideas from **Mesopotamia**

and Egypt; Athenian scientists, philosophers, and playwrights developed and combined cultural traditions that would later spread throughout Europe and serve as a foundation for Western culture. (Just for reference: the philosophers Socrates died in 399 BCE, Plato about 348 BCE, and Aristotle in 322 BCE.)

Of course, most Greeks did not have an advanced education; the literacy rate for that time is estimated at about 5 percent.

The more educated Greeks believed in a pantheon of gods, headed by the sky god, Zeus, who emerged triumphant from the battle of the gods.

Many Greeks believed in mystery religions, which involved secrets known only to initiates and often entailed a savior whose death and resurrection would lead to salvation for followers.

The Greek city-states never figured out how to live together peaceably; instead, Athens and Sparta fought the Peloponnesian War (431–404 BCE), in which Athens was defeated and all city-states were weakened.

In the mid- 300s BCE, Macedonia, their neighbor to the north, conquered the Greek cities. When the Macedonian leader, Philip II, was assassinated in 336 BCE, his 20-year-old son, Alexander, took the stage. In 13 amazing years, Alexander conquered enough land to form the largest empire the world had yet seen, from Macedonia and Greece to Bactria (Afghanistan) and parts of India, and including Anatolia, Egypt, the Middle East, Babylonia, and Persia.

Alexander died suddenly and mysteriously in 323 BCE after a big drinking party; his empire was divided among three of his generals — Egypt under Ptolemy (not to be confused with the scientist Claudius Ptolemy), Greece and Macedonia under Antigonus, and central Asia under Seleucus.

For a little more than a hundred years, these Greek rulers brought Greek culture to their areas. For example, the city of Alexandria at the mouth of the Nile became the most important port in the Mediterranean.

The Ptolemaic rulers there funded a museum that served as an institute of higher learning and research; it included a library that by the first century BCE had some 700,000 scrolls. Scholars came from around the Mediterranean to work in Alexandria.

There Eratosthenes measured the diameter of the Earth, Euclid wrote the rules of geometry, and the scientist Ptolemy wrote the Almagest, unfortunately ignoring the ideas of Aristarchus, who also studied at Alexandria and theorized almost 2,000 years before Copernicus that the Earth circled the Sun.

Meanwhile, over on the Italian peninsula the Romans had developed a powerful agrarian civilization, one that was not fragmented into city-states. Between 215 and 146 BCE they gradually conquered the Greek cities, only to absorb much of Greek culture into their own.

Rome and Empire

Rome began as a merging of small towns on seven hilltops by the Tiber River, halfway down the west coast of the Italian peninsula. A hundred years after the union, in 509 BCE, Roman aristocrats overthrew their king and set up a republic ruled by the patrician class. (A republic is a form of government in which delegates represent the interests of varied constituencies.)

The poorer classes, called plebeians, insisted on some protections and participation. The idea of the republic came to include the rule of law, the rights of citizens, and upright moral behavior.

As its population grew, Roman rule expanded. For various reasons — food supplies, defense, land, glory — Roman armies fought the powerful city of Carthage, across the Mediterranean near modern-day Tunis, Tunisia.
After 120 years Rome finally won and went on to conquer Greece, Egypt, and the Middle East by 133 BCE.
The republican form of government, however, produced seething rivalries among its military leaders, who competed for power with their personal armies. Out of this competition emerged the winner, Julius Caesar (100–44 BCE),

who conquered Gaul (modern France) and England, but not Scotland, Wales, and Ireland, where the Celts held the line. By 46 BCE Julius Caesar declared himself dictator for life, ending the republic.

Two years later other members of the Senate stabbed him to death in hopes of restoring the republic. Instead, after 13 more years of civil war, Caesar's adopted son, Octavian, known as Augustus, took the throne and ruled for 45 years virtually unopposed.

The empire reached its height in the first two centuries of the Common Era. From 27 BCE to 180 CE, a time known as the Pax Romana, or Roman Peace, Roman leaders controlled about 130 million people across an area of about 1.5 million square miles, from a city of 1 million people. Roman roads linked all parts of the empire.

Roman law, which featured key concepts such as the principle that the accused are innocent until proven guilty, was administered everywhere.

Under Roman law men had most of the rights, as was also the case in Greece. The father of the Roman family could arrange the marriages of his children, sell them into slavery, or even kill them without punishment. Roman law limited women's rights to inherit property and assets, but some clever individuals managed to skirt this law.

Like all agrarian civilizations of its time, Romans made use of slave labor but on a larger scale than most. No reliable data exist, but at the height of the empire maybe one-third of the population were slaves; an emperor alone might have about 20,000 slaves. In 73 BCE an escaped slave, Spartacus, assembled 70,000 rebellious slaves; after several years Roman troops crushed them and crucified 6,000 survivors along the Appian Way.

Romans put more of their creativity into roads, aqueducts (for carrying water), and law than into philosophy and science, unlike the Greeks. In a way, though, the Roman Empire was a vehicle for the spread of Greek culture. The Romans honored many gods, renaming the Greek ones and taking them as their own.

Roman statesman Marcus Tullius Cicero (106–43 BCE) adopted a version of Stoicism, a Greek philosophy seeking to identify universal moral

standards based on nature and reason; Epicetus and Marcus Aurelius further popularized it. The older mystery religions — the Anatolian rites of Mithras and Cybele and the Egyptian rites of Isis — proved immensely popular in the Roman Empire.

Out of a remote corner of the Roman Empire emerged a small sect that has become the most widespread religion of today's world — Christianity. The Romans conquered Judea (modern Israel) in 6 CE. Jesus, whom Christians consider the Son of God, grew up at a time of great tension between the Roman overlords and their Jewish subjects.

The Romans allowed Jesus to be crucified in the early 30s CE to forestall rebellion, which they believed he was advocating with his message that "**the kingdom of God is at hand.**"

In 66–70 CE the Jews actually did revolt against Roman rule; the Romans crushed this by destroying the Jewish temple, taking thousands of Jews to Rome as slaves, and sending most of the rest into exile.

After this revolt, Christianity spread to non-Jewish communities, led by Paul of Tarsus, Anatolia, who preached in the Greek-speaking eastern regions of the Roman Empire.

At first Rome persecuted Christians, but by the third century CE Rome had become the principal seat of church authority, with the religion appealing to the lower classes, women, and urban populations.

In 313 CE Emperor Constantine (who ruled from 306 to 337 CE) legalized Christian worship after his own conversion, and by the end of the fourth century it had become the official state religion.

History books used to refer to the **"fall" of Rome** in 476 CE when a Germanic general, Odovacar (435–493), became the ruler of the western part of the empire.

But the fall was a gradual dissolution, not a sudden collapse. After 200 CE, Rome faced many problems.

Strong leadership was lacking; during a 50-year span in the 200s CE there were 26 emperors, only one of whom died a natural death. Epidemics of disease spread along the Silk Roads; afflictions that began in animals — **smallpox, measles, mumps, whooping cough** — could spread rapidly in urban populations.

The Roman world lost about one-quarter of its population before 450 CE. Monetary inflation occurred; people lost confidence in coins and returned to bartering.
The dissolving empire meant the decline of urban life, reduced international trade, loss of population, and widespread insecurity for ordinary people.

In 324 CE Emperor Constantine moved the capital to Byzantium (renamed Constantinople and now called Istanbul) in Turkey, and from there the Eastern Roman Empire became the Byzantine Empire, which lasted another thousand years until the Ottoman Turks sacked Constantinople in 1453.

The Western Roman Empire ended in 476. Centralized authority did not hold; the government reverted to city-states and small territories ruled by princes, bishops, or the pope, with the Roman Catholic Church often at odds with state authorities. The common tongue, Latin, evolved into many splinter languages — **French, Italian, Spanish, Portuguese, and Romanian.**

Connections and Legacies

Even so, Greco-Roman collective learning managed to live on. Much credit must go to the Ptolemaic rulers in Egypt, who supported scholarship and research at the Museum and Library of Alexandria. Nobody knows for sure what happened to Alexandria's library, but eventually it disappeared.

The part of the city where it stood now lies underwater; in 2004 excavators discovered 13 lecture halls. Three main claims have been made about the library's destruction:

that Julius Caesar accidentally, or on purpose, set part of the city on fire in 48 BC when fighting his rival general, Pompey; that Christians destroyed it in the early fifth century CE; and that Muslims, who took Alexandria in 640 CE, ransacked the library and burned the documents as tinder for their bathhouses.

(This was written 300 years after the purported event by a Christian bishop known for describing Muslim atrocities without much documentation.) Possibly all of these events, or versions of them, contributed to the library's eventual demise.

Whatever documents were at hand, Muslim scholars became interested in Greek ideas. These scholars spread their learning across North Africa and into modern Spain.

In the 11th century, Latin Christians took Toledo and Sicily back from the Muslims, and southern Italy from the Byzantines, acquiring many manuscripts written by Greek and Muslim scholars and monks. In the 12th century the Muslim scholar Ibn Rushd (1126–1198 CE), known as **Averroes in Latin,** wrote commentaries on the Greek philosopher Aristotle and included some Arabic translations of the original Greek. By 1300, universities had been organized in many European cities, through which Greco-Roman ideas entered European intellectual life.

Scholars in the Byzantine Empire also played a large role in preserving Greek knowledge.
During the centuries when scholarship disappeared in the western part of the former Roman Empire, Byzantine monks and academics copied and recopied the Greek manuscripts.
The Roman legacy seems a bit more concrete. Hundreds of miles of Roman road still exist, after 20 centuries of use.
Emperor Justinian (reigned 527 – 565 CE) reorganized Roman law with the Code of Justinian, which is still the basis of legal systems in most of Europe. (U.S. law is based on English case law.)

Humanists in Europe used the ideas of Roman non-Christians, especially Cicero, to discuss how to live well rather than arguing about theology. The names of our months also derive from Roman times, carrying the names of their gods and of a couple of their most famous emperors.
Perhaps the most important legacy of Greco-Roman civilization is its experiments with male citizen participation in political life.

Though these exercises seem rather short-lived in both societies, the ideas later re-emerged in Europe and the fledgling United States to play a significant role in the shaping of modern governments.

JUDEO CHRISTIAN FOUNDATION

The term Judæo-Christian is used to group Christianity and Judaism together, either in reference to Christianity's derivation from Judaism, Christianity's borrowing of Jewish Scripture to constitute the **"Old Testament"** of the Christian Bible, or due to the parallels or commonalities in Judaeo-Christian ethics shared by the two religions, such as the 10 Commandments or the fact that the writers of the New Testament were Second Temple Jews.

The Jewish concept of atonement was appropriated by Christian theologians, and circumcision is a Jewish tradition kept by evangelical Christians.

The term "Judæo Christian" first appeared in the 19th century as a word for Jewish converts to Christianity.
The German term **"Judenchristlich"** ("Jewish-Christian") was used by Friedrich Nietzsche to describe continuity between the Jewish and Christian worldviews.

The term became widely used in the United States during the Cold War to suggest a unified American identity opposed to communism. Theologian and author Arthur A. Cohen, in The Myth of the Judeo-Christian Tradition, questioned the theological validity of the Judeo-

Christian concept, suggesting that it was instead essentially an invention of American politics.

The common grouping of faiths attributed to Abraham, the Bahá'í Faith, Islam, Samaritanism, Druzism, and others in addition to Judaism and Christianity, is similarly problematic

The rise of antisemitism in the 1930s led concerned Protestants, Catholics, and Jews to take steps to increase mutual understanding and lessen the high levels of antisemitism in the United States.

In this effort, precursors of the National Conference of Christians and Jews created teams consisting of a priest, a rabbi, and a minister, to run programs across the country, and fashion a more pluralistic America, no longer defined as a Christian land, but **"one nurtured by three ennobling traditions: Protestantism, Catholicism and Judaism...**.The phrase '**Judeo-Christian**' entered the contemporary lexicon as the standard liberal term for the idea that Western values rest on a religious consensus that included Jews."

In the aftermath of the Holocaust, "there was a revolution in Christian theology in America. [...] The greatest shift in Christian attitudes toward the Jewish people since Constantine converted the Roman Empire."

The rise of Christian Zionism, religiously motivated Christian interest and support for the state of Israel, along with the growth of philo-Semitism has increased interest in Judaism among American evangelicals, and this interest is especially focused on areas of commonality between the teachings of Judaism and their own beliefs. During the late 1940s,

evangelical proponents of the new Judeo-Christian approach lobbied Washington for diplomatic support of the new state of Israel.

On the other hand, by the late 1960s mainline Protestant denominations and the National Council of Churches showed more support for the Palestinians than they showed for the Israelis.

Interest in and a positive attitude towards America's Judeo-Christian tradition has become mainstream among evangelicals.

The scriptural basis for this new positive attitude towards Jews among evangelicals is found in Genesis 12:3, in which God promises that he will bless those who bless Abraham and his descendants, and curse those who curse them.

Other factors in the new philo-Semitism include gratitude to the Jews for contributing to the theological foundations of Christianity and being the source of the prophets and Jesus; remorse for the Church's history of antisemitism; and fear that God will judge the nations at the end of time on the basis of how they treated the Jewish people.

Moreover, for many evangelicals Israel is seen as the instrument through which prophecies of the end times are fulfilled

The rise of Islamic empires and states

Learn about the Arab Muslim conquests and the establishment of the caliphate.

Overview

- **Islam** spread through military conquest, trade, pilgrimage, and missionaries.
- Arab Muslim forces conquered vast territories and built imperial structures over time.
- Most of the significant expansion occurred during the reign of the Rashidun from 632 to 661 CE, which was the reign of the first four successors of Muhammad.
- The caliphate—a new Islamic political structure—evolved and became more sophisticated during the Umayyad and Abbasid caliphates.
- Over a period of a few hundred years, Islam spread from its place of origin in the Arabian Peninsula all the way to modern Spain in the west and northern India in the east.
- Islam traveled through these regions in many ways. Sometimes it was carried in great caravans or sea vessels traversing vast trade networks on land and sea, and other times it was transferred through military conquest and the work of missionaries.
- As Islamic ideas and cultures came into contact with new societies, they were expressed in unique ways and ultimately took on diverse forms.

Different trajectories

- To begin to understand the rich history of Islam, let's start with the historical context and events that led to Islam's spread.
- For example, Islam initially spread through the military conquests of Arab Muslims, which happened over a very short period of time soon after the beginning of Islam.
- However, only a small fraction of the people who came under Arab Muslim control immediately adopted Islam.

- ➔ It wasn't until centuries later, at the end of the eleventh century, that Muslims made up the majority of subjects of the Islamic empires.
- ➔ The spread of Islam through merchants, missionaries, and pilgrims was very different in nature.
- ➔ These kinds of exchanges affected native populations slowly and led to more conversion to Islam.
- ➔ As Islamic ideas traveled along various trade and pilgrimage routes, they mingled with local cultures and transformed into new versions and interpretations of the religion.
- ➔ Another important thing to note is that not all military expansion was Arab and Muslim.
- ➔ Early on in Islamic history, under the Rashidun caliphate—the reign of the first four caliphs, or successors, from 632 to 661 CE—and the Umayyad caliphate, Arab Muslim forces expanded quickly.
- ➔ With the Abbasids, more non-Arabs and non-Muslims were involved in the government administration.
- ➔ Later on, as the Abbasid caliphate declined, there were many fragmented political entities, some of which were led by non-Arab Muslims.
- ➔ These entities continued to evolve in their own ways, adopting and putting forth different interpretations of Islam as they sought to consolidate their power in different regions.

What are some of the ways in which Islam spread?
When did most conversion to Islam occur?

The first Arab Muslim empire

- ➔ During the seventh century, after subduing rebellions in the Arabian peninsula, Arab Muslim armies began to swiftly conquer territory in the neighboring Byzantine and Sasanian empires and beyond.

- ➔ Within roughly two decades, they created a massive Arab Muslim empire spanning three continents.
- ➔ The Arab Muslim rulers were not purely motivated by religion, nor was their success attributed to the power of Islam alone, though religion certainly played a part.
- ➔ Non-Muslim subjects under Arab Muslim rule were not especially opposed to their new rulers. A long period of instability and dissatisfaction had left them ambivalent toward their previous rulers.
- ➔ Like all other empires, the first Arab Muslim empires were built within the context of the political realities of their neighboring societies.
- ➔ A depiction of Mohammed (top, veiled) and the first four Caliphs. From the Subhat al-Akhbar, a 17th-century Ottoman painting.

- ➔ During the Rashidun caliphates, Arab Muslim forces expanded outward beyond the Arabian peninsula and into the territories of the neighboring Byzantine and Sasanian Empires.
- ➔ These empires were significantly weakened after a period of fighting with one another and other peripheral factions like the Turks, economic turmoil, disease, and environmental problems.
- ➔ The Arab Muslim conquerors were primed to take advantage of this; they were familiar with Byzantine and Sasanian military tactics, having served in both armies.

- ➔ With the Byzantine and Sasanian Empires on the decline and strategically disadvantaged, Arab Muslim armies were able to quickly take over vast territories that once belonged to the Byzantines and Sasanians and even conquer beyond those territories to the east and west.
- ➔ Most conquests happened during the reign of the second caliph, Umar, who held power from 634 to 644.
- ➔ The Rashidun caliphate constructed a massive empire out of many swift military victories.
- ➔ They expanded for both religious and political reasons, which was common at the time.
- ➔ One political advantage the Rashidun caliphate held was their ability to maintain stability and unity among the Arab tribes.
- ➔ Distinct, feuding Arab tribes united into a cohesive political force, partially through the promise of military conquest.
- ➔ However, this unity was tentative and ultimately gave way to major divergences that disrupted state and religious institutions in the coming centuries.

How quickly did the Arab Muslim Empires spread?

What were some of the reasons the Byzantine and Sasanian Empires were vulnerable to attacks by the Arab Muslim conquerors?

A new political structure

The Rashidun can be credited for military expansion, but did Islam truly spread through their conquests?

Significant conversion and cultural exchange did not occur during their short rule, nor were complex political institutions developed.

It was not until the **Umayyad Dynasty—**from 661 to 750—that Islamic and Arabic culture began to truly spread. The Abbasid Dynasty—from 750 to 1258—intensified and solidified these cultural changes.

A dome situated in the courtyard of a mosque.
Dome of the Clocks, Umayyad Mosque, Damascus, Syria.
The Dome was built in 780, while the mosque was completed in 715.

Before the Umayyads, Islamic rule was non-centralized. The military was organized under the caliphate, a political structure led by a Muslim steward known as a caliph, who was regarded as the religious and political successor to the prophet Muhammad. The early caliphate had a strong army and built garrison towns, but it did not build sophisticated administrations.

The caliphate mostly kept existing governments and cultures intact and administered through governors and financial officers in order to collect taxes.
The Rashidun caliphate was also not dynastic, meaning that political leadership was not transferred through hereditary lineage.

During this period, it seems the Arab tribes retained their communal clan-based systems of choosing leaders.

However, to sustain such a massive empire, more robust state structures were necessary, and the Umayyads began developing these structures, which were often influenced by the political structures in neighboring empires like the Byzantines and Sasanians.

Under the Umayyads, a dynastic and centralized Islamic political state emerged.
The Umayyads shifted the capital from Mecca to Syria and replaced tribal traditions with an imperial government controlled by a monarch.

They replaced Greek, Persian, and Coptic with Arabic as the main administrative language and reinforced an Arab Islamic identity.

Notably, an Arab hierarchy emerged, in which non-Arabs were accorded secondary status.
The Umayyads also minted Islamic coins and developed a more sophisticated bureaucracy, in which governors named viziers oversaw smaller political units.

The Umayyads did not actively encourage conversion, and most subjects remained non-Muslim. Because non-Muslim subjects were

required to pay a special tax, the Umayyads were able to subsidize their political expansion.

A map depicting the extent of the Umayyad caliphate in 750 CE, which extended from Spain in the west to northern India in the East and covered northern Africa, southern Europe, Anatolia, and the Arabian Peninsula.

A map depicting the extent of the Umayyad caliphate in 750 CE, which extended from Spain in the west to northern India in the East and covered northern Africa, southern Europe, Anatolia, and the Arabian Peninsula.

This map shows the extent of the Umayyad Empire in 750 CE. Image credit:

The Umayyads did not come into power smoothly. The transition between the rule of the Rashidun and the first Umayyads was full of strife. Debates raged about the nature of Islamic leadership and religious authority. These conflicts evolved into major schisms between Sunni, Shia, and Ibadi Islam.

Ultimately, there were many factions that regarded the Umayyads as corrupt and illegitimate, some of whom rallied around new leaders. These new leaders claimed legitimacy through shared lineage with the prophet Muhammad, through the prophet's uncle, Abbas. They led a revolt against the Umayyads, bringing the Abbasid caliphate to power.

The Abbasids were intent on differentiating themselves from their Umayyad predecessors, though they still had a lot in common. Abbasid leadership was also dynastic and centralized.

However, they changed the social hierarchy by constructing a more inclusive government in a more cosmopolitan capital city, Baghdad.

The distinction between Arab Muslims and non-Arab Muslims diminished, with Persian culture exerting a greater influence on the Abbasid court.In the forefront, a decorated, gold structure. In the

background,tallminaret.

In the forefront, a decorated, gold structure. In the background, a tall minaret.

Dome of the Treasury, Umayyad Mosque, Damascus, Syria. The Dome was built in 789, while the mosque was completed in 715. Image credit: Wikipedia

Under the Abbasids, Islamic art and culture flourished. They are famous for inaugurating the Islamic golden age.

Religious scholars, called ulema, developed more defined religious institutions and took on judicial duties and developed systems of law.

It was also during Abbasid rule that many people converted to Islam, for a multitude of reasons including sincere belief and avoiding paying taxes levied on non-Muslims.

As a result, Islamic culture spread over the **Abbasids'** vast territory.

CALIPHATE

ENTRI

A caliphate or khilāfah (Arabic: خِلَافَة, Arabic pronunciation: [xi'laːfah]) is an institution or public office governing a territory under Islamic rule. The person who holds this office carries the title of caliph (/ˈkælɪf, ˈkeɪ-/; Arabic: خَلِيفَة Arabic pronunciation:
pronunciation (help·info)) and is considered a politico-religious successor to the Islamic prophet Muhammad and a leader of the entire Muslim world (Ummah).

Historically, the caliphates were polities based on Islam that developed into multi-ethnic trans-national empires.

While the importance of the Caliphate as a political power fluctuated throughout the history of Islam, the institution survived for over a thousand years.

Often acting as little more than a symbolic figurehead, the formal office of Caliph remained from the death of Muhammad in 632 until the Ottoman Caliphate was formally dismantled in 1924. During the medieval period, three major caliphates succeeded each other:

the Rashidun Caliphate (632–661), the Umayyad Caliphate (661–750), and the Abbasid Caliphate (750–1517).

In the fourth major caliphate, the Ottoman Caliphate, the rulers of the Ottoman Empire claimed caliphal authority from 1517 and maintained Sunni Islam as the official religion.

A few other Muslim states, almost all hereditary monarchies, such as the Abbasid caliphs under protection of the Mamluk Sultanate (Cairo) and the Ayyubid Caliphate, have claimed to be caliphates. The first caliph was Abu Bakr and the last caliph was Abdulmejid II.

The first caliphate, the Rāshidun Caliphate, immediately succeeded Muhammad after his death in 632.
The four Rāshidun caliphs were chosen through shura, a process of community consultation that some consider to be an early form of Islamic democracy.

The fourth caliph, Ali, who, unlike the prior three, was from the same clan as Muhammad (Banu Hāshim), is considered by Shia Muslims to be the first rightful caliph and Imam after Muhammad.

Ali reigned during the First Fitnā (656–661), a civil war between supporters of Ali and supporters of the assassinated previous caliph, Uthman, from Banu Umayya, as well as rebels in Egypt; the war led to the establishment of the Umayyad Caliphate under Muāwiyah I in 661.

The second caliphate, the Umayyad Caliphate, was ruled by Banu Umayya, a Meccan clan descended from Umayya ibn Abd Shams. The caliphate continued the Arab conquests, incorporating the Caucasus, Transoxiana, Sindh, the Maghreb and the Iberian Peninsula (Al-Andalus) into the Muslim world.

The caliphate had considerable acceptance of the Christians within its territory, necessitated by their large numbers, especially in the region of Syria.

Following the Abbasid Revolution from 746 to 750, which primarily arose from non-Arab Muslim disenfranchisement, the Abbāsid Caliphate was established in 750.

The third caliphate, the Abbāsid Caliphate was ruled by the Abbāsids, a dynasty of Meccan origin descended from Hāshim, a great-grandfather of Muhammad, via Abbās, an uncle of Muhammad.

Caliph al-Mansur founded its second capital of Baghdād in 762, which became a major scientific, cultural and art center, as did the territory as a whole, during the period known as the Islamic Golden Age.

From the 10th century, Abbasid rule became confined to an area around Baghdad and saw several occupations from foreign powers.

In 1258, the Mongol Empire sacked Baghdad, ending the Abbasid rule over Baghdad, but in 1261 the Mamluks in Egypt re-established the Abbasid Caliphate in Cairo.
Though lacking in political power, the Abbasid dynasty continued to claim authority in religious matters until the Ottoman conquest of Mamluk Egypt in 1517, which saw the establishment of the Ottoman Caliphate.

A few other states that existed through history have called themselves caliphates, including the Ayyubid Caliphate during the reign of Saladin (1174–1193), Isma'ili Fatimid Caliphate in Northeast Africa (909–1171), the Umayyad Caliphate of Córdoba in Iberia (929–1031), the Berber Almohad

Caliphate in Morocco (1121–1269), the Fula Sokoto Caliphate in what is present-day northern Nigeria (1804–1903), and the Islamic State of Iraq and the Levant in the 2010s.

The Sunni branch of Islam stipulates that, as a head of the Ummah (Islamic world), a caliph was a selected or elected position.

Followers of Shia Islam however, believe in an Imamate rather than a Caliphate, that is to say a caliph should be an Imam chosen by Allah from the Ahl al-Bayt **(the "Family of the House", Muhammad's direct descendants)**.

MODULE 4

COMMERCIAL REVOLUTION

The breakdown of the feudal blocks of the Middle Ages due to plague, wars and famine in the centuries before the 16th created conditions which enabled peasant mobility and shifts in land ownership structures, thereby enabling a social and political environment which promoted growth and expansion of trade and commerce. With the breakdown of

control of feudal lords and church over the social and economic life of medieval Europe, there occurred a simultaneous churning in the political atmosphere across Europe.

The increasing desire on part of medieval state to attempt to control more resources, required to fight wars and maintain influence over vast and diverse territories; to provide for public in times of distress and famines; and also to satisfy the increasing desire on part of members of nobility to access the novelties and luxuries of the east, which are now being made accessible with the Ottoman conquest of Eastern Europe and Anatolia; brought the participants of the political order in direct conflict with the clergy, which was the source of the restrictive, shackling social ethics of the medieval ages.

The desire for money, through promotion of long-distance trade, support for banking families and providers of credit, required states to undertake policies which ran counter to catholic church's opinion around acts of usury and notions of profit through trade and exchange. The end of crusades towards the end of the 14th century, also opened channels of commerce to Asiatic spaces, especially the **'Holy Land'** on Eastern Mediterranean coast, bringing in much commerce and connection, in form of new demands of the pilgrimage traffic as well a steady in flow of Ottoman and Egyptian riches into European spaces. Along with the luxury products, spices and textiles from Asia also began to find a market in Europe.

Emergence of markets and fairs which facilitated exchange of essential and luxury commodities, brought the realities of newly evolving commercial life of Southern Europe into the interiors. As the wars and political conditions as well as geography created hindrance for overland transport of commodities, coastal trade gained importance, leading to

emergence of strong port centric urban spaces across western and northwestern Europe, evolving into the Hanseatic league in the 15th century. The league was a commercial and defensive confederation of towns, 110 The Rise of the Modern West ports and dominant merchant guilds in the region of Northern Europe centered around the town of Hansa.

Similarly, Italian cities and their merchant class, led by Jewish communities, came to dominate the networks of exchange and markets in Southern Europe. Engaging with distant Asiatic markets and coming face to face with the difficulties and dangers in managing commerce at such a long distance, they borrowed innovations and techniques from Asiatic markets, such as 'bills of exchange', and molded them to suit the European political and economic environment. The centuries also began to see the emergence of a new form of organization of labor, especially in newly emergent industrious towns and cities, in the form of guilds.
A specialized body constituting a homogenous group of artisans and works engaged in a particular craft or trade in particular commodities, the guilds began to dominate the social, cultural and political landscape of European cities and urban spaces from 15th century onwards

Origins of the Commercial Revolution

The term itself was used by Karl Polanyi in his The Great Transformation: **"Politically, the centralized state was a new creation called forth by the Commercial Revolution...".**

Later the economic historian Roberto Sabatino Lopez, used it to shift focus away from the English Industrial Revolution. In his best-known book, The Commercial Revolution of the Middle Ages (1971, with numerous reprints), Lopez argued that the key contribution of the medieval period to European history was the creation of a commercial economy between

the 11th and the 14th century, centered at first in the Italo-Byzantine eastern Mediterranean, but eventually extending to the Italian city-states and over the rest of Europe. This kind of economy ran from approximately the 14th century through the 18th century.

Walt Whitman Rostow placed the beginning **"arbitrarily"** in 1488, the year the first European sailed around the Cape of Good Hope. Most historians, including scholars such as Robert Sabatino Lopez, Angeliki Laiou, Irving W. Raymond, and Peter Spufford indicate that there was a commercial revolution of the 11th through 13th centuries, or that it began at this point, rather than later.

Maritime Republics and Communes

The Venetian Empire.

Italy first felt huge economic changes in Europe from the 11th to the 13th centuries.

Typically there was:

a rise in population—the population doubled in this period (the demographic explosion)

an emergence of large cities (Venice, Florence and Milan had over 100,000 inhabitants by the 13th century in addition to many others such as Genoa, Bologna and Verona, which had over 50,000 inhabitants)

the rebuilding of the great cathedrals

substantial migration from country to city (in Italy the rate of urbanization reached 20%, making it the most urbanized society in the world at that time)

an agrarian revolution

the development of commerce

In recent writing on the city states, American scholar Rodney Stark emphasizes that they married responsive government, Christianity and the birth of capitalism.

He argues that Italy consisted of mostly independent towns, who prospered through commerce based on early capitalist principles and kept both direct Church control and imperial power at arm's length.

Cambridge University historian and political philosopher Quentin Skinner[11] has pointed out how Otto of Freising, a German bishop who visited central Italy during the 12th century, commented that Italian towns had appeared to have exited from feudalism, so that their society was based on merchants and commerce. Even northern cities and states were also notable for their Maritime republics, especially the Republic of Venice and Genoa.

Compared to absolutist monarchies or other more centrally controlled states, the Italian communes and commercial republics enjoyed relative political freedom conducive to academic and artistic advancement. Geographically, and because of trade, Italian cities such as Venice became international trading and banking hubs and intellectual crossroads.

Harvard historian Niall Fergusonpoints out that Florence and Venice, as well as several other Italian city-states, played a crucial innovative role in world financial developments, devising the main instruments and practices of banking and the emergence of new forms of social and economic organization.

It is estimated that the per capita income of northern Italy nearly tripled from the 11th century to the 15th century. This was a highly mobile, demographically expanding society, fueled by the rapidly expanding Renaissance commerce.

In the 14th century, just as the Italian Renaissance was beginning, Italy was the economic capital of Western Europe: the Italian States were the top manufacturers of finished woolen products.

However, with the Black Death in 1348, the birth of the English woolen industry and general warfare, Italy temporarily lost its economic advantage. However, by the late 15th century Italy was again in control of trade along the Mediterranean Sea.

It found a new niche in luxury items like ceramics, glassware, lace and silk as well as experiencing a temporary rebirth in the woolen industry.

During the 11th century in northern Italy a new political and social structure emerged: the city-state or commune. The civic culture which arose from these urbs was remarkable.

In some places where communes arose (e.g. Britain and France), they were absorbed by the monarchical state as it emerged. They survived in northern and central Italy as in a handful of other regions throughout Europe to become independent and powerful city-states.

In Italy the breakaway from their feudal overlords occurred in the late 12th century and 13th century, during the Investiture Controversy between the Pope and the Holy Roman Emperor: Milan led the Lombard cities against the Holy Roman Emperors and defeated them, gaining independence (battles of Legnano, 1176, and Parma, 1248; see Lombard League).

Similar town revolts led to the foundation of city-states throughout medieval Europe, such as in Russia (Novgorod Republic, 12th century), in

Flanders (Battle of Golden Spurs, 14th century) in Switzerland (the towns of the Old Swiss Confederacy, 14th century), in Germany (the Hanseatic League, 14th–15th century), and in Prussia (Thirteen Years' War, 15th century).

Some Italian city-states became great military powers very early on. Venice and Genoa acquired vast naval empires in the Mediterranean and Black Seas, some of which threatened those of the growing Ottoman Empire

During the **Fourth Crusade** (1204), Venice conquered a quarter of the Byzantine Empire.

The Maritime Republics were one of the main products of this new civic and social culture based on commerce and exchange of knowledge with other areas of the world outside western Europe.

The Republic of Ragusa and the Republic of Venice, for example, had important trade communications with the Muslim and Hindu world and this helped the initial development of the Italian Renaissance.

By the late 12th century, a new and remarkable society had emerged in Northern Italy, rich, mobile, and expanding, with a mixed aristocracy and urban borghese (burgher) class, interested in urban institutions and republican government.
But many of the new city-states also housed violent factions based on family, confraternity and brotherhood, who undermined their cohesion (for instance the Guelphs and Ghibellines).

By 1300, most of these republics had become princely states dominated by a Signore. The exceptions were Venice, Florence, Lucca, and a few

others, which remained republics in the face of an increasingly monarchic Europe.

In many cases by 1400 the Signori were able to found a stable dynasty over their dominated city (or group of regional cities), obtaining also a nobility title of sovereignty by their formal superior, for example in 1395 Gian Galeazzo Visconti bought for 100,000 gold florins the title of Duke of Milan from the emperor Wenceslaus.

In the **fourteenth and fifteenth centuries,** Milan, Venice, and Florence were able to conquer other city-states, creating regional states.

The 1454 Peace of Lodi ended their struggle for hegemony in Italy, attaining a balance of power and creating the conditions for the artistic and intellectual changes produced by the Italian Renaissance.

Portuguese discoveries and explorations from 1415 to 1543: first arrival places and dates; main Portuguese spice trade routes in the Indian Ocean (in blue); territories of the Portuguese Empire under the rule of King John III (1521–1557) (in green).

The deterioration of the climate that brought about the end of the medieval warm period (or medieval weather anomaly) caused an economic decline at the beginning of the 14th century (see Great Famine).
However, demographic expansion continued until the arrival of the Black Death epidemic in 1347, when ca. 50% of the European population was killed by the plague. The economic effects of a labor shortage actually caused wages to rise, while agricultural yields were once again able to support a diminished population.

By the beginning of the 15th century, the economic expansion associated with the Commercial Revolution in earlier centuries returned in full force, aided by improvements in navigation and cartography.

Geopolitical, monetary, and technological factors drove the Age of Discovery. During this period (1450-17th century), the European economic center shifted from the Islamic Mediterranean to Western Europe (Portugal, Spain, France, the Netherlands, and to some extent England). This shift was caused by the successful circumnavigation of Africa, which opened up sea-trade with the east: after Portugal's Vasco da Gama rounded the Cape of Good Hope and landed in Calicut, India in May 1498, a new path of eastern trade was possible, ending the monopoly of the Ottoman Turks and the Italian city-states.

The wealth of the Indies was now open for the Europeans to explore; the Portuguese Empire was one of the early European empires to grow from spice trade.
Following this, Portugal became the controlling state for trade between east and west, followed later by the Dutch city of Antwerp. Direct maritime trade between Europe and China started in the 16th century,

after the Portuguese established the settlement of Goa, India in December 1510, and thereafter that of Macau in southern China in 1557. Since the English came late to the transatlantic trade, their commercial revolution was later as well.

Geopolitical factors

In 1453, the Ottoman Turks took over Constantinople, which cut off (or significantly increased the cost of) overland trade routes between Europe and the Far East, so alternative routes had to be found.

English laws were changed to benefit the navy, but had commercial implications in terms of farming.
These laws also contributed to the demise of the Hanseatic League, which traded in northern Europe.

Because of the Reconquista, the Spanish had a warrior culture ready to conquer still more people and places, so Spain was perfectly positioned to develop their vast overseas empire.
Rivalry between the European powers produced intense competition for the creation of colonial empires, and fueled the rush to sail out of Europe.

Monetary factors

The need for silver coinage also affected the desire for expanded exploration as silver and gold were spent for trade to the Middle and Far East. The Europeans had a constant deficit in that silver and gold coins only went one way: out of Europe, spent on the very type of trade that they were now cut off from by the Ottomans.

Another issue was that European mines were exhausted of silver ore and gold. What remained was too deep to recover, as water would fill the mine, and technology was not sufficiently advanced enough to successfully remove the water to get to the ore or gold.

A second argument is that trade during the youth of the Commercial Revolution blossomed not due to explorations for bullion (gold and silver coinings) but due to a newfound faith in gold coinage

Italian city-states such as Genoa and Florence (where the first gold coins began to be minted in 1252) and kingdoms such as the Kingdom of Sicily routinely received gold through such trading partners as Tunisia and Senegal.

A new, stable and universally accepted coinage that was both compatible with traditional European coinage systems and serviced the increased demand for currency to facilitate trade made it even more lucrative to carry out trade with the rest of the world.

Technological factors

In 1570 (May 20) Gilles Coppens de Diest at Antwerp published 53 maps created by Abraham Ortelius under the title Theatrum Orbis Terrarum, considered the **"first modern atlas"**. Latin editions, besides Dutch, French and German editions appeared before the end of 1572; the atlas continued to be in demand till about 1612. This is the world map from this atlas.

From the 16th to 18th centuries, Europeans made remarkable maritime innovations. These innovations enabled them to expand overseas and set up colonies, most notably during the 16th and 17th centuries.

They developed new sail arrangements for ships, skeleton-based shipbuilding, the Western **“galea”** (at the end of the 11th century), sophisticated navigational instruments, and detailed charts and maps. After Isaac Newton published the Principia, navigation was transformed, because sailors could predict the motion of the moon and other celestial objects using Newton's theories of motion.

Starting in 1670, the entire world was measured using essentially modern latitude instruments. In 1676, the British Parliament declared that

navigation was the greatest scientific problem of the age and in 1714 offered a substantial financial prize for the solution to finding longitude. This spurred the development of the marine chronometer, the lunar distance method and the invention of the octant after 1730. By the late 18th century, navigators replaced their prior instruments with octants and sextants.

Important people

Significant contributors to European exploration include Prince Henry the Navigator of Portugal, who was the first of the Europeans to venture out into the Atlantic Ocean, in 1420.

Others are Bartolomeu Dias, who first rounded the Cape of Good Hope; Vasco da Gama, who sailed directly to India from Portugal; Ferdinand Magellan, the first to circumnavigate the Earth; Christopher Columbus, who significantly encountered the Americas; Jacques Cartier, who sailed for France, looking for the Northwest Passage; and others.

Key Features

The economy of the Roman Empire had been based on money, but after the Empire's fall, money became scarce; power and wealth became strictly land based, and local fiefs were self-sufficient. Because trade was dangerous and expensive, there were not many traders, and not much trade. The scarcity of money did not help; however, the European economic system had begun to change in the 14th century, partially as a result of the Black Death, and the Crusades.

Banks, stock exchanges, and insurance became ways to manage the risk involved in the renewed trade. New laws came into being.[clarification needed] Travel became safer as nations developed. Economic theories[clarification needed] began to develop in light of all of the new trading activity.

The increase in the availability of money led to the emergence of a new economic system, and new problems to go with it.[clarification needed] The Commercial Revolution is also marked by the formalization of pre-existing, informal methods of dealing with trade and commerce.

Inflation

Spanish gold doubloon stamped as minted in 1798

Spain legally amassed approximately 180 tons of gold and 8200 tons of silver through its endeavors in the New World, and another unknown amount through smuggling, spending this money to finance wars and the arts.

The spent silver, suddenly being spread throughout a previously cash starved Europe, caused widespread inflation.

The inflation was worsened by a growing population but a static production level, low employee salaries and a rising cost of living. This problem, combined with underpopulation (caused by the Black Death), affected the system of agriculture.

The landholding aristocracy suffered under the inflation, since they depended on paying small, fixed wages to peasant tenants that were becoming able to demand higher wages. The aristocracy made failed attempts to counteract this situation by creating short-term leases of their lands to allow periodic revaluation of rent. The manorial system (manor system of lord and peasant tenant) eventually vanished, and the landholding aristocrats were forced to sell pieces of their land in order to maintain their style of living.

Such sales attracted the rich bourgeois (from the French word referring to this dominant class, emerging with commerce), who wanted to buy land and thereby increase their social status. Former "common lands"

were fenced by the landed bourgeois, a process known as "enclosure" which increased the efficiency of raising livestock (mainly sheep's wool for the textile industry). This "enclosure" forced the peasants out of rural areas and into the cities, resulting in urbanization and eventually the industrial revolution.

On the other hand, the increase in the availability of silver coins allowed for commerce to expand in numerous ways. Inflation was not all bad.

Banks

Various legal and religious developments in the late Middle Ages allowed for development of the modern banking system at the beginning of the 16th century. Interest was allowed to be charged, and profits generated from holding other people's money.

Banks in the Italian Peninsula had great difficulty operating at the end of the 14th century, for lack of silver and gold coin.[33] Nevertheless, by the later 16th century, enough bullion was available that many more people could keep a small amount hoarded and used as capital.

In response to this extra available money, northern European banking interests came along; among them was the Fugger family. The Fuggers were originally mine owners, but soon became involved in banking, charging interest, and other financial activities.

They dealt with everyone, from small-time individuals, to the highest nobility. Their banks even loaned to the emperors and kings, eventually going bankrupt when their clients defaulted.

This family, and other individuals, used Italian methods which outpaced the Hanseatic League's ability to keep up with the changes occurring in northern Europe.

Antwerp had one of the first money exchanges in Europe, a Bourse, where people could change currency. After the Siege of Antwerp (1584-1585), the majority of business transactions were moved to Amsterdam.
The Bank of Amsterdam, following the example of a private Stockholm corporation, began issuing paper money to lessen the difficulty of trade, replacing metal (coin and bullion) in exchanges. In 1609 the Amsterdamsche Wisselbank (Amsterdam Exchange Bank) was founded which made Amsterdam the financial center of the world until the Industrial Revolution.
In a notable example of crossover between stock companies and banks, the Bank of England, which opened in 1694, was a joint-stock company.

REASONS OF COMMERCIAL REVOLUTION

A number of factors contributed to the commercial revolution in Europe. **Firstly,** the discovery of the sea routes to both Asia and America provided a great fillip to the expansion of European commerce. The spice trade particularly thrived and the Europeans imported large quantities of cloves, cinnamon or pepper.

They also imported clothes, calicoes, chintzes and ginghams. They also imported a large variety of new products from the new world such as potatoes, maize, tomatoes, sugar, warm furs, cocoa, tobacco, gold, and ivory was also brought to Europe’s economy.

Secondly, the rise of the banking institutions also greatly contributed to the commercial revolution. No doubt private banks existed in various coun-tries of Europe during the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries but their resources proved inadequate to meet the growing needs of the seventeenth century.

Therefore, these private banks were superseded by the public demands chartered by the government. The first such bank was chartered in 1609 and is known as the Bank of Amsterdam. In 1694 Bank of England was chartered.

Thirdly, the government also contributed to the commercial revolution by encouraging the formation of trading companies. The government felt that trading companies would be able to bear the probable losses involved in long distance trade and would be in a better position to secure conces-sions for trade from foreign rulers.

Above all, they felt that they would be able to realize taxes from the companies and there would be very little chance of being defrauded.

The commercial practices also underwent a great change during this period and they fundamentally differed from the practices existing in the medieval age. The new commercial practice was characterized by three distinct features, viz.. expansion, specialization and integration.

Expansion means that the market for the commodities greatly expanded. It was not confined to local, provincial or even national level but even covered inter-national trade. Trade grew between different countries of Europe and later on even with different corners of the globe. In other words, the commercial markets greatly expanded.

In contrast with the practice prevailing in the medieval age when indus-trial and commercial functions were combined, these two functions were separated, and a special class of merchants, exclusively devoted to busi-ness, made its appearance.

The percentage of the total population en-gaged in commercial activities also steadily increased. Certain new classes of commercial functionaries like brokers, commission agents, and commercial travelers also made appearances. These classes devoted themselves to some particular branch of commercial activity.

The practice of integration was another feature of commercial revolu-tion. The practice was a reaction against excessive specialization and once again led to reunion of the economic functions.

This practice manifested itself in the form of establishment of large shops, invasion in the field of production by the mercantile firms, and greater share of the manufactur-ers in the marketing of their goods.

Important Results of Commercial Revolution

- An important element of the Commercial Revolution was the growth of banking. Because of the strong religious disapproval of usury, banking was not a respectable business in the Middle Ages.
- But by the fourteenth century lending money for profit became an established business practice. The real founders of banking institutions were the great commercial houses of Italian cities. By the fifteenth century, the banking business had spread to southern Germany and France.

- ➔ The rise of private financial houses was followed by the establishment of government banks. The first was the Bank of Sweden (1657). The Bank of England was founded in 1694.
- ➔ New industries like mining and smelting had sprung up and these enterprises were stimulated by technical advances. There was also a change in business organization.
- ➔ Regulated companies came to be formed. The regulated company was an association of merchants for a common venture. A leading example of this type was an English company known as the Merchant Adventurers established for the purpose of trade with the Netherlands and Germany.
- ➔ The system of manufacture developed by the craft guilds in the later Middle Ages became defunct. In the seventeenth century the regulated company was superseded by a new type of organization called the joint-stock company.
- ➔ Joint stock company with limited liability was a Dutch innovation that made large scale investment possible by spreading out the risks (and profits) across large numbers of people.
- ➔ In later stages, the Commercial Revolution was accompanied by the adoption of a new set of doctrines and practices known as mercantilism.
- ➔ **Mercantilism** is a system of government intervention to promote national prosperity and increase the power of the state. The purpose of intervention was not merely to expand the volume of manufacturing and trade, but also to bring more money into the treasury of the state.
- ➔ Other significant results of the Commercial Revolution were the rise of the middle class to economic power. The middle class ranks included merchants, bankers, ship owners, principal investors and industrial entrepreneurs. Their rise to power was the result of

increasing wealth and their support to the king against the feudal aristocracy.

- ➔ The most negative result of the Commercial Revolution was the revival of slavery. Slavery had virtually disappeared from European society by the end of the first millennium.
- ➔ But the development of mining and plantation farming in the Spanish, Portuguese and English colonies led to the recruitment of slaves as unskilled labourers.
- ➔ The attempt to enslave native Americans ended in failure, as they proved too tough to manage.
- ➔ The problem was solved by importing Africans. This transatalantic slave trade that exported more than 11 million Africans to the Americas is a sordid story that is a shame on the making of the modern world.
- ➔ **Finally, the Commercial Revolution** prepared the way for the Industrial Revolution. By creating a class of capitalists and pursuing the mercantilist policy, stimulus was provided to the growth of manufactures. The outstanding example of factory production was the manufacture of cotton textiles.

MODULE 5

RISE OF CAPITALISM

The history of capitalism is diverse. The concept of capitalism has many debated roots, but fully fledged capitalism is generally thought by scholars to have emerged in Northwestern Europe, especially in Great Britain and the Netherlands.

Over the following centuries, capital accumulated by a variety of methods, at a variety of scales, and became associated with much variation in the concentration of wealth and economic power.

Capitalism gradually became the dominant economic system throughout the world Much of the history of the past 500 years is concerned with the development of capitalism in its various forms.

The processes by which capitalism emerged, evolved, and spread are the subject of extensive research and debate among historians. Debates sometimes focus on how to bring substantive historical data to bear on key questions. Key parameters of debate include: the extent to which capitalism is a natural human behavior, versus the extent to which it arises from specific historical circumstances; whether its origins lie in towns and

trade or in rural property relations; the role of class conflict; the role of the state; the extent to which capitalism is a distinctively European innovation; its relationship with European imperialism; whether technological change is a driver or merely a secondary byproduct of capitalism; and whether or not it is the most beneficial way to organize human societies.

The historiography of capitalism can be divided into two broad schools.[citation needed] One is associated with economic liberalism, with the 18th-century economist Adam Smith as a foundational figure. The other is associated with Marxism, drawing particular inspiration from the 19th-century economist Karl Marx.

Liberals view capitalism as an expression of natural human behaviors that have been in evidence for millennia and the most beneficial way of promoting human well-being.[citation needed] They see capitalism as originating in trade and commerce, and freeing people to exercise their entrepreneurial natures.

Marxists view capitalism as a unique mode of production involving the bourgeoisie and proletariat that emerged as a result of the fall of feudalism and the beginning of the Industrial Revolution. This rejects the notion that capitalism has existed for millennia and is a part of human nature.

Origins

The origins of capitalism have been much debated (and depend partly on how capitalism is defined). The traditional account, originating in classical

18th-century liberal economic thought and still often articulated, is the **'commercialisation model'.**

This sees capitalism originating in trade. In this reading, capitalism emerged from earlier trade once merchants had acquired sufficient wealth (referred to as 'primitive capital') to begin investing in increasingly productive technology.
This account tends to see capitalism as a continuation of trade, arising when people's natural entrepreneurialism was freed from the constraints of feudalism, partly by urbanization. Thus it traces capitalism to early forms of merchant capitalism practiced in Western Europe during the Middle Ages

Agrarian capitalism

Crisis of the 14th century

According to some historians, the modern capitalist system originated in the **"crisis of the Late Middle Ages"**, a conflict between the land-owning aristocracy and the agricultural producers, or serfs.

Manorial arrangements inhibited the development of capitalism in a number of ways. Serfs had obligations to produce for lords and therefore had no interest in technological innovation; they also had no interest in cooperating with one another because they produced to sustain their own families.
The lords who owned the land relied on force to guarantee that they received sufficient food. Because lords were not producing to sell on the

market, there was no competitive pressure for them to innovate. Finally, because lords expanded their power and wealth through military means, they spent their wealth on military equipment or on conspicuous consumption that helped foster alliances with other lords; they had no incentive to invest in developing new productive technologies.

The demographic crisis of the 14th century upset this arrangement. This crisis had several causes: agricultural productivity reached its technological limitations and stopped growing, bad weather led to the Great Famine of 1315–1317, and the Black Death of 1348–1350 led to a population crash.

These factors led to a decline in agricultural production. In response, feudal lords sought to expand agricultural production by extending their domains through warfare; therefore they demanded more tribute from their serfs to pay for military expenses.

In England, many serfs rebelled. Some moved to towns, some bought land, and some entered into favorable contracts to rent lands from lords who needed to repopulate their estates.

The collapse of the manorial system in England enlarged the class of tenant farmers with more freedom to market their goods and thus more incentive to invest in new technologies.

Lords who did not want to rely on renters could buy out or evict tenant farmers, but then had to hire free labor to work their estates, giving them an incentive to invest in two kinds of commodity owners.

One kind was those who had money, the means of production, and subsistence, who were eager to value the sum of value they had appropriated by buying the labor power of others. The other kind was free workers, who sold their own labor. The workers neither formed part of the means of production nor owned the means of production that

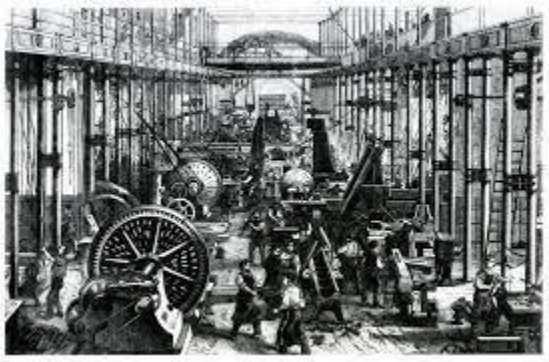
transformed land and even money into what we now call "capital". Marx labeled this period the "pre-history of capitalism".

In effect, feudalism began to lay some of the foundations necessary for the development of mercantilism, a precursor of capitalism. Feudalism lasted from the medieval period through the 16th century. Feudal manors were almost entirely self-sufficient, and therefore limited the role of the market. This stifled any incipient tendency towards capitalism.

However, the relatively sudden emergence of new technologies and discoveries, particularly in agriculture and exploration, facilitated the growth of capitalism. The most important development at the end of feudalism was the emergence of what Robert Degan calls "the dichotomy between wage earners and capitalist merchants".

The competitive nature meant there are always winners and losers, and this became clear as feudalism evolved into mercantilism, an economic system characterized by the private or corporate ownership of capital goods, investments determined by private decisions, and by prices, production, and the distribution of goods determined mainly by competition in a free market

Industrial capitalism



Mercantilism declined in Great Britain in the mid-18th century, when a new group of economic theorists, led by Adam Smith, challenged fundamental mercantilist doctrines, such as that the world's wealth remained constant and that a state could only increase its wealth at the expense of another state.
However, mercantilism continued in less developed economies, such as Prussia and Russia, with their much younger manufacturing bases.

The mid-18th century gave rise to industrial capitalism, made possible by

(1) the accumulation of vast amounts of capital under the merchant phase of capitalism and its investment in machinery, and

(2.)the fact that the enclosures meant that Britain had a large population of people with no access to subsistence agriculture, who needed to buy basic commodities via the market, ensuring a mass consumer market.

Industrial capitalism, which Marx dated from the last third of the 18th century, marked the development of the factory system of manufacturing, characterized by a complex division of labor between and within work processes and the routinization of work tasks. Industrial capitalism finally established the global domination of the capitalist mode of production.

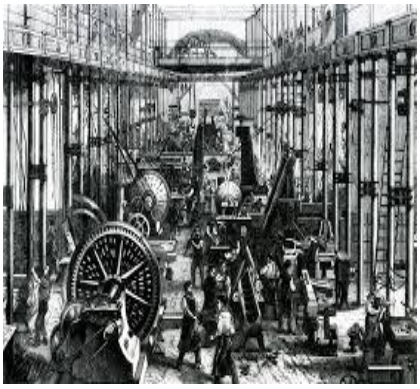
During the resulting Industrial Revolution, the industrialist replaced the merchant as a dominant actor in the capitalist system, which led to the decline of the traditional handicraft skills of artisans, guilds, and journeymen.

Also during this period, capitalism transformed relations between the British landowning gentry and peasants, giving rise to the production of cash crops for the market rather than for subsistence on a feudal manor. The surplus generated by the rise of commercial agriculture encouraged increased mechanization of agriculture.

MODULE 6

INDUSTRIAL & AGRARIAN REVOLUTION

INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION



It refers to the changes brought about by transformation in the method of production from man-made to machine made.

A new era in the history of mankind began when the newly invented machines began to produce consumer goods in abundance. These changes were first witnessed in Britain around the middle of the eighteenth century.

Inventions which led to Industrial revolution

There were hundreds of inventions during this period.

Below are a few of the most important.

Spinning Jenny

James Hargreaves developed the spinning jenny in 1764. This machine allowed workers to spin more wool at one time greatly increasing productivity. This invention was necessary for the industrialization of the textile industry.

Steam Engine

James Watt created the first truly reliable steam engine in 1775. Other, less efficient models had been developed in the 1600s. Watt's version included a crankshaft and gears and is the foundation for modern steam engines. This invention made locomotives and many of the textile machines possible.

Use of coke to produce iron

In the old days iron ore was smelted in brick furnaces in which charcoal was used as fuel. But, the iron produced was brittle. The new method in which coke was used was laborious and costly. Finally Henry Bessemer discovered a faster and cheaper method of producing steel in 1856.

Power Loom

Edmund Cartwright invented the power loom in 1785. It dramatically changed the way cloth was woven by making it much easier. It would take almost another fifty years and several alterations by other inventors before it would become commonly used.

Cotton Gin

Eli Whitney patented the cotton gin (short for cotton engine) in 1794. Prior to the invention of the cotton gin, cotton seeds had to be removed from the cotton fiber by hand. This invention made cotton a much more profitable crop for farmers. With this invention, many more farmers turned to cotton as their main crop, greatly increasing the amount of cotton plantations in the South. These expanding farms needed cheap labour, which also resulted in an increased use of African slaves.

Telegraph

Samuel F. B. Morse invented the telegraph in 1836. This invention changed the face of communication. Instant communication became possible between the east and west coasts and allowed people to know what was happening almost as it happened. This would revolutionize media and personal communication.

Sewing Machine

Elias Howe invented the sewing machine in 1844. This forever changed the way clothes were made and allowed the mass production of clothing. Before this it was most common for women to make all of the clothes for their families. Only the very wealthy could afford to have a tailor or seamstress make custom clothing of the latest fashion. It was later improved upon and patented by Isaac Singer in 1855.

Internal Combustion Engine

Jean Lenoir invented the internal combustion engine in 1858. Eventually this engine was used in mass transportation.

Telephone

Alexander Graham Bell created the telephone in 1876. The telephone further improved communications and eventually led to the various communications devices used today.

Phonograph

Thomas Edison created the phonograph in 1877. Prior to the creation of the phonograph the only option for entertainment was for live musicians or actors to perform. This allowed people to listen to music anywhere.

Airplane

Brothers Orville and Wilbur Wright created the first airplane in 1903. The ability to fly had long been a dream of the human race. Within a few decades planes had changed the face of personal and business travel and had dramatically altered warfare.

Why did Britain become the first nation to witness the industrial revolution?

1. The Glorious Revolution

• The Glorious Revolution was when William of Orange took the English throne from James II in 1688. The event brought a permanent realignment of power within the English constitution.

• The new co-monarchy of King William III and Queen Mary II accepted more constraints from Parliament than previous monarchs had, and the new constitution created the expectation that future monarchs would also remain constrained by Parliament.

• The new balance of power between parliament and crown made the promises of the English government more credible, and credibility allowed the government to reorganize its finances through a collection of changes called the Financial Revolution.

• The fiscal credibility of the English government created by the Glorious **Revolution unleashed**

a revolution in public finance. The most prominent element was the introduction of long-run borrowing by the government, because such borrowing absolutely relied on the government's

fiscal credibility

• The stable political situation in Britain from around 1688 (after the Glorious Revolution), andBritish society's greater receptiveness to change (when compared with other European countries).

The Agricultural Revolution

• The improved yield of the agricultural sector can be attributed to the enclosure movement and to improved techniques and practices developed during this period.

• The improved yields also increased the amount of food available to sustain livestock through the winter. This increased the size of herds for meat and allowed farmers to begin with larger herds than they had previously.

• Advances in agriculture included the use of sturdier farm implements fashioned from metal, control of insects, improved irrigation and farming methods, developing new crops and the use of horsepower in the fields to replace oxen as a source of power.

• These changes which have occurred in agriculture made it possible to feed all of the people that were attracted to the industrial centers as factory workers. By providing enough food to sustain an adequate workforce, England was preparing the way for expansion of the economy
and industry.

Population Growth and British Empire

• The upshot of Britain's success in the global economy was the expansion of rural manufacturing industries and rapid urbanization. East Anglia was the center of the woolen cloth industry, and its products were exported through London where a quarter of the jobs depended on the port. As a result, the population of London exploded from 50,000 in 1500 to 200,000 in 1600 and half a million in 1700.

• In the eighteenth century, the expansion of trade with the American colonies and India doubled London's population again and led to even more rapid growth in provincial and Scottish cities.

• Growing population resulted in more people from the countryside being freed up to work for wages in the new cities, — and eventually increased demand for products such as clothing.

Financial Innovations

• Financial institutions such as central banks, stock markets, and joint stock companies encouraged people to take risks with investments, trade, and new technologies.

The Enlightenment and the Scientific Revolution

• It encouraged scholars and craftspeople to apply new scientific thinking to mechanical and technological challenges. In the centuries before the Industrial Revolution, Europeans gradually incorporated science and reason into their world view. These intellectual shifts
made English culture highly receptive to new mechanical and financial ideas.

Navigable Rivers and Canals

• Rivers and Canal in Great Britain quickened the pace and cheapened the cost of transportation of raw materials and finished products. Adam Smith, the first modern economist, believed this was a key reason for England's early success.

Coal and Iron

• Coal and Iron deposits were plentiful in Great Britain and proved essential to the development of all new machines made of iron or steel and powered by coal—such as the steam-powered machinery in textile factories, and the locomotive. On the coal fields, Britain had the cheapest energy in the world.

Government Policies

• Government policies in England toward property and commerce encouraged innovation and the spread of global trade.

• The government created patent laws that allowed inventors to benefit financially from the "**intellectual property**" of their inventions.

• The British government also encouraged global trade by expanding the Navy to protect trade and granting monopolies or other financial incentives to companies so they could explore the world to find resources.

World Trade

• World trade gradually increased in the centuries before the Industrial Revolution and provided

European countries have access to raw materials and a market for goods. It also increased wealth that could then be loaned by banks to finance more industrial expansion in an upward spiral of economic growth.

• The greater liberalization of trade from a large merchant base allowed Britain to produce and utilize emerging scientific and technological developments more effectively than European countries with stronger monarchies.

• The success of R&D programs in "eighteenth century Britain" depended on the high wage economy. In the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries, the growth of a manufacturing, commercial economy increased the demand for literacy, numeracy and trade skills. These were acquired through privately purchased education and apprenticeships.

• The high wage economy not only created a demand for these skills, but also gave parents the income to purchase them. As a result, the British population was highly skilled, and those skills were necessary for the high-tech revolution to unfold.

• High wages and cheap energy of the British economy caused many famous invention of the

Industrial Revolution. These inventions also substituted capital and energy for labor

The Cottage Industry

• It served as a transition from a rural to an industrial economy. Like the later industrial factories, the cottage industry relied on wage labor, cloth production, tools and rudimentary machines, and a market to buy and sell raw materials (cotton) and finished products (clothes).

• The damp, mild weather conditions of the North West of England provided ideal conditions for the spinning of cotton, providing a natural starting point for the birth of the textiles industry.

. Societal and Geographical Factors

- ➔ • In large part due to the Enclosure movement, the peasantry was destroyed as a significant source of resistance to industrialization, and the landed upper classes developed commercial interests that made them pioneers in removing obstacles to the growth of capitalism. England had relatively secure property rights
- ➔ • Unlike Germany or Italy, England was not politically fragmented. Also, England was one of the earliest in abolishing slavery which had positive social and economic impact.
- ➔ • The island geography (an island separated from the rest of mainland Europe) also provided favorable protection from predation on a national scale. Since it was away from the European continent, it did not indulge in useless war on the European continent which gave it relative political and economic stability.
- ➔ • Any conflict resulted in most British warfare being conducted overseas, reducing the
- ➔ devastating effects of territorial conquest that affected much of Europe.

Napoleonic Wars

• Blockade by Napoleon against British trade and any British import pushed Britain for further innovation to be self-reliant.

• Britain emerged from the Napoleonic Wars as the only European nation not ravaged by financial plunder and economic collapse, and possessing the only merchant fleet of any useful size (European merchant fleets having been destroyed during the war by the Royal Navy)

Protestant Work Ethics:

• British advance was also due to the presence of an entrepreneurial class which believed in

progress, technology and hard work. The existence of this class is often linked to the Protestant work ethic and the status of dissenting Protestant Sects.

Features of British Industrial revolution

- It was guided by **capitalism.**
- Factories were privately owned and profit generation was the main motive.
- Factory-system; factory based production was an important feature of the revolution. Traditionally production was carried out within the bounds of home
- Mass production of goods.
- The doctrine of Laissez Faire guided the revolution. Market forces of demand and supply guided the production of goods.
- Role of the state was that of a just facilitator.
- Indigenous innovation powered the industrial revolution in Britain.
- The British manufacturers were very conscious about the quality of their product. They made sure their product was of superior quality.
- The whole process of industrialization of Britain took 150 long years.
- .Over-emphasis on the motive of profit generation led to the exploitation of the working class. They received extremely low wages, lived in inhuman conditions and worked in unsafe environments.
- It was the production of consumer goods that fuelled the revolution.
- Textile sector was the most dominant during the industrialization of the British economy.

Social impact of Industrial revolution

• **Rapid increase in population density and related problems**: Rapid growth of population in England and other parts of Europe. There was a decline in mortality rate due to advances in medical sciences.

• **Urbanization and unemployment**: Agriculture was unable to absorb the unemployed. So,urbanization happened due to push factors. families migrated from rural areas to industrial areas in search of employment.

With the constant flow of population from the rural parts, old cities like Glasgow and Bristol grew enormous in size and population. Some new towns like Manchester, Liverpool etc became thickly populated.

• **Decline of Agriculture and village handicraft.**

- ➢ In place of tenant-farmers, rich landlords became powerful.
- ➢ The tenant farmers flocked to cities in search of jobs.

• **Emergence of the working class.** Conditions of working class:

- ➢ Miserable living conditions of the workers.
- ➢ Long working hours and unsafe working environment.

Impact on women:

Gender roles underwent a change as women were employed by the mill owners at low wages.Although women workers faced many difficulties, they stepped out of home and got exposed to jobs and education.

Loss of livelihood in villages and low wages in the cities gave rise to problems like forced prostitution.

• **Child labour became rampant.**

Due to the lack of sanitation facilities and unsafe working conditions young children often feel sick and die.

When both parents were working, young children became prone to become delinquents.

• **Diseases spread**

There were frequent bouts of spread of infectious diseases.

ENTRI

Economic impact

• As economic activities in many communities moved from agriculture to manufacturing, production shifted from its traditional locations in the home and the small workshop to factories.

• Large portions of the population relocated from the countryside to the towns and cities where manufacturing centers were found.

• The overall amount of goods and services produced expanded dramatically, and the proportion of capital invested per worker grew.

• New groups of investors, businesspeople, and managers took financial risks and reaped great rewards.

Consumer Demand

• The existing system could not keep up with the demand of goods

• More consumers had sufficient income to afford exotic goods such as cotton cloth and china

• These were the rising **"middle class"**

• Traders realized that if they could produce goods in greater quantity at a cheaper price, they
could find more consumers and make a higher profit.

Multiplier Effect

➔ • Refers to the cycle of consumer demand, investment and innovations that drove the Industrial Revolution

➔ • Cycle works as follows: increased consumer demand prompts entrepreneurs to invest in machines to speed up production, and thereby increase profit

➔ • Faster production in one area of manufacturing prompts investment in another area.

➔ Example: Faster methods of spinning cotton requires faster methods of weaving cloth

- ➔ • Profit from increase production used to invest further innovations and inventions
- ➔ • Multiplier effect caused Industrial Revolution to gather momentum and prompt new technologies
- ➔ • The cotton industry becomes the largest single employer of industrial labor, and cotton cloth
- ➔ became the most valued commodity in Britain's export trade.
- ➔ • In the realm of technical innovations and in the number of people employed, the combination
- ➔ coal, iron, and steam had an even greater multiplier effect than the cotton industry.
- ➔ • Impact would become visible in the 1830s and 1840s with the introduction of steam locomotion and the boom in railroad construction.

New Political Forces:

- ❖ **Middle Class** — They were created by the wealth of industrialization.
- ❖ • Stuck in a new position in the middle of society, they were hostile both to the aristocracy and to the lower classes.
- ❖ • They were angered by their political exclusion from power in a system that still favored
- ❖ aristocrats — they felt they had the wealth and education to deserve a political voice.
- ❖ • They also had contempt for the lower classes, particularly the growing mass of urban poor. In their lifestyles and political positions, they tried to separate themselves from this uneducated and politically powerless herd, with whom they had less and less culturally in common (and who often worked for them in their factories).
- ❖

- • They believed a "rising tide lifts all boats" — that the prosperity that industrialization and
- free, unhampered trade would ultimately improve the lot of everyone.
- • The **bourgeoisie,** whose money often came from industrialization, were some of the biggest champions of these positions.
- **Liberalism** — A political position that meant something entirely different in the 19th century than it does today.
- • It grew out of Enlightenment and American and Early French Revolution ideals, as summed up in Declaration of Independence (1776) and Declaration of the Rights of Man and Citizen (1789).
- • It was also encouraged by industrial growth; middle-class industrialists were also often 19th century liberals.
- • Liberals favored freedom of trade in the manner described by Adam Smith; they were against both government tariffs and monopolies and other mercantilist practices, and the guilds and price-and-wage restrictions favored by traditional rural workers.
- • Liberals also promoted religious tolerance, wanted reform of the political process but not full-scale democracy, sought a government ultimately answerable to elected representative institutions rather than a monarch (but not necessarily the abolition of monarchy altogether), and supported investment in infrastructure, especially the building
- of railroads.
- **Nationalism —** 19th century nationalism as a political force came out of opposition to the
- Congress of Vienna, whose policies tended to support traditional dynasties over the ethnically diverse groups within their regions.

Political and Geo-political impact

- ➔ • The land-owning class (aristocrats) was replaced by the industrial class (capitalists) as the leaders of governments.
- ➔ • A **laissez-faire** policy took the place of mercantilism. Laissez-faire meant free trade without interference from the government. or the

government policy of controlling overseas markets, meant that nations were strengthened by government control of its economic interests.

- ➔ • The right to vote for both men and women was expanded.
- ➔ • The industrialized or developed countries quickly became the strongest powers of the world. Countries were either thought of as developed or underdeveloped.
- ➔ • By the end of the 19th century, the United States replaced Great Britain as the leading industrial nation in the world. In the 20th century, the Industrial Revolution would spread to almost every part of the world.
- ➔ • New types of economic systems developed. For example, capitalism expanded in the United States; socialism in Great Britain and France; and communism in the Soviet Union.
- ➔ • As the Industrial Revolution expanded, industrial nations sought new markets for their goods in other parts of the world.
- ➔ • Capitalist nations became imperialist nations, extending their rule over other countries or territories, causing problems which led directly to World War I.
- ➔ • The revolution created technologically superior states and encouraged a sense of nationalism / nationalist ambitions.
- ➔ • For instance, steamships and advanced weaponry (like the Maxim Gun) allowed British- and other European imperialists to navigate Africa's interior rivers and thereby start conquering Africa in the 19th century—whereas previously they had been unable to do so.
- ➔ • It helped the British to create resources and weaponry to colonize India.

Impact on India:

The industrial revolution in Britain led to the rise of a powerful class of manufacturers that were from here on going to influence the British policies in a big way. They urged the British government to do away with the monopoly of the company in trade with India and hence, finally succeeded in 1813 in abolishing its monopoly over trade with the Charter act of 1813.

This marked the beginning of a new phase in Britain's economic relations with India, with the government now following the policy of free trade or unrestricted entry of British goods into the Indian market. This led to

• **De-industrialisation:** Ruin of Artisans and Handicraftsmen: Cheap machine-made goods flooded the Indian markets and the Indian goods found it more and more difficult to penetrate the European markets.

The loss of traditional means of livelihood was not accompanied by a process of industrialisation. This happened at a time when artisans were already feeling the crunch due to loss of patronage by princes and nobility, who now developed western tastes.

• **Ruralisation of India:** de-industrialisation led to decline of many cities and hence,ruralisation of India with many artisans returning back to villages and taking up agriculture.

Overburdening of agriculture and impoverishment of peasantry:

The peasants already suffering under landlord-moneylender nexus, saw increased pressure on land with ruralisation and deindustrialisation. India became a net importer.

• **Commercialisation of Agriculture**: So far, agriculture was a way of life but now it began to be influenced by commercial considerations. Certain

specialized crops began to be grown not for the purpose of consumption but for sale in national and international markets as raw material for industries.

• **Development of industry and Lopsided industrial development:** in the second half of 19th century modern machine based industries were set up in India. This period also saw a rush of foreign capital into India.

The industrial development was characterized by a lopsided pattern when core and heavy industries were ignored and some regions were favored more than the others.

• **Rise of Indian bourgeoisie:** Indian traders, moneylenders and bankers amassed some wealth as junior partners of British capitalists in India. These further provided loans toIndian agriculturists and aided British revenue collection.

• **Economic drain:** A portion of the national product of India was not available for consumption ofIndian people but was being drained away to Britain for political reasons and India was not getting returns for it.

The major components of drain among others were profits on foreign investment in India, banking and insurance services, payments to be made for shipping, interests on loans, pensions of civil and military officials, etc

AGRARIAN REVOLUTION

The Agrarian Revolution is the term given to the transformation in agriculture in England during the Georgian period. Though the roots of the revolution go back as far as the late medieval period, it was not until the 18th century that these transformations really accelerated and began to drastically change the way people lived and, at the same time, changed the English landscape forever.

One of the prime changes brought on by the agrarian revolution was enclosure, the act by which large tracts of land were fenced in. In the Middle Ages, most land was farmed by individual farmers who each had a strip of a large, open field. Because the land was used 'in common', changing land use was not easily implemented, and changes in farming practice were slow to be implemented.

Between 1730 and 1820 there were an astonishing total of over 3500 individual acts of Parliament authorizing enclosure of agricultural land. This resulted in almost all of the Midlands and the north being enclosed.

Though often this enclosure created hardship for peasant farmers, the landowners were able to implement new farming practices such as regulated stock breeding, controlled crop rotation, and more efficient production on marginal farmland.

The social cost of these changes was immense, as many poor farm laborers were rendered redundant, poor farmers lost their land, and the rural working classes were often forced to move to industrial urban areas to find work.

Some of the changes brought on by the Agrarian Revolution involved planting crops (particularly clover and turnips) to provide food for overwintering animals. Equally important was the introduction of new farm machinery, such as the wheeled seed drill, which mechanized the traditional practice of scattering seeds by hand.

Another innovation was the horse hoe, a tool to eradicate weeds between rows of crops. Iron tools replaced earlier wooden ones - the iron plough was a big advance on the wooden plough and was so much more efficient that it could be drawn by horses instead of oxen.

Influential 'Gentlemen Farmers' such as Coke of Holkham Hall (Norfolk) and Viscount Townshend made agricultural experimentation a fashionable pastime.

Under the reign of George III, who was passionately enthusiastic about agricultural reform, scientific research stations were set up and agricultural reports were regularly produced on a county by county basis.

The pace of reform accelerated during the Napoleonic Wars, when Britain was forced to get by without imports from Europe. As a result, wide areas of land were farmed for the first time. This led to higher yields and enabled Britain to more easily feed a growing population.

- **The Agricultural Revolution** was the unprecedented increase in agricultural production in Britain due to increases in labor and land productivity between the mid-17th and late 19th centuries.
- However, historians continue to dispute whether the developments leading to the unprecedented agricultural growth can be seen as "a revolution," since the growth was, in fact, a result of a series of significant changes that took place over a long period of time.
- One of the most important innovations of the Agricultural Revolution was the development of the **Norfolk four-course rotation,** which greatly increased crop and livestock yields by improving soil fertility and reducing fallow.
- **Crop rotation** is the practice of growing a series of dissimilar types of crops in the same area in sequential seasons to help restore plant nutrients and mitigate the build-up of pathogens and pests that often occurs when one plant species is continuously cropped.

- Following a two-field crop rotation system common in the Middle Ages and a three-year three field crop rotation routine employed later, the regular planting of legumes such as peas and beans in the fields that were previously fallow became central and slowly restored the fertility of some croplands. In the end, it was the farmers in Flanders (in parts of France and current day Belgium) that discovered a still more effective four-field crop rotation system, using turnips and clover (a legume) as forage crops to replace the three-year crop rotation fallow year.
- **The four-field rotation system** allowed farmers to restore soil fertility and restore some of the plant nutrients removed with the crops. Turnips first show up in the probate records in England as early as 1638 but were not widely used until about 1750.
- Fallow land was about 20% of the arable area in England in 1700 before turnips and clover were extensively grown. Guano and nitrates from South America were introduced in the mid-19th century and fallow steadily declined to reach only about 4% in 1900.
- In the mid-18th century, two British agriculturalists, Robert Bakewell and Thomas Coke, introduced selective breeding as a scientific practice and used inbreeding to stabilize certain qualities in order to reduce genetic diversity. Bakewell was also the first to breed cattle to be used primarily for beef.
- Certain practices that contributed to a more productive use of land intensified, such as converting some pasture land into arable land and recovering fen land and pastures.

- Other developments came from Flanders and the Netherlands, the region that became a pioneer in canal building, soil restoration and maintenance, soil drainage, and land reclamation technology.
- Finally, water-meadows were utilized in the late 16th to the 20th centuries and allowed earlier pasturing of livestock after they were wintered on hay.