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KRISHNA KANTA HANDIQUI STATE OPEN UNIVERSITY

Patgaon, Rani Gate, Guwahati-781017

SEMESTER 1

MA IN ENGLISH

COURSE I: ENGLISH SOCIAL AND CULTURAL HISTORY

SECTION 1: ENGLISH SOCIAL HISTORY

BLOCK 2: ENLIGTENMENT TO IMPERIALSIM

CONTENTS

Unit 5: Enlightenment I

Unit 6: Enlightenment II

Unit 7: Industrialism and Its Impact

Unit 8: Imperialism and Colonialism

REFERENCES : For All Units

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SEMESTER 1

MA IN ENGLISH

COURSE I: ENGLISH SOCIAL AND CULTURAL HISTORY

SECTION 1: ENGLISH SOCIAL HISTORY

BLOCK 2: ENLIGHTENMENT TO IMPERIALISM

DETAILED SYLLABUS

Unit 5 : Enlightenment I **Page 75 - 91**

Ideas of the Enlightenment, Age of Reason, Early Enlightenment Thinkers: Francis Bacon, Rene Descartes, Baruch Spinoza, Voltaire, Montesquieu, John Locke, George Berkeley, English Empiricism, Rationalism

Unit 6 : Enlightenment II **Page 92 - 108**

Aftermath of the Enlightenment, Rise of Democracy: Medieval Developments, The Magna Carta, Role of Church & the State of Learning, Democracy in the 16th and 17th Century, Developments from 18th to 20th Centuries

Unit 7 : Industrialism and Its Impact **Page 109 - 125**

Understanding Industrialism, Industrial Revolution in England, The Rise of the Working Class, Industrial Revolution and its aftermath

Unit 8 : Colonialism and Imperialism **Page 126 - 144**

Ideas of Colonialism and Nationalism, Trade and Conflict, Idea of the Empire: The First British Empire, The Second British Empire, Other Four Phases of the British Empire, Imperialism and Expansion

BLOCK INTRODUCTION

This is the second Block of Course I of the MA English Programme. In this Block, learners will be introduced to concepts and areas like Enlightenment, Industrialism, Imperialism and Colonialism. After completing this Block, learners will be able to see how the Enlightenment finally led to social and economic changes like English Industrialism that further accelerated the process of English Maritime adventures finally leading to Imperialism and Colonialism. The learners are supposed to examine how such developments directly affected the emergence of literature from the 17th to the 20th century.

Block 2: Enlightenment to Imperialism contains four units, which are as the following:

Unit 5: Enlightenment I deals with meaning of the term Enlightenment often applied to the literary, cultural and philosophical movements that took place in Europe roughly between 1660 and 1770. However, some ideas of the Enlightenment can be traced in the time of the Renaissance. Emerging through an unprecedented engagement with the idea of 'Reason', the Enlightenment took in different areas in its intellectual ambit like art, religion, philosophy, literature, language, and political theory.

Unit 6: Enlightenment II deals with the developments following the Enlightenment with particular emphasis on the rise of modern democracy. However, the idea of modern democracy is closely linked to the idea of a nation, which shares history with colonialism. This unit shall help you to explain how 'modern democracy' evolved in Western European history starting from the Magna Carta, to the idea of 'modernity', in the 18th century Europe. Thus, this unit intends to help you to examine how changes brought mainly by the downfall of the earlier feudal order, affected English 'literary' traditions and history.

Unit 7: Industrialism and Its Impact deals with the concept of Industrialism, a phenomenon that contributed immensely to the making of the modern world from the 18th to 19th centuries. This unit shall help you to discuss the Industrial revolution and its inception and influence in a different perspective, which shall further help you to learn about man's march towards modernisation.

Unit 8: Colonialism and Imperialism deals with ideas of Colonialism and Imperialism. You will learn how, gradually, colonialism started to acquire a cultural dimension because European colonial presence was justified on the ground of its 'superiority' to the native culture, and colonial administration as well as education was substituted in place of native culture in the name of development and modernisation. As you finish reading this unit, you will be adequately informed about how British Colonialism was projected as a mechanism to consolidate the foundation of human civilization in the rest of the world, which finally resulted in Imperialism.

While going through a unit, you may also notice some text boxes, which have been included to help you know some of the difficult terms and concepts. You will also read about some relevant ideas and concepts in “LET US KNOW” along with the text. We have kept “CHECK YOUR PROGRESS” questions in each unit. These have been designed to self-check your progress of study. The hints for the answers to these questions are given at the end of the unit. We advise that you answer the questions immediately after you finish reading the section in which these questions occur. We have also included a few books in the “FURTHER READING” list, which will be helpful for your further consultation. The books referred to in the preparation of the units have been added at the end of the block. As you know, the world of literature is too big and so we advise you not to take a unit to be an end in itself. Despite our attempts to make a unit self-contained, we advise that you should read the original texts of the writers as well as other additional materials for a thorough understanding of the contents of a particular unit.

UNIT 5: ENLIGHTENMENT I

UNIT STRUCTURE

5.1 Learning Objectives

5.2 Introduction

5.3 Ideas of the Enlightenment

5.4 Early Enlightenment Thinkers

5.5 English Empiricism

5.6 Rationalism

5.7 Let us Sum up

5.8 Further Reading

5.9 Answers to Check Your Progress (Hints Only)

5.10 Possible Questions

5.1 LEARNING OBJECTIVES

After going through this unit, you will be able to:

- define the term Enlightenment
- name the early thinkers of Enlightenment
- discuss the main ideas of Empiricism and Rationalism
- note down the occurrences following the Enlightenment
- trace the history and rise of modern Democracy

5.2 INTRODUCTION

This is the first unit of Block B of this Course. In this unit, we shall discuss the Enlightenment—a term applied to a literary, cultural and philosophical movement that took place in Europe roughly between 1660 and 1770. However, some ideas of the Enlightenment can be actually traced in the time of the Renaissance. The movement claimed the allegiance of a majority of thinkers during the 17th and 18th centuries. Soon, you will learn that to understand the natural world and humankind's place in it, solely based on reason, without turning to religious belief, was the goal of the wide-ranging intellectual movement called the Enlightenment. Emerging

through an unprecedented engagement with the idea of 'Reason', the Enlightenment took in different areas in its intellectual ambit like art, religion, philosophy, literature, language, and political theory. This unit intends to discuss the idea of the Enlightenment, and refer to the works of various thinkers whose contributions had far-reaching effects and influences in the time that followed.

5.3 IDEAS OF THE ENLIGHTENMENT

The ideas of the Enlightenment emanated from France, and soon its impact was felt in different parts of Europe. In France, it was based in the salons and culminated in the great book *Encyclopédie* edited by Denis Diderot with contributions of hundreds of leading 'philosophes' (intellectuals). This work was extraordinary in the sense that it gave voice to radical and anticlerical thought, and almost all the contributors of this book advocated reforms. For example, we can take the name of Jean-Jacques Rousseau (1712-1778) who came to symbolise many of the ideals of the Enlightenment. These thinkers were committed to the advancement of scientific thought, which became the basis of the idea of the Enlightenment. Subsequently, the French word 'philosophe' was used to describe the activities of any thinker who advocated the ideas of the Enlightenment. Immanuel Kant and David Hume were two thinkers who best fitted into this concept of a philosopher. Sometimes, the philosophers were also writers who analysed the evils of society, and sought reforms in accordance with the principles of reason. Support came from the salons (the gathering of people held partly to amuse one another and partly to refine taste and increase knowledge through conversation) who entertained them, sponsored their literary works, artistic creations and political ideas. The new intellectual force spread to urban centres across Europe notably England, Scotland, German States, the Netherlands, Russia, Italy, Austria, Spain, the Atlantic and European colonies where it influenced personalities like Benjamin Franklin and Thomas Jefferson.

Throughout Europe, the ideas of the Enlightenment were being promoted with the themes of human dignity, freedom, equality and religion

forbearance. The French thinker who epitomised the Enlightenment ideals in the 18th century was François Marie Arouet, more famously known as Voltaire. The importance laid on intellectual autonomy in the Enlightenment period was perhaps most visible in the works of Rene Descartes. Baruch Spinoza a Jewish intellectual and Holland's greatest philosopher, was responsible for spreading the ideas of the Enlightenment throughout Europe. A combination of science and rational outlook contributed to the creation of an unprecedented belief in the importance of 'Reason'. The following were some of the main aspects of what we call the Enlightenment:

1. Politically, the state was responsible for upholding the individual rights.
2. Democracy was considered to be the best possible form of government.
3. Individual dignity was valued above everything else.
4. Equality in all spheres of life was favoured.
5. 'Reason' was more valuable than religion or other faith.

So, the Enlightenment was a cultural project that aimed at bringing in a visible change in the way people responded to society. The Enlightenment thinkers believed that individuals were conditioned by their own resources and the world, and the state would supply them with the proper conditions and guidance. So, proper education of the individual was conceived as crucial for the Enlightenment. The idea of progress was another preoccupation of the Enlightenment thinkers. That human history moves through the growth and progress of 'civilization', had become influential. Thus, the enlightenment helped in weeping away the obsolete existing social and political institutions so that knowledge and culture could flourish. As one of the greatest of the Enlightenment philosophers, Immanuel Kant saw that "the human race…continually advancing in civilization and culture as its natural purpose".

The Age of Reason:

Very often, the period of the Enlightenment is also referred to as the 'Age of Reason'. Because people believed that trust in the human 'Reason' could solve crucial problems and establish essential norms in society. This faith in 'Reason' formed the basis of progress towards a projected life of universal peace and happiness. Thomas Paine rightly called it the "Age of

Reason". The Enlightenment is a movement that sought to mobilise the power of 'Reason' in order to reform society and advance knowledge. It promoted intellectual interchange and opposed intolerance and abuses in Church and State. Emmanuel Kant defined the Enlightenment as "Mankind's final coming of age, from an immature state of ignorance and error". According to the eminent 20th century philosopher Bertrand Russell, the Enlightenment was a phase in the progressive development, which began in antiquity, and 'Reason' that challenged the established order was constant throughout that time. Russell argued that Enlightenment had been born out of the Protestant reaction against Catholic Counter Reformation. The period was characterised by a profound faith in the powers of the human 'Reason' and devotion to clarity of thought, harmony, proportion and balance. The application of 'Reason' led to the dissipation of the darkness of superstition and prejudice, freeing humanity from the earlier reliance on mere authority and unexamined tradition. There developed a deep sense of self- assurance in the force of human 'Reason'. The thinkers of the Enlightenment sought to unify and organise knowledge into one composite whole and felt that there was nothing that could not be explained by 'Reason'. For some thinkers, the model of 'Reason' was the inductive procedure of science which proceeds from a reasoning between facts of experience and general laws. To other thinkers the model was the deduction of particular truths from clear and distinctive ideas, which are known by the light of 'Reason'.

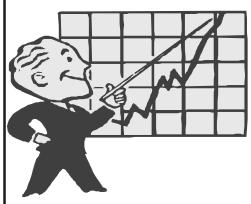
Many thinkers depended on 'Reason' in both these senses. One of the leading German philosopher of the Enlightenment Immanuel Kant in his essay entitled "What is Enlightenment?" pointed to the process of growing Enlightenment or the growth in new ideas and learning. He mainly pointed to 'Rationality' as the means to freedom from the servile obedience to rules and ideas laid down by certain 'authorities'. Another important German philosopher was Gottfried Wilhelm Leibniz. Leibniz in his book *Principles of Nature and of Grace Founded in Reason* stated "True reasoning depends upon necessary or eternal truths, such as those of logic, numbers, geometry, which establish an indubitable connection of ideas and unfailing consequences." Traditional modes of thought were challenged by the

prompting of 'Reason' although both classical and Medieval Christian thinkers had seen it as an important human faculty. However, the Enlightenment's insistence on 'Reason' was based on the argument that it was the only faculty capable of yielding knowledge. Here, 'Reason' is the instrument by which the well-ordered fundamental laws of nature could be deciphered. These cosmic laws dismissed the presence of a beneficent God, as Newtonian discoveries showed.



LET US KNOW

The Enlightenment has to be considered in terms of some noticeable changes taking place in various levels of the society as well as in the intellectual and philosophical spheres. What you need to seriously examine is how these changes in European thought, finally gave birth to ideas and knowledge based on the 'scientific method'. The Enlightenment has rendered a shaping influence on our familiar world as it came to be founded on a scientific vision of the universe as well as the idea of 'modernity.'



CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

Q 1: What is the significance of the *Encyclopédie* edited by Denis Diderot?

Q 2: State some of the basic aspects of the Enlightenment.

Q 3: Why is the Enlightenment period also called the 'Age of Reason'?

Q 4: What were the 'salons'?

Q 5: What do you understand by the term Enlightenment?

5.4 EARLY ENLIGHTENMENT THINKERS

In this section, we will discuss some of the great early thinkers and philosophers of the Enlightenment who have left noticeable mark in the history of ideas. Taking social progress as their mission, these thinkers and philosophers sought to purge the human mind from irrationality and

prejudice. Thus, the contributions of these thinkers helped in creating a society based on freedom, tolerance and reason. You should pay particular attention to the contributions of each one of them and try to know for yourself how they might have contributed to the progress in society.

SIR FRANCIS BACON: (1561-1626)

Francis Bacon was an English philosopher. He was one of the early thinkers who provided the usefulness of inductive reasoning that led him towards Empiricism. Bacon is also famous as the writer of two books namely *Advancement of Learning* (1605) and *Novum Organum* (1620). In these two major works, Bacon formulated his 'Induction Method', a modern scientific method more effective than the traditional 'Deductive Method'. In *Novum Organum* he laid down the propositions that actual observation of nature is crucial for knowledge and 'Reason' should be grounded in facts. In the same book, Bacon proclaimed the need to "begin anew from the very foundations" if scientific knowledge was to make any progress. Stressing the Inductive Method that used examples to prove, Bacon wanted to show how 'Reason' keeps human beings free from false beliefs and ideas in practical life. His 'Inductive Method' for which he is most famous, usually has three steps: Factual description, their tabulation or classification into presences or absences or varying presences, and then the rejection of what is not connected with the tables.

RENE DESCARTES: (1596-1650)

Descartes was a French philosopher. Descartes is considered the 'father' of Modern Western Philosophy. Modern 'Rationalism' begins in the philosophy of Descartes. He was a mathematician and according to him, the perfect form of knowledge can be gained only through mathematical demonstration. He believed that knowledge is given by clear vision of intellect or 'Reason'. For him intuition is the undoubted, immediate apprehension of self–evident truth by 'Reason'. He agreed with Bacon's discarding of the authority of the ancients but his way of understanding was through self–doubt and discovery. 'Rationality' became the governing principle of the Cartesian method. Descartes' influence was very strong on Spinoza whose rationalism and unorthodox views finally got him expelled from the Jewish

community to which he belonged by birth. His scepticism helped him to doubt everything including the senses whose perceptions could be deceptive. From such an argument, Descartes proceeded to the certainty that only the "I" could provide the "first principle of the Philosophy" which he had sought. Descartes posited his famous dualism distinguishing between the mind and the body according to which the mind 'thinks' while it is the body which belongs to the world of space, time and materiality. This is what provides the basis of his theory of "Cogito" as he stated in his book *Discourse on Method* (1637)" Cogito Ergo Sum" meaning "I think, therefore I exist." This was the route by which a mechanistic view of the world was introduced in his contemporary intellectual field.

BARUCH SPINOZA: (1632-77)

Spinoza was a Dutch philosopher. He had immense faith in 'Reason'. Like a true 'Rationalist', he held that we could know about truth through 'Reason'. 'Reason' can give us knowledge of reality because reality itself is rational in nature. According to Spinoza, God himself created the world 'Rationally' and intuition is the realisation of true knowledge. He inspired Radical Enlightenment, which in its political form adhered to Democracy, racial and sexual equality, and individual liberty of life style, full freedom of thought and the expression of press. In his ideas, we find a discussion of how the active and passive emotions affect our activities, and how we are attached or released from our circumstances in the world. Most importantly, according to Spinoza, "the intellectual love of God" essentialised through emotions can be realised through the understanding of the nature of the world.

FRANÇOIS MARIE AROUET OR VOLTAIRE: (1694-1778)

François Marie Arouet was a French Enlightenment writer, historian and philosopher. He was a radical exponent of freedom and attacked all forms of domination. He was responsible for taking Newton's ideas to France and for providing more visibility to Empiricism in Europe. The publication of his *Philosophical Letters* (1734) caused a furore in France, as it rebuffed the philosophy and culture of his own country. He also commented on various matters relating to British social, cultural and political life. He was full of

praise for British philosophy and Empiricism and opined that Britain's religious tolerance and social harmony was one of its major advantages over the French. Voltaire's views were a major call for the revaluation of values that came to characterise Enlightenment ideals. His views activated the climate of serious thought in the Continent. Voltaire was an advocate of the right to intellectual opinion and a defender of freedom of speech. His attack on religious bigotry, suggests the strong rational basis that held together the ideals of Enlightenment philosophy. His contribution to Enlightenment philosophy was remarkable as he was able to fuse together many of the strands that lay scattered across the Continent in his writings.



LET US KNOW

You must understand that Bacon, along with the French and the Dutch Rationalist thinkers, René Descartes and Spinoza, was a true precursors of the Enlightenment. The two important strands of Enlightenment thought—Rationalism and Empiricism, are represented by Bacon and Descartes. Another important strand was 'Materialism', which is well represented by Spinoza's roughly contemporaneous British philosopher, Thomas Hobbes.

BARON DE MONTESQUIEU: (1689-1755)

Montesquieu was a French social commentator and political thinker. He showed the use of empirical framework in political discourse. His book *Spirit of Laws (*1748) was a path-breaking effort as it tried to assess the political institutions, traditions behind their formations and the logic supporting such structures. He tried to evaluate the reasons behind the variety of governments and the principles that informed them. Like Voltaire, he favoured the British over the French for offering a more liberal form of government. He was the first political theorist to propose a threefold division of government–the executive, the legislative and the judicial, which was a

major influence upon the makers of the constitution of the United States. The ideas of both these thinkers fostered the climate of Enlightenment and their radical positions showed how clarity of vision and proper concept of subjects could facilitate new ideas.

JOHN LOCKE: (1632-1704)

John Locke was an English philosopher. He was a major inspiration to the Enlightenment intellectuals. His *Essay Concerning Human Understanding* (1690) set forward theories of education and personal development, and placed human knowledge within the frame of perception. He placed man's intellectual capacities at the centre of a universe, which was only beginning to be a part of the scientific investigation. He was instrumental in visualising the economic aspect of man's life in the context of the 'laws of nature'. He reacted against Descartes' Rationalism and criticised his theory of innate ideas. According to him, the mind receives ideas from experience. He is an Empiricist, but he believes in the existence of matter, mind or soul, and God. Locke's ideas suggested that human progress was part of human design, intention and effort, and hence, this validated the supremacy of Reason.

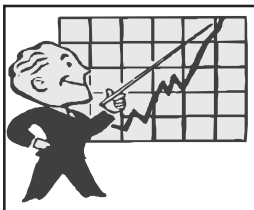
GEORGE BERKELEY: (1685-1783) & DAVID HUME: (1711-76)

Berkeley was an Irish philosopher. His philosophy was based on how the sensible world is a part of reality but how it has to be accorded a secondary role for not being independent of the mind. For Berkley, the sensible world is 'real' but subordinate to the mind. Berkeley can be considered the originator of the philosophical position in Epistemology known as Phenomenology. The Scottish philosopher David Hume on the other hand, taking lead from Locke and Berkeley, believed that knowledge had its source in sense-impressions. For him, the mind was simply "a bundle of perceptions" without unity or cohesiveness and if there was uniformity in perception, it was due to "an associating quality of the mind". For Hume, philosophy was the experimental, inductive science of human nature. Hume was interested in raising greater awareness of reality and the facts of experience.



LET US KNOW

You should note that Sir Isaac Newton (1643-1727) was another great exponent of the new thoughts of the Enlightenment and he inspired many thinkers and intellectuals in the field of physics. His *Philosophiae Naturalis* and *Principia Mathematica* are seminal contributions to modern science as they symbolise a scientific revolution rejecting the idea of a divine presence. In an age which searched for new ways to understand external reality, the Newtonian method directed understanding "from the phenomena of motions to investigate the forces of nature, and then from these forces to demonstrate the other phenomena."



CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

Q 6: Who are the philosophers and major thinkers of the Enlightenment?

Q 7: What do you understand by the Cartesian Cogito? What was its significance for the Enlightenment?

Q 8: Explain Bacon's Contributions as an Enlightenment thinker?

5.5 ENGLISH EMPIRICISM

In this section we shall try to discuss how the Enlightenment received impetus from the contemporary Empiricist and Rationalist philosophers. When you finish reading the section, you will find that the discussions and contradictions among the philosophers some of who are already discussed in the previous section, helped in inculcating a strong liking for the exploration and dissemination of knowledge.

Empiricism is a philosophical theory that states that knowledge comes only or primarily from sensory experience. One of several views of epistemology, the study of human knowledge, along with Rationalism and Skepticism, empiricism emphasises the role of empirical evidence in the formation of ideas, over the notion of innate ideas. Empiricism in the context of scientific temperament emphasises evidence, especially as discovered through experiments.

Empiricism, which is an important feature of Enlightenment philosophy, is mainly identified with the names of philosophers like John Locke, David Hume and George Berkeley, who are hailed as the greatest exponents of British Empiricism. Empiricism is that theory of knowledge which opposes other theories of knowledge such as Rationalism, Idealism and Historicism. Empiricism asserts that knowledge comes from sensory experience. It is a theory according to which experience is the source of true knowledge. It is a reaction against Rationalism. Empiricism emphasises the role of experience and evidence, especially sensory perception in the formation of ideas over the notion of innate ideas or tradition. Empiricism emphasises those aspects of scientific knowledge that are closely related to evidence. It is a pursuit of knowledge, purely through experience by means of observations and sometimes experimentation. This theory is also called 'Posteriori Theory' because according to this theory, knowledge is posterior or dependent on experience.

You must note that John Locke, George Berkeley and David Hume were the primary exponents of Empiricism in the 18th century. According to Locke, our knowledge of things is a perception of ideas that are in accordance or dis-accordance with each other, which is very different from the quest for certainty of Descartes. A generation later, an Anglican bishop determined that Locke's view immediately opened a door that would lead to Atheism—the belief that God does not exist. The Scottish philosopher David Hume responded to Berkeley's criticisms of Locke, as well as other differences between early modern philosophers, and moved Empiricism to new level of scepticism. Hume argued in keeping with the Empiricist view that knowledge is derived from sense experience, but he also accepted that this has implications not normally acceptable to philosophers. He maintained that our beliefs are a result of accumulated sense experience.

5.6 RATIONALISM

Rationalism, on the other hand, is the theory of knowledge according to which 'Reason' or intellect is the main source of knowledge. Rationalism rejects all knowledge derived from sense experience. Socrates and Plato are the earliest Rationalist philosophers. According to the Rationalists, true

knowledge originates from 'Reason'. Rationalism that was advanced by these two philosophers became articulate in the philosophy of Rene Descartes, Baruch Spinoza and Gottfried Wilhelm Leibniz. We are repeatedly reminded of Descartes by the famous phrase "I think, therefore I exist" or *"Cogito Ergo Sum"* in Latin, which he had used in his work *Discourse on Method* (1637). Descartes used his Cogito as part of what he used to call 'methodological skepticism'. In other words, he thought that the right way of searching for truth and making it a part of systematic process was by searching for certainty. This led to the famous "Cartesian doubt" or doubt as method. He deals with it in his work, *Meditations on First Philosophy* (1641). The only certainty that he perceived is the "I", — the thinking self. The only knowledge that can be taken to be true is that one can think. This is a revolutionary philosophical proposition that perhaps changed the whole intellectual world in the 17th century.

However, the Rationalist philosophers differed among themselves on how much importance should be given to experience in yielding to knowledge. Some Rationalists even regarded experience as wholly misleading while others attached some values to it. They say that knowledge given by experience is confused knowledge. However, in spite of their differences they all agreed that 'Reason' alone could give us certain and perfect knowledge. Rationalism is also called 'Priori Theory' of knowledge as according to this theory; knowledge is prior or independent of experience. Descartes is considered the father of modern Rationalism. Spinoza gave a developed form to the Rationalism initiated by Descartes. Like Descartes, Spinoza had immense faith in 'Reason'. A true Rationalist Spinoza held that we could know truth through 'Reason'. He too believed that if we start with self-evident principles and prove the steps involved in the argument then we will be able to reach certain and universal knowledge. Spinoza uses the geometrical method of philosophy to arrive at certain truths. Another Rationalist Leibniz was a famous mathematician who held that the world has logical and mathematical order. Laws that govern this world order are rational. Therefore, the world can only be comprehended by 'Reason'. According to him, knowledge is simply brought out and manifested by

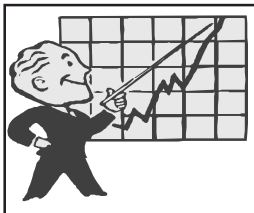
experience. The 'Rational' laws governing the world are to be found only in 'Reason' because the world has been created by God based on 'Reason'.



LET US KNOW

Philosophical empiricists hold that no knowledge to be properly inferred or deduced unless it is derived from one's sense-based experience. This view is commonly contrasted with rationalism, which states that knowledge may be derived from reason independently of the senses. Some of the basic differences between Empiricism and Rationalism can be seen through the ideas of Locke and Descartes. Locke saw sensory impressions as leading to knowledge. Assuming that ideas are mental concepts, Locke is very much concerned with the origins of ideas. Locke refuted the notion of innate ideas to define true ideas and to explain the relation of thought to language. For Locke, as you have read, knowledge is based only on sense-experience, and on the subsequent reflection on the already gained experience. According to Locke, the mind is a '*tabula rasa'*, a 'blank slate' on which is written our experience of the world. In this, he departs from the 'Rationalist' Rene Descartes who argued that we have 'innate ideas', rather than the ideas gained through experience of the external world. Such reflections on our mental operations give us perception, thought, reason, belief and doubt.

So, you find, although different in approach, both Empiricism and Rationalism started with the common goal of forming theories of knowledge. You should note that the search for knowledge based on 'truth' and 'Reason' became the starting point for every Enlightenment thinker and philosopher.



CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

Q 9: Briefly state the basic ideas of Empiricism.

Q 10: What do you understand by the term Rationalism? Who are its main exponents?



5.7 LET US SUM UP

From this unit, you have learnt that the Enlightenment is a term applied to a literary and philosophical movement in Europe between 1660 and 1770. This period is characterised by a profound faith on human 'Reason' as adequate to solve crucial problems and to establish essential norms in life. The idea of the Enlightenment emanated from France. The first Democratic constitution was originally based on the principles of the Enlightenment. The early thinkers of the Enlightenment are Spinoza, Voltaire, Montesquieu, Descartes and Locke. Ideas of the Enlightenment can be understood in terms of the philosophical deliberations of the Empiricists and Rationalists. Empiricism is the theory of knowledge according to which experience is the source of true knowledge. Rationalism is the other theory of knowledge according to which 'Reason' or intellect is the main source of knowledge. The Enlightenment ushered in a new way of thinking that championed accomplishments of humankind. The Enlightenment was a cultural, scientific, social, literary and intellectual development, whose impact on the writers like Francis Bacon is quite obvious.



5.8 FURTHER READING

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5.9 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS (HINTS ONLY)

Ans to Q No 1: French Enlightenment began with a great book *Encyclopédie* edited by Denis Diderot… …this book gave voice to various radical and reformist thinkers… …they helped in advancing scientific thought… …subsequently, the French word 'philosophe' became a part of common intellectual parlance.

Ans to Q No 2: Politically, the state was responsible for upholding the individual rights… …democracy was the best possible form of Government… …individual dignity is most important… …equality in all spheres of life… … 'Reason' is more valuable than religion.

Ans to Q No 3: The term 'Age of Reason' is coined by Thomas Paine… …the Enlightenment sought to uphold the power of 'Reason' in societal reforms and advancement of knowledge… …philosophers like Emmanuel Kant emphasised that 'Reason' helped in the advancement of civilization… ...the Enlightenment 'Reason' freed human beings from the darkness of superstition and prejudice.



Ans to Q No 4: The gathering of people held partly to amuse one another and partly to refine taste and increase knowledge through conversation… …they entertained the writers and philosophers, sponsored their literary works, artistic creations and political ideas.

Ans to Q No 5: The Enlightenment was a term applied to a literary, cultural and philosophical movement that took place in Europe between 1660 and 1770… …it started as part of an attempt to understand the natural world and humankind's place in it… …it is based mainly on 'Reason', without turning to religious belief.

Ans to Q No 6: For Descartes, rationality is the governing principle of his Cartesian Cogito… …he asserted that only the "I" could provide the "first principle of the Philosophy"… …he put more emphasis on the mind which 'thinks' as opposed to the body that belongs to the world

of space, time and materiality… …this idea formed the basis of his "Cogito Ergo Sum" meaning "I think, therefore I exist."

Ans to Q No 7: In Empiricism, experience is the source of true knowledge… …John Locke, George Berkley and David Hume are the 18th century Empiricists… ... Empiricism emphasises the role of sensory perception in the formation of ideas over the notion of innate ideas or tradition… …it is a pursuit of knowledge purely by means of observations and sometimes by experimentation.

Ans to Q No 8: Francis Bacon provided the usefulness of inductive reasoning that led him towards Empiricism… …In his *Advancement of Learning* (1605) and *Novum Organum* (1620), he formulated his 'Induction Method'… …he held that actual observation of nature is crucial for knowledge and 'Reason' should be grounded in facts.

Ans to Q No 9: Empiricism holds that that knowledge comes only or primarily from sensory experience… …Empiricism emphasises the role of empirical evidence in the formation of ideas, over the notion of innate ideas… …Empiricism is mainly identified with the names of philosophers like John Locke, David Hume and George Berkeley.

Ans to Q No 10: Rationalism sees' Reason' or intellect as the main source of knowledge… …It rejects all knowledge derived from sense experience… …Socrates and Plato are the earliest Rationalist philosophers… …Rene Descartes, Benedict Spinoza and Gottfried Wilhelm Leibniz are the main Rationalists.



5.10 POSSIBLE QUESTIONS

Q 1: Define Enlightenment. Briefly describe the history of its development in Europe.

Q 2: What are the important aspects of the Enlightenment? Illustrate with examples.

Q 3: What was the impact of the Enlightenment on the society of the 18th century?

Q 4: Who were the early thinkers of the Enlightenment? Discuss their contribution in detail.

Q 5: Provide a comparative analysis of Empiricism and Rationalism as the offshoots of the Enlightenment.

Q 6: Define Empiricism and Rationalism? How do you think these philosophical trends helped in the proliferation of the idea of knowledge in the 17th and 18th centuries?

Q 7: Why is it that the age of Enlightenment is often referred to as an "Age of Reason"? Elaborate.

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UNIT 6: ENLIGHTENMENT II

UNIT STRUCTURE

6.1 Learning Objectives

6.2 Introduction

6.3 Aftermath of the Enlightenment

6.4 Rise of Democracy

6.4.1 Medieval Developments: The Magna Carta

6.4.2 Role of Church & the State of Learning: Democracy in the 16th and 17th Century

6.4.3 Developments from 18th to 20th Centuries

6.5 Let us Sum up

6.6 Further Reading

6.7 Answers to Check Your Progress (Hints Only)

6.8 Possible Questions

6.1 LEARNING OBJECTIVES

After going through this unit, you will be able to:

- enlist the events following the aftermath of the Enlightenment
- have some ideas of the changes in social formations and movements
- find out how the social formations and movements finally lead to re-distribution of social and political power
- explain democracy as a description of a new and evolving social structure

6.2 INTRODUCTION

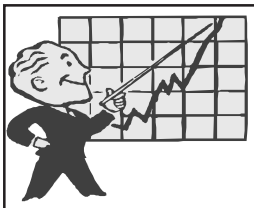
In this unit, you will get to read about the development following the Enlightenment with particular emphasis on the rise of modern democracy that refers to the emerging social structure in the 17th – 18th century Europe. The Enlightenment pioneered the application of scientific methods to study human society, one of them being the processes of democratic

temperaments. However, the idea of modern democracy is closely linked to the idea of a nation, which shares history with colonialism. This unit shall help you to explain how 'modern democracy' evolved in Western European history starting from the Magna Carta which put a check on the institution of monarchy, to the idea of 'modernity', in the eighteenth century Europe. However, in this unit, we shall look at democracy more as a social process, and less as a political concept, which proceeds through history in various ways. Besides, attempts will be made in this unit to view the social changes which brought about the downfall of the earlier feudal order, and to connect them to our 'literary' traditions and history.

6.3 AFTERMATH OF THE ENLIGHTENMENT

You have learnt that the Enlightenment pioneered the application of scientific methods to study human society. It produced a set of basic principles about human affairs. The goal of society was to bring in improvement in material and social life. The Enlightenment thinkers showed an interest in technological change for greater prosperity. There was popularisation of new ideas to encourage changes in the habits and beliefs of many ordinary people. Clubs and Coffee houses allowed people to discuss latest reform ideas. Scientists like Newton and philosophers like John Locke were challenging the old order. Newton's laws of gravity and motion described the world in terms of natural law beyond any spiritual force. In the wake of political turmoil in England, Locke asserted the right of a people to change a government that did not protect natural rights of life, liberty and property. The old way of life was represented by superstition, an angry God and absolute submission to authority. The thinkers of the Enlightenment ushered in a new way of thinking that championed accomplishments of humankind. People were beginning to doubt the existence of a God who could predestine human beings to eternal damnation and empower a tyrant for a king. The Enlightenment also brought in tolerance in religious matters. The whole of Europe was changed by these ideas evident in all fields. Individuals did not have to accept despair as science and 'Reason' could bring happiness and progress.

With the coming of the Enlightenment, kings no longer had the right to rule by divine right. They had an obligation to their subjects. Attitudes towards children began to shift in many social groups. Older methods of physical discipline were criticised in favour of more restrained behaviour that would respect goodness and innocence of children. Equality in the treatment of women and children was emphasised with love and emotional bonding getting prominence. Mary Wollstonecraft was the first thinker of the 18th century to apply ideas of the Enlightenment to explain the condition of women. What Montesquieu, the French social commentator and political thinker, did to the idea of the government, Wollstonecraft did to that of the domestic issues and affairs. The Enlightenment philosophy also addressed issues of freedom, taxation, economics and state policy. There was improvement in trade and commerce with many changes coming in. The field of agriculture moved forward with the introduction of new technology. The writings of Benjamin Franklin made many Enlightenment ideas accessible to the general public. The Enlightenment was thus manifested with the preoccupation of progress in all fields. It was a cultural, scientific, social, political, literary and intellectual development.



CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

Q 1: Which are the progressive developments following the Enlightenment?

Q 2: Mention some of the political and social changes after the Enlightenment?

Q 3: Mention the aspects on the basis of which modern democracy is to be studied?

6.4 RISE OF DEMOCRACY

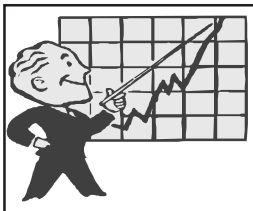
As we have already discussed, literally ‘democracy’ means rule by the people (from the Greek *demos*, “people”, and kratos, “rule”). Democracy is a form of Government in which the citizens of the country has the right to make political decisions by sending representatives chosen by and

responsible to them. Thus, democracy is a form of government in which the powers of the majority are exercised within a framework of a constitution. Hence, democracy is sometimes referred to as "rule of the majority". Democracy was originally conceived in Classical Greece, where political representatives were chosen by a jury from amongst the male citizens: rich and poor. Democracy usually consists of four key elements, (a) A free and fair election to choose and replace the Government, (b) The active participation of the citizens in politics and civic life; (c) Protection of the human rights of all citizens, and (d) A rule of law.

So, the concept of Democracy, which is a political concept, has evolved over time. However, for our purpose, we must narrow down our attention on Democracy to view the social changes following the decline of the feudal order, and then connect it to the 'literary' traditions and history. Keeping that in mind, attempts have been made in this unit to understand how "modern democracy" is modelled on what happened in England and Europe, and then how those ideas descended to us through colonial education. Thus, the beginning and development of modern democracy shall be discussed here in connection with the evolution of parliament, the separation of powers, development of the rule of law and the principle of representation. As has been mentioned already, to such developments, we must add the profoundly important intellectual and social developments of the Enlightenment as well as the American and French revolutions.

Democracy has its origins in Ancient Greece but democratic practices are evident in earlier societies including Mesopotamia, Phoenicia and India. Other cultures that have contributed to the evolution of Democracy include Ancient Rome, Europe, North and South America. The concept of Democracy arose from ideas and institutions that developed during European Middle Ages and the Age of the Enlightenment, and the American and French Revolutions. Democracy has been called the last form of Government and has spread considerably across the globe. The Greek city state of Athens established what is generally held as the first Democracy in 507 BC. During the Middle ages, there were various systems involving elections or assemblies involving a small amount of population. The first elected

Parliament of England was De Montfort's Parliament which was established in 1265. The Power of the Parliament increased over succeeding centuries. After the Glorious Revolution of 1688, there was increase in the influence of the Parliament with the enactment of the Bill of Rights in 1689, which codified certain rights. However, let us have a discussion of modern democracy in terms of various periods of developments.



CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

Q 4: What is known as the Magna Carta?

Q 5: Where did democracy have its origin?

6.4.1 Medieval Developments: The Magna Carta

You will feel interested to learn that modern democratic government has been shaped, to a large extent, by the ideas and institutions of Medieval Europe. Most notably, the concept of divine, natural, and customary law often affected the exercise of power. Thus, the growing practice by European rulers of seeking approval of their policies, as in the right to levy taxes, became very significant. This practice consisted of consulting the different 'estates' or 'group interests'. Modern parliaments have their origins in such gatherings. The Magna Carta arises from just such an idea of decisions based on consensus.

Magna Carta Libertatum or "the Great Charter of the Liberties", commonly called **Magna Carta** is a charter agreed to by King John of England at Runnymede near Windsor, on 15 June 1215. First drafted by the Archbishop of Canterbury to make peace between the unpopular King and a group of rebellious baron. It promised the protection of church rights, protection for the barons from illegal imprisonment, access to swift justice, and limitations on feudal payments to the Crown. Thus, neither the king nor the barons stood by their commitments, which led to the First Baron's War. After King John's death, the regency government of his young

son, Henry III, reissued the charter document in 1216, stripped off some of its more radical contents, in an unsuccessful bid to build political support for their cause. Thus, the charter became part of English political life and was renewed each time a new monarch was enthroned. Although, as time went by, the English Parliament started passing new laws, it lost some of its practical significance.

At the end of the 16th century, there was an upsurge in interest in Magna Carta. Lawyers and historians at that time believed that there was an ancient English constitution, going back to the days of the Anglo Saxons that protected individual English freedom. They even argued that the Norman Conquest of 1066 had overthrown these rights, and that Magna Carta had been a popular attempt to restore them, making the charter an essential foundation for the contemporary powers of Parliament and legal principles such as habeas corpus. Although this historical account was badly flawed, Magna Carta still forms an important symbol of liberty today.

From 1272 to 1307, England was ruled by King Edward I, who is often considered to be an ideal Medieval king. Edward sought to obtain consent for his taxation and to foster the relation between the king and subjects. With this aim in view, Edward would call representatives from the shires and the towns to Parliament. Historians have argued over Edward's Parliament, whether it functioned like an institution of representation. However, it certainly laid the foundation of what later developed into the institution parliament in modern times. Thus, the English government got used to "parliaments" since 1254. But, with Edward's practice, Parliament became a distinctive feature of English politics by 1307. The Parliament of 1295 is called the "Model Parliament" because it included representatives of shires, boroughs, and some minor clergy. For Edward I, parliaments and councils were the institutions by which many statutes could be enacted, especially the great statutes promulgated between 1275 and 1290. Edward's summoning of representatives to Parliament is also accompanied by his cultivating

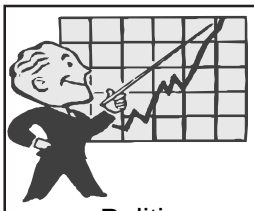
the idea of the community of the realm. This means that there was now the concept of a nation.

In the 13th century England, we see two directions of the emergent democracy. One was the beginning of Parliament, and the other was the new idea of the "community of the land". We have seen the achievements of Henry II in bringing able 'administration to the realm'. Henry's chief concern was with the judicial system. The question of judicial systems is connected with ideas of moral conduct on the one hand, and with ideas of whose law and which law. In 13th century England, we see the development of law in the reign of Edward I. English customary law, that is, law based on established customs and practices, is known as English 'common law'. Until the 19th century, this common law developed as the body of principles evolving from the practice of judges.



LET US KNOW

You will note that, the Church in Medieval England had its own system of laws and courts separate from the King's and the state's. After Henry II assumed kingship, he laid claim to the power of adjudicating the offences of clerics (church officials) and other matters which the Church kept to itself. Henry's actions settled the primacy of common law in England-something that was to have great consequences for the English-speaking world later. Perhaps you know that state, monarch, church, law, government are—all questions of power and politics. While they may not be directly related to literature, we can see their effects on language and literary texts when we look at Chaucer's great 'Prologue' to *The Canterbury Tales*, Shakespeare's History Plays, the emergence of English as the official language, Fielding's *Joseph Andrews*, Webster's *Duchess of Malfi*, Donne's "The Sunne Rising", the changes in art and architecture, literary production, and in so many other textual ways. You can find out for yourself many more such examples.



CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

Q 6: Describe King Edward's contributions to English Politics.

6.4.2 ROLE OF CHURCH & THE STATE OF LEARNING: DEMOCRACY IN THE 16TH AND 17TH CENTURY

Let us in this section turn towards the state of the Church and the world of learning from the medieval to the subsequent periods. The Reformation helps us to understand what was happening to the Church in the late medieval ages.

By the 15th century, there had been a decline in Scholastic theology. The view was that the Church needed to return to its authentic religious roots as available in the New Testament. Hostility towards the clergy or what came to be named 'anticlericalism' became quite widespread. Perhaps, you know that Chaucer in his *Canterbury Tales* so vividly refers to the corruption of the clergy. Also, with the new tide of the Renaissance came the intellectual re-thinking of the Roman Catholic teachings themselves. Renaissance Humanism became instrumental for a new cultural blossoming based on a world of knowledge, which had been solely under the control of the Church throughout the Middle Ages. In the context of the 14th century England, the anticlericalism of the Oxford teacher John Wycliff, is quite well-known. Most of his followers, known as 'Lollards' or 'Wycliffites', opposed Roman domination of the English church among other things. They developed Wycliff's controversial ideas into a political agenda which denounced the church as irredeemably deficient and the prelates as agents of Satan and Antichrist. Anticlerical literature signals a moment of transition in which new classes were emerging, and an older structure was breaking down.

The **English Reformation**, a movement specifically linked to religious power and domination, was a general dislike of priests

and the pretensions of the Church which prevailed all over Western Europe. The Church was un-Christian in the wealth it possessed and desired. Acting like a State within a realm, it owned about one-third of English soil and some abbots and bishops controlled larger revenues than any nobleman did. William Tyndale needs special mentioning here as the English biblical translator, humanist, and Protestant leader who believed that every Christian should be able to read the Bible in his own language. Being prevented by the English Church authorities from translating the Bible, he went to Germany in 1524. His New Testament translation was completed in July 1525 and its English version came out in 1526. The English Reformation was made possible as much through the actions of King Henry VIII following which he came to be known as the "Defender of the Faith". Protestant demands for Reformation came at a time when **Martin Luther** (1483-1546) was demanding deeper changes in the rituals of the church. He used his skills in the German language to attack the moral, financial and administrative malpractices in Roman Catholicism although he insisted that his critique was directed at the doctrine of the church and the distortions of the gospel. Luther refused to pay the ritualistic obedience due to the church and the Pope, thereby causing himself to be excommunicated by Pope Leo X in 1521. In England, by the time of Elizabeth I, Protestantism had completely overtaken the Anglican Church. Nevertheless, religious life in the 17th and 18th centuries continued to be culturally important.



LET US KNOW

As observed by M H Abrams in his *Glossary*, the Reformation led by Martin Luther was a successful heresy which struck at the very foundations of the institutionalism of the Roman Catholic Church. This early Protestantism was grounded on each individual's inner experience of spiritual struggle and salvation. Faith (based on the word of the Bible) was alone thought competent to save, and salvation itself was regarded as a direct

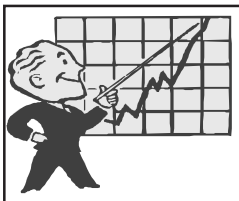
transaction with God, without the necessity of intermediation by Church, priest, or sacrament. For this reason, Protestantism is sometimes said to have been an extreme manifestation of "Renaissance individualism" in northern Europe. Soon, it developed its own type of institutionalism in the theocracy proposed by John Calvin (1509-64) and his Puritan followers. Although England officially broke with the Catholic church during the reign of Henry VIII, the new state religious establishment (the Anglican church) headed by the monarch retained many of the characteristics of the old church while embracing selected Protestant theological principles. The result was a political and theological compromise that remained the subject of heated debate for centuries.

We have, therefore, to see democracy in much larger terms as the sum of social, religious, and economic processes. The changes within the church are reflections of larger changes in society. Particular events, such as King Henry VIII's dissolution of the monasteries, or Martin Luther's defiance of the church authorities ultimately express what social changes were leading to. The cutting of the religious cord binding England to papal dictates, and the beheading of the Stuart king, Charles I, in 1649 all belong to the march of democracy. Renaissance humanism brought in the scholarly emphasis on the material existence of the human race by which the profession of divinity (as by the clergy) would be contested. The age of Marlowe and Shakespeare was written in the language of feudal land tenure and the rise of mercantilism. This was a world different from Chaucer's.

In order to trace the shades of democracy in modern form, we can look more closely at England roughly around the 1640s and thenceforth. For example, the Puritan revolution in England led by Oliver Cromwell and the Roundheads was the result of religious and political thought. It was not the result of desire to recast society or to redistribute wealth. There were more lords and gentlemen on the side of the King, but more yeomen and townsfolk on the side of

Parliament. Entire London, above all, supported the Parliament. The stage of economic and social development which had reached England in 1640, was perhaps a necessary condition for the religious and political movements flaring up into the beheading of Charles I.

The Puritan society in which the Cromwellian revolution had to play its role, helped in advancing the cause of democracy. In John Bunyan's *Pilgrim's Progress* (1678), the expression of Puritanism is obvious. Bunyan's, lonely Puritan represented Puritanism in society in the manner of Oliver Cromwell and his followers. The Puritans being hard-working, devoutly religious, disciplined people emerged as a great force. Between 1646 and 1649, the Parliament undertook to reform and re-structure the Royalist state of the Stuart king, and succeeded in dismantling this erstwhile organisation of governance by making changes in the Anglican Church as well as in the abolition of Charles' reign and the House of Lords in Parliament. The parliament retained its powers till Oliver Cromwell was proclaimed Lord Protector in 1653.



CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

Q 7: Who were the Lollards?

Q 8: What is known as the Reformation?

Q 9: Explain the role Cromwell played in changing the political structure of England.

6.4.3 Democracies from 18th to 20th Centuries

The 18th century is to be remembered as the time when the monarch collided with the nation, or the people. The state (as government and administration) would stand aside from both. This century is considered a formative period if seen in line with the development of modern ideas of politics and the state. In 1700, European hereditary rulers were still struggling for power. By 1789, the French Revolution drastically altered the situation in France. As

a milestone in the move towards modern democratic government, the French Revolution stands out in upholding the ideals of national sovereignty, and the liberty and the equality of the citizens. The earlier theory of the 'divine right of kings' and the patrimonial attitude of kings was, in course of time, replaced by the theory that government was to be in the interests of public welfare. Since the Renaissance, the idea had increasingly taken root that the state was an abstract entity. Later, this would mean that there would be no question of hereditary right in continuing government. Rather, the state was independent of whoever happened to be ruling at a given moment. Governments would have to act in the name of the state and the state would be the source of legitimate authority. By the 19th century, the people would lay stronger claims to sovereignty.

The first nation in modern history to adopt a democratic constitution was the short-lived Corsican Republic in 1755. This constitution was based on the principles of the Enlightenment and it allowed female suffrage which was not allowed in the democracies that followed. In the colonial period before 1776, only adult white male property owners could vote. In 1788, the United States Constitution provided for an elected government. On the American Frontier, democracy became a way of life with widespread social, economic and political equality. During 1820's and 1830's, Black Americans returned to freedom in Africa and the system evolved from Jeffersonian Democracy to Jacksonian Democracy. In 1789, the Revolutionary France adopted the Declaration of the Rights of Man, and of the Citizen, and Universal Male Suffrage was established in March 1848. This was a milestone in the history of Democracy. A historical survey would tell you that several revolutions broke out in Europe with demands for liberal constitutions and democratic governments.

The 20th century transitions to Liberal Democracy resulted from decolonisation and economic circumstances of World War I. The dissolution of the Ottoman and Austro- Hungarian empires helped in forming new nation states in Europe. In 1920s, Democracy

flourished but the Great Depression brought disenchantment, and many countries of Europe, Latin America and Asia turned to dictatorship. Fascism flourished in Nazi Germany, Italy, Spain and Portugal. World War II brought in definite reversal of this trend in Western Europe. This was followed by decolonisation and many new states emerged with democratic constitutions. India emerged as the world's largest democracy. By 1960, vast majority of country-states became Democracies. Economic malaise in 1980s, along with resentment of communist oppression, contributed to the democratisation of Eastern bloc countries. This trend spread to Africa in 1990's. According to the World Forum on Democracy, electoral Democracies now represent 120 of the 192 existing countries, and constitute 58.2% of the world's total population.

LET US KNOW

However, to the discussion of modern democracy, you must also necessarily add the profoundly important intellectual and social



developments of the Enlightenment as well as the American and French revolutions. Because, the American Declaration of Independence (1776), and the French Declaration of the Rights of Man and of the Citizen (1789) are two seminal documents of this period. Universal suffrage, which allowed the election of representative legislative bodies, became in the 19th and 20th centuries the central institutions of democratic governments.



CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

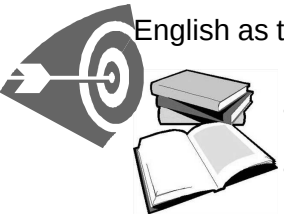
Q 10: What ideas of democracy evolved during the 17th century?

Q 11: How did Democracy flourished in the 20th century?



6.5 LET US SUM UP

From this unit, you have learnt that 'democracy' should be seen as an idea which takes different shapes at various moments in history. As an ideal, it brought in significant changes in the medieval age, the Renaissance, the Reformation, the Civil War in England, and then the 18th century. The concept of Democracy is evolving even today. So, the important point is that 'democracy' is not to be seen as a static model revolving around voting and franchise only. It is partly the scope to question authority, partly the opposition to injustice, partly the redistribution of wealth, as partly the redistribution of power. State, monarch, Church, law, government are all questions of power and politics. While they may not be directly related to literature, you all can very well spot their effects on language and literary texts when we look at famous examples like Chaucer's 'Prologue' to *The Canterbury Tales*, Shakespeare's History Plays, or the emergence of English as the official language, and so on.



6.6 FURTHER READING

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Trevelyan, G.M. (1986). *English Social History.* Harmondsworth: Penguin.

6.7 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS (HINTS ONLY)

Ans to Q No 1: New ideas to encourage changes in the habits and beliefs of common people… …Clubs and Coffee houses allowed people to

discuss latest reform ideas… … Newton challenged the old order by describing the world in terms of natural law beyond any spiritual force.

Ans to Q No 2: Kings no longer had the right to rule by divine right… …Equality in the treatment of women and children was emphasised… …Mary Wollstonecraft applied ideas of the Enlightenment to explain the condition of women… …issues of freedom, taxation, economics and state policy were also addressed… …in the field of agriculture, new technology got introduced.

Ans to Q No 3: The evolution of parliament, the separation of powers, development of the rule of law and the principle of representation.

Ans to Q No 4: A charter agreed to by King John of England… …drafted by the Archbishop of Canterbury to make peace between the unpopular King and a group of rebellious baron… …the protection of church rights, protection for the barons from illegal imprisonment, access to swift justice, and limitations on feudal payments to the Crown.

Ans to Q No 5: Democracy had its origins in Ancient Greece… …it was first established in Athens in 507 BC… …the first Democratic constitution was based on the principles of Enlightenment… …Universal Male Suffrage was established in France in March 1848… …by 1960, many countries turned Democratic.

Ans to Q No 6: Edward sought to obtain consent for his taxation and to foster the relation between the king and subjects… …he called representatives from the shires and the towns to Parliament… …it certainly laid the foundation of what later developed into the institution parliament in modern times… …he held that parliaments and councils were the institutions by which many statutes could be enacted.

Ans to Q No 7: The followers of John Wycliff… … they opposed Roman domination of the English church… …they developed Wycliff's controversial ideas into a political agenda which denounced the church as irredeemably deficient and the prelates as agents of Satan and Antichrist… …this was controversial.

Ans to Q No 8: Protestant demands for Reformation came at a time when **Martin Luther** (1483-1546) was demanding deeper changes in the

rituals of the church. He used his skills in the German language to attack the moral, financial and administrative malpractices in Roman Catholicism although he insisted that his critique was directed at the doctrine of the church and the distortions of the gospel.

Ans to Q No 9: Cromwell helped in advancing the cause of democracy… …The Puritans who were the followers of Cromwell, being hard-working, devoutly religious, disciplined people emerged as a great force… …between 1646 and 1649, the Parliament undertook to reform and re-structure the Royalist state of the Stuart king… …the Parliament retained its powers till Oliver Cromwell was proclaimed Lord Protector in 1653.

Ans to Q No 10: As a milestone in the move towards modern democratic government, the French Revolution stands out in upholding the ideals of national sovereignty, and the liberty and the equality of the citizens… … the 'divine right of kings' and the patrimonial attitude of kings was, in course of time, replaced by the theory that government was to be in the interests of public welfare.

Ans to Q No 11: The 20th century transitions to Liberal Democracy resulted from decolonisation and economic circumstances of World War I... ...The dissolution of the Ottoman and Austro-Hungarian empires helped in forming new nation states in Europe… …following decolonisation, many new states emerged with democratic constitutions… … India emerged as the world's largest democracy.



6.8 POSSIBLE QUESTIONS

Q 1: How did the idea of modern Democracy evolve? Discuss in detail.

Q 2: What were the changes that occurred in the human society following the Enlightenment?

Q 3: Which political condition led to the making of the charter called the 'Magna Carta'?

Q 4: Write a note on the English Reformation with particular reference to the Church and the state.

Q 5: In what ways, can you state that Democracy is the result of various social, religious and economic processes?

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UNIT 7: INDUSTRIALISM AND ITS IMPACT

UNIT STRUCTURE

7.1 Learning Objectives

7.2 Introduction

7.3 Understanding Industrialism

7.4 Industrial Revolution in England

7.5 The Rise of the Working Class

7.6 Industrial Revolution and its Aftermath

7.7 Let us Sum up

7.8 Further Reading

7.9 Answers to Check Your Progress (Hints Only)

7.10 Possible Questions

7.1 LEARNING OBJECTIVES

After going through this unit, you will be able to

- form an idea of Industrialism
- trace the history of pre-industrial times
- examine Industrial Revolution in its historical perspective
- asse*ss* the impact of the Industrial Revolution on society and culture

7.2 INTRODUCTION

This unit deals with the concept of Industrialism, which is one of the most significant phenomena contributing immensely to the making of the modern world. The Industrial Revolution swept across the world in the 18th and 19th centuries, approximately between the years 1780 to 1850. For a long time, it was believed that Britain provided the world with the model for Industrialisation and set a trend that the rest of the world followed. However, present-day historians and social scientists have taken a newer look into the idea and challenged the superiority of England as the path breaking Industrial Empire. They have studied the Industrial revolution; its inception and influence in a different perspective, thereby bringing into focus the roles

of the rest of Europe, particularly Germany and France as well as America in the process. In this unit, you will learn about man's march towards modernisation, with special emphasis on the concept of Industrialism and the Industrial Revolution.

7.3 UNDERSTANDING INDUSTRIALISM

The word Industrialism first came into vogue in the year 1831. The word refers to an economic and social system based on the development of large-scale industries marked by the production of large quantities of manufactured goods and the concentration of employment in urban factories. Garden Marshall in *A Dictionary of Sociology* (1998) defines Industrialism in terms of the transition in methods of production, which have been responsible for the vastly increased wealth that changed modern societies. He adds that although industrialisation is generally thought of as something affecting the manufacture of goods, it is reasonable and necessary to apply the term to the modern methods of raising productivity in agriculture and other indicated sectors.

In the pre-industrial England of the 16th and 17th centuries, England was a rural agricultural nation consisting mostly of villages and a few major cities and towns like London, Bath and York. The primary occupation of the people had been agriculture and dairy farming. In his "Tour of England", (1725), Defoe commented on the wool industry as a sustaining cottage Industry where everybody had to do some kind of manual work beginning with tiny four year old to the eldest member. Drawing an idyllic picture, he mentions that there was not a beggar to be seen, nor an idle person. However, this self-sustained rural and agricultural economy changed drastically in the next 50 years and was replaced by an urban and mechanical population. For instance, during the 18th and 19th centuries, two major changes impacted the social life of England permanently changing its nature.

1. One was the enclosure of the common fields that put an end to the strip farming system that had given every small farmer the right to cultivate on his own plot of land. The enclosure of the common fields

deprived the small farmers of their land and drove them away from the farms to the mills.

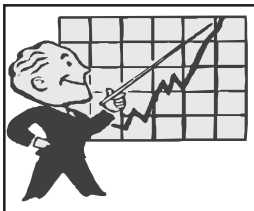
2. The other was the introduction of power driven machinery that put a permanent end to domestic or household labour industry in clothe spinning and wool. The era of handloom and hand-spun goods soon vanished giving way to machine spun and machine made products.

By the year 1775, the Industrial Revolution was already gaining momentum in England. This was the year in which king George-IV conferred knighthood upon two scientists and inventors. One was **William Herschel**, the astronomer and the other was **Humphrey Davy**, the chemist and inventor of the safety lamp. They were among those scientists instrumental in bringing about the great social and economic transformation known as the Industrial Revolution. It was a transformation that brought about the birth of workshops and factories; of slum and poor houses, tall chimneys puffing out black smoke over the surrounding areas. It is in this era that William Blake wrote about *"the dark satanic Mills"* whose high brick walls were the prisons of the poor. Nonetheless, this was an era of path-breaking inventions. Look at the following:

- James Hargreaves had invented the spinning frame which he named after his wife Jenny that is how the 'spinning Jenny' had its name.
- Richard Arkwright had set up his own spinning machines in his large factories at Derbyshire.
- Henry Cort had revolutionised the manufacture of iron.
- Edmund Cartwright had invented the Powerloom.
- James Watt's Steam Engines were grinding malt in Whitbread's brewery.

England was fast becoming a world leader in Industry and technology. This led to the growth in trade and commerce, in development of towns, in developments in cotton, wool, coal, iron industry run by steam power, developments in roadways, railways and canals, transport and communications and so forth. In other words, it was an onwards march towards progress and modernisation.

So, you find that typical features of Industrialism would refer to mechanised methods of working within a factory setting; division of labour; application of scientific methods for problem solving; time and discipline; bureaucracy and administrative rules; a socially and geographically mobile labour force etc. Though labour, production, market and capital are key elements in Industrialism the term is not to be confused with Capitalism. The two concepts, though interrelated, stand apart in so many ways.



CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

Q 1: What do you understand by the term Industrialism?

Q 2: What ideas do you have of the Pre-industrial England?

Q 3: What are the two major changes that affected England in the 18th and 19th centuries?

7.4 INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION IN ENGLAND

You would like to note that between the 1780s and 1850s, there occurred a great transformation in the industry and economy of England, and this is the period of the first Industrial Revolution in England. There were subsequent revolutions with new inventions like the steam engines, the railways, electrical power and so forth. But, the most significant episode of the Industrial Revolution is the period between 1780 and 1850, though one cannot really compartmentalise a historical period. The term Industrial Revolution was first used by the socialist philosopher and writer Friedrich Engels in 1845. It is believed that Karl Marx heard the term in a discussion with Engels and used it in his 'Das Kapital' in 1867, while J.S. Mill also used the term in his *Principles of Political Economy* as early as 1848. The term was used by the English philosopher and economist Arnold Toynbee (1852-83) in order to signify the changes that took place in British Industrial development between 1760 and 1820.

The Industrial Revolution refers to a period of remarkable economic and industrial growth in the cotton and iron industries, in coal mining in the

building of roads and canals throughout England and in foreign trade. The period coincided with the reign of King George III. England was among the first countries to experience the Industrial Revolution. There were many factors responsible for Britain's lead in industrial and economic growth. The most important factor was that new inventions in industry were made in England because of the scientific temperament patronised by the English Monarchy. The country was naturally rich in supplies of coal and iron; the essential material for the new industries. Among the European countries, Britain was the first to apply machine to manufacture. During this time, the British politics was relatively stable in England. Wales and Scotland unified under a single Monarchy. This led to cross border taxes being minimised, which further added the advantage of a common law, a single currency, and a large market. Though the land enclosures of the 16th century and the use of machinery in farming led to an 'agricultural revolution', it also rendered many small time farmers landless adding to unemployment and migration of the rural poor into nearby towns, into nulls and factories. This large-scale migration also provided ample and cheap labour force.

The population in most of the towns in England grew manifold and in the years 1750-1800, London acquired a new significance in World Trade with the shifting of focus of World Trade from the Mediterranean ports of Italy and France to the Atlantic ports of Holland and England. London gained significance as the principal source of loans for International Trade. The city gradually became the hub of trade and many companies functioning in America, Asia, Africa and the West Indies set up offices in London. The bank of England set up in 1664 set the trend in Banking services and expended so much that by the year 1800, there were more than 600 banks in the provinces of England, and nearly 100 banks in London alone. England was also helped by a good network through rivers, indented coastline with goods transportation and market outreach. All these conditions aided the upsurge of the Industrial revolution in England and set the stage for far reaching changes in the social and economic front. By the time George III died, the face of England was permanently changed; the nation of farmers and village craftsmen had become a nation of mechanics and factory hands.

The spinning and weaving industries were native to England and each member of the household was adept at it. Prior to the Industrial Revolution, weaving and spinning were mostly done at home to meet domestic needs or that of local markets. When India came under the British, they began to import Cotton from India at great cost. Later, with the growing control of the East India Company the British minimised its import of Cotton cloth and began to import raw cotton at low cost to its textile mills where it was spun, and marketed in India and its other colonies. Therefore, with abundant raw material and ready markets it was not difficult for Britain to gain supremacy in the world textile industry. As you are already informed, several inventions paved the way for this remarkable progress made by Britain in the field of textiles. Among them, the most remarkable ones were John Key's (1704-64) "The Flying Shuttle Loom", James Hargreaves's (1720-78) "The Spinning Jenny", Richard Arkwright's (1732-92) "The Water Frame", Samuel Crompton's (1753-1827) "The Mule", Edmund Cartwright's (1743-1823) "The Power Loom".

Though the textile industry made rapid strides in England, it caused untold misery to its workers, mostly women and children who were made to toil ceaselessly, and in very bad working conditions. England made similar strides in its coal and iron industries. Naturally, rich in resources of coal, iron, timber, copper, lead and tin, the Industrial Revolution brought a great boom in the Metallurgical industry too. The manufacture of iron had been carried on in England since early times. So far, the fuel used in the extraction and smelting process had always been wood coal. Soon, wood coal was replaced by coal. The discovery of coal greatly revolutionised the iron industry, as iron came to be used to make household furniture, machines, water pipes and so on. Later steam-power replaced waterpower and brought about further progress in the iron as well as textile industry. Another advantage for England was that most of the iron fields were located near its ports so that the products could be easily shifted to overseas markets. Consequently, there was a growth in the shipping trade as well as in shipbuilding.



LET US KNOW

By the year 1830, British iron products were the cheapest in Europe and the most keenly sought after. Here mention must be made of the huge contributions made by the Darby family of Shropshire, a family of iron masters. The inventions and contributions of three generations of the Darbys are like these:

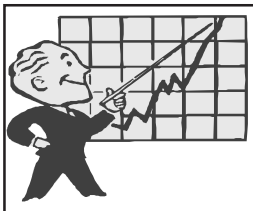
Abraham Darby I (1677-17) invented 'Blast Furnace' that could use coal capable of generating very high temperatures.

Abraham Darby II (1711-68) developed 'Wrath Iron' that was less brittle than pig iron.

Abraham Darby III (1750-91) built the first 'Iron Bridge' in the world over the river Severa.

The first use of steam-power was made in the year 1776. John Wilkinson, the iron master used steam power for bellowing in blast furnaces. It was in fact a few years before this, in 1769, that James Watt patented his invention, the Steam Engine. Watt's Steam Engine came to be largely used in coal mines, iron furnaces and the Textile Industries. In the 1770s, John Wilkinson, known as 'Iron-mad' Wilkinson, made the first iron chairs, vats for breweries and distilleries, and water pipes; which were exported in pairs to be used in its water supply. The increase in the use of machines also necessitated better means of transport and communication. Larger production of coal, iron, textiles and other heavy materials the greater was the need to transport them. Thus, a revolution was also brought about in road and river transport and subsequently in railways. First of all, coals were dug for transportation to big cities from where they could be further transported on barges. Rich land owners with mines and quarries on their lands initiated the process of canal making in order to transport goods and connect the loads to big market cities. The first canal called the Worsley Canal was built in 1761. From the 1760s to the 1850s, a period known as the period of 'canal mania' over 4,000 miles of canals were built. Along with the making of canals, road conditions were also vastly improved and many

new roads were constructed. By the 18th century, 'The Turnpike Trusts', were set up whereby local authorities could set up toll gates and maintain and repair roads with the money collected.



CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

Q 4: How do you think the names of Friedrich Engels, Karl Marx and Arnold Toynbee are related?

Q 5: Give a brief overview of the growth of Industrialism in England.

Q 6: Mention some of the remarkable inventions in the cotton industry.

Q 7: What role did coal play in the history of English Industrialism?

Q 8: Explain the ways through which India contributed to England's Industrial growth?

7.5 THE RISE OF THE WORKING CLASS

1880 is an important decade in English labour history because, in this period, we see the rise of socialism. By the end of the century, politicians were aware of a new 'class consciousness'. Workers, in this period, were scarcely more than paupers, the wage earners who were largely exploited gave birth to a unifying sense among groups of people who were otherwise of diverse origins, diverse formations, with different languages and customs, and of varied economic situations. A common consciousness inevitably brought them together with a shared sense of thought. Therefore, you need to be careful in distinguishing the working class from the middle-class.

Between 1870 and 1914 (World War I), politics began to touch upon economics. Governments had begun to take interest in the growth of industries. The widening of the franchise, as through the Reform Acts in England, meant that the majority of the electorate would be poor and insecure. The "tidal wave of western capitalism" which flooded the "developed" countries ensured that the numbers of those who lived by earning wages for manual labour was greatly increasing. Even in predominantly agrarian countries, manufactured products were finding different markets. The spectacular increase in the numbers of wage-workers

led to the formation of recognisable labour classes chiefly in the countries of old established industries as well as in the countries which were newly industrialising in Europe, North America, Japan and some other areas of white settlement overseas.

The Reform Act of 1832 passed by the English Parliament, helped to bring in a change in the franchise by widening the electorate. However, its scope was not essentially democratic as the artisans, the working classes and sections of the lower middle classes remained outside its ambit. Besides, the Napoleonic wars had not brought peace and prosperity. So, this period saw the emergence of open social conflicts centred on "corn and currency", or agriculture and credit. A 'Corn Law' was passed in 1815 to shore up prices of grain. In Parliament, there was an apparent conflict of interests between the industrialists and the landowning classes. The term 'middle classes' began to be used in social political debate. The new environment of factory-driven work led to a break with old and familiar ways of life. The new working class people began to emerge. The proletariat, though deeply differentiated within its ranks, nonetheless became a significant section of society. From the last two decades of the 19th century, mass political parties based on the working class, forced a new direction in politics.

As a leader of industrialisation, Britain was an exception in already having in existence non-political labour organisation, trade unionism in the form of craft unions. Trade unions acquired legal status and privileges that employers were compelled to contend with their organisation in the workplace. The working-class holiday became an institution from the 1880s. Football culture became a national institution whose final recognition came with the attendance of the Cup Final by the king from 1913. Despite the differences already noted, "Labour" saw itself as a distinct class increasingly recognised by the politicians.

7.6 INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION AND ITS AFTERMATH

Since its start in the 18th century, the Industrial Revolution has been the primary cause of many social, moral and political problems facing the

world today. When the upsurge of the Industrial Revolution hit England, she was barely prepared to face the consequent problems of such a phenomenal growth of Industry, of cities and industrial areas, of the working class, of class strife, of the rift between the upper class bourgeoisie and the working class, of the growth of slums, of moral and economic degradation and the downside in human dignity and labour. As the Industrial Revolution progressed, slum towns grew with planning but without any kind of government control. It was a time of rampant individualism and the desire for quick money returns on the part of the mill and factory owners and aristocrats who distanced themselves from industrial sectors in their estates. This was an age where individual talent could grow and bring about radical and revolutionary changes. It was an age when investments grew manifolds in no time. However, all this was possible at an immensely negative human cost.



LET US KNOW

The Industrial Revolution in England co-existed with two important historical events.

1. This was the time when Britain lost the 13 American colonies and Napoleon was defeated. Both events took a toll on England' economy and the poor masses were the ones to feel the pinch the most.

2. This was also a time of immense increase in urban population. The first census in 1801, showed a tremendous rise in urban population being particularly concentrated in new industrial towns like Birmingham, Glasgow, Manchester, Liverpool, Leeds, Bradford, Shuffled, London and others. These new industrial centres and their citizens were all products of the machine age. The towns of industrial England, it has been said, were "barracks of cheap labour; not homes for citizens." Most of the people of these towns, women and children included, worked and lived in appalling conditions in factories and slums. Their wages were meagre and healthcare and sanitation were almost non-existent.

Neither the government nor the concerned authority could envision the far-reaching effects of the changes that the country was undergoing. On the one hand, there could be found a vast progress made in the industry, road and river transportation systems, and on the other, there was the regression in terms of quality and standard of life and of human dignity. Towns grew haphazardly with no planning at all. Back to back, brick houses were built for workers, without sanitation, drainage, proper lighting or ventilation. The new industrial cities were marked by stuffy factories with dreary rows of buildings and smoky chimneys. In these towns lived the workers and their families. The work in the factories continued under a strict work discipline and severe system of punishment. Even old women and small children were also employed in these Mills and factories. They had to work for a mere pittance in order to supplement the family's income.

As machines replaced men, employment grew sparse, working conditions poor, and wages meagre. The conditions were all the more deplorable in the cotton textile industries at Yorkshire and Lancashire, as well as in the silk, knitting and lace making factories where most of the workers were women and children. For instance, by the 1850s, almost two third of the work force in the button trade were constituted by women and children, and an average men received 25 shillings a week, women 7 shillings and children 1 shilling for the same amount of work and working hours. Coalmines were another segment where there were large occurrences of accidents and deaths. The rate of death in these slums was alarmingly large and longitivity of life was reduced largely. Most of the deaths were caused by air borne or water borne diseases like cholera, typhoid and tuberculosis. Yet the municipal authorities were lethargic and negligent towards their duties. Medical science was not so developed to deal with frequent outbreaks of epidemics that took such a toll of life.

A survey conducted in 1842 showed that the average life span of mill and factory workers was exceedingly low. It was 15 years in Birmingham, 17 years in Manchester, 21 in Werby and so on. This was much lower than the average life expectancy of the same people when living in villages. Such miserable condition of life and work were bound to result in different protests.

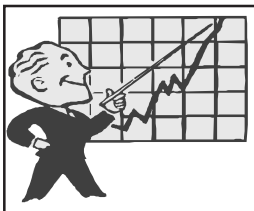
However, surprisingly the surge of protest was rather slow in coming to England. Complacency and indifference to the plight of the workers on the part of the aristocrats and the investors was a rule rather than an exception. Thinkers like Macaulay in fact extolled Man's command over nature while ignoring the large mass of suffering humanity. This kind of attitude was largely responsible for the rift between capital and labour in England. Around this time, the ideas of "Laissez-fare", "Leave things alone", "Let us alone", gained popularity. The idea of free trade, trade managed not by the state and its regulatory rules but by the merchants and traders themselves, gained a boost, especially after the publication of Adam Smith's *Wealth of Nations* (1776) the same year as America's War of Independence. As the propagator of free trade, Smith, with the backing of Prime Minister Williams Pit, propagated and brought about a great many reductions in Trade restrictions. In 1813, the Elizabethan Act, authorised local magistrates to fix wages was repealed.

In the meantime, the political and social ideas pioneered by the French Revolution (1789-94) and the ideals of 'Liberty', 'Equality' and 'Fraternity', reached the English shores. Fired by these ideals, there emerged a protest movements and unified resistance to exploitation. A further impetus was given to this crying need for social reform, by the growth of the humanitarian movement of the 18th century under the influence of religious societies like the **Quakers** and the **Methodists**. Such movements brought about the realisation that higher class people would not be allowed to carry on with their exploitation of other classes. The government initiated some short term solutions like the 'Spenhanland Act', a decision to augment wages with 'doles' from the parish. But this system, instead of relieving the wage earners, further pauperised them, because it freed mill and factory owners of the compulsion to raise wages. A further blow to the factory workers came in the form of the "Combination Acts" (1799 and 1800) that made trade unions illegal. Deprived of land by the enclosure system, pauperised by the Spenhanland Act, and barred from standing united by the combination Act, the poor of England were indeed very hard hit. Added to it, were the wars with France and the 'anti-Jacobian' feelings after the French Revolution. There was no way out but to protest and demand their rights.

One indication of the popular discontent was the Zuddite Riots, which broke out at intervals between the year 1810-20. One characteristic of these riots was the breaking of Machinery by the rioters. However, changes were sought to be brought by many reform laws. Subsequently, much change was brought about in the condition of workers through laws and Acts. A few significant Reform Acts are mentioned below:

1. The First factory Act (1802): Working hours of children limited to 2 hours per day.
2. Cotton Factories regulation Act (1819): Fixed working hours for children at 12 and forbade employment of children under 9 years.
3. The Reform Act (1832): Passed political power from the aristocracy to the middle classes.
4. The Factory Act (1833): Appointed paid inspectors for factories insisted on the principle of state interference between masters and employees, increased state control over industry.

Arnold Toynbee's "Lectures on the Industrial Revolution" was published in 1884. Toynbee, with many other contemporary and later day historians viewed the Industrial Revolution as a departure in human history, a movement as important in the history of man as the discovery of the 'wheel' or the development of language. It was a Revolution that radically changed man's view of life, his access to modern amenities, and his control over the resources of nature. It was a revolution that impacted the nature of family and household, the status of women and children. It was in fact much more than a mere economic or industrial change, it effected the very fabric of life, be it the spare of agriculture, population growth, political awareness, gender awareness, child rights, trade unions etc. It is the multifaceted nature of the change that has kept the debate upon the Industrial revolution alive among the scholars of different fraternities. You should also note that Industrialism directly or indirectly affected the writing of literature during the Industrial Revolution. For example, Charles Dickens in the Victorian age drew most of the raw materials for his renowned novels, from his experiences of the English Industrial culture and the conditions of the working class people.



CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

Q 9: What were some of the main problems of Industrialism?

Q 10: Comment on the conditions of the working classes in England in the Industrial era.

Q 11: What were the different Reform Laws introduced in England?

Q 12: What do you mean by the term 'Laissez Fair'?

Q 13: Mention some of the effects of the Industrial Revolution.



7.7 LET US SUM UP

From this unit, you must have learnt about the various uses of the term Industrialism and the contexts in which it has so far been used. You have read that Industrialism in England begins in between the 1780s and 1850s when there occurred a great transformation in the industry and economy of England, which finally led to the first Industrial Revolution in England. Industrial Revolution was possible also because of the invention of spinning wheel and other machines, which both reduced human efforts and increased productivity. However, the Revolution had both negative and positive aspects. We have also discussed in this unit the effects of the Industrial revolution on the life and culture of England. Industrialism, through various acts and treaties led to the consolidation of the British colonial power about which you will be studying in the nest unit of this course. Above all, the discussion of Industrialism in this unit, I believe, must have shown you ways to locate the elements that might have affected the materialistic and cultural productions of the 18th and 19th century England.



7.8 FURTHER READING

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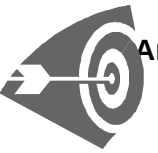
Thompson, E.P. (1964). *The Making of the English Working Class*. New York, Pantheon.

Toynbee, Arnold. (1957). *The Industrial Revolution. Boston*: Beacon Press.

7.9 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS (HINTS ONLY)

Ans to Q No 1: Industrialism relates to an economic and social system based on industrial development… …it is marked by the production of manufactured goods… …gradually it got associated with the social phenomenon called Industrial Revolution.

Ans to Q No 2: The pre-industrial England of the 15th and 16th centuries was mainly rural... …the primary occupation of people was agriculture and dairy farming… …England was also famous for its wool and cottage industries.



Ans to Q No 3: Enclosure of the common fields that gave a death blow to sheep farming… …introduction of power drawn machinery that replaced manual labour.

Ans to Q No 4: The term was first used by the German Friedrich Engels in 1845… …Karl Marx used it in his 'Das Kapital'… …Arnold Toynbee used the term in order to signify the changes that took place in British Industrial development between 1760 and 1820.

Ans to Q No 5: England made remarkable advancement in its Textile, coal and iron, steam powered industries... …great strides were made in roads, canals and railways… …England capitalised on its native Industries like spinning and weaving of flax and wool… …discovery of the natural resources like coal and iron.

Ans to Q No 6: John Key's (1704-64) "The Flying Shuttle Loom", James Hargreaves's (1720-78) "The Spinning Jenny", Richard Arkwright's (1732-92) "The Water Frame", Samuel Crompton's (1753-1827) "The Mule", Edmund Cartwright's "The Power Loom" and so on.

Ans to Q No 7: Natural coal replaced wood-coal… …revolution in iron industry… …by 1830s, British iron trade flourished… …the inventions of the Darby family.

Ans to Q No 8: The British began to import Cotton from India at great cost… …The East India Company the British minimised its import of Cotton cloth and began to import raw cotton at low cost… …marketed in India… …abundant raw material and ready markets enabled Britain to gain supremacy in the world textile industry.

Ans to Q No 9: Phenomenal growth of industry… …cities and industrial areas… …working class, class strife and the rift between the upper class bourgeoisie and the working class… …growth of slums… …moral and economic degradation….loss of human dignity and labour.

Ans to Q No 10: Very miserable… …poor working conditions… …meager wages… …government paid little hid… …houses built for workers were without proper sanitation, drainage, ventilation… ...extended working hours… … even old people and children also had to work for earning… …spread of epidemic… …no medical aid… … All these led to protest movements.

Ans to Q No 11: The First factory Act (1802)… …Cotton Factories regulation Act (1819)… …The Reform Act (1832)… …The Factory Act (1833).

Ans to Q No 12: "Laissez-fare" means "Leave things alone" or "Let us alone"… …it is a term related to the idea of free trade managed not by the state but by the merchants and traders themselves… …it gained popularity after the publication of Adam Smith's *Wealth of Nations* (1776).

Ans to Q No 13: Slum towns grew but without government control… desire for quick money returns on the part of the mill and factory owners… …individual talent could grow and bring about radical and revolutionary changes… …investments grew manifolds in no time.



7.10 POSSIBLE QUESTIONS

Q 1: Assess the significance of Industrialism in English social history. What were the major inventions that set the idea of the Industrial Revolution rolling in England?

Q 2: Write a note on the progress of the Industrial Revolution in England? What were the relative advantages that England enjoyed at the time?

Q 3: Give an account of pre-Revolution England, and the changes that came into the lives of people after the Revolution.

Q 4: Comment on the rise of the working class in England, and mention the changes that took place in the English social life.

Q 5: How did cotton and cotton industries bring about an unprecedented change in the history of England?

Q 6: Describe, in your own words, the turn of events in England, following the Industrial Revolution.

UNIT 8: COLONIALISM AND IMPERIALISM

UNIT STRUCTURE

8.1 Learning Objectives

8.2 Introduction

8.3 Colonialism and Nationalism

8.4 Trade and Conflict

8.5 Idea of the Empire

- 8.5.1 The First British Empire
- 8.5.2 The Second British Empire
- 8.5.3 Other Four Phases of the British Empire

8.6 Imperialism and Expansion

8.7 Let us Sum up

8.8 Further Reading

8.9 Answers to Check Your Progress (Hints Only)

8.10 Possible Questions

8.1 LEARNING OBJECTIVES

After going through this unit, you will be able to

- trace the origin of Colonialism
- discuss the growth and development of Colonialism
- discuss Colonialism as one of the most notable phenomena in the history of human race
- identify the various facets as well as the complex networks of far-reaching consequences of Colonialism and Imperialism
- relate Imperialism to the emerging idea of Nationalism

8.2 INTRODUCTION

This unit will introduce you to ideas of Colonialism and Imperialism. The word 'Colonialism' is perhaps derived from the 14th century term 'Colonye' or 'Colonia' which was again borrowed from a Latin term 'Colonus', meaning cultivation, settler or planter in a new country. Initially 'colony' did

not carry the significance of political authority over another country. It was from the 18th century that the settlers began to feel about their European difference and regard the native population as different from themselves. From this new realisation, emerged a policy of social discrimination, inequality and exploitation to be exercised over the natives of the non-European countries. The ultimate realisation of this aspect can be seen through 'Imperialism' in more recent times. You should know that the quest for a better life in the settlements outside the country, subsequently led to economic exploitation and political subordination of the colonised countries. Gradually, colonialism started to acquire a cultural dimension because European colonial presence was justified on the ground of its 'superiority' to the native culture, and colonial administration as well as education was substituted in place of native culture in the name of development and modernisation. The theory of 'Natural Selection', originally explained in the biological context by Charles Darwin, the 19th century evolutionary theorist, was later reinterpreted and reconstructed as the theory of the 'Survival of the fittest' in the socio-cultural context. Known as Social Darwinism, the theory of survival of the fittest tried to establish the Europeans as the civilized people in the world with the natural right to subjugate the non-Europeans in the interest of civilization of the entire race of mankind. When you finish reading this unit, you will be adequately informed about how Colonialism was projected as a mechanism to consolidate the foundation of human civilization in the world, which finally resulted in Imperialism.

8.3 COLONIALISM AND NATIONALISM

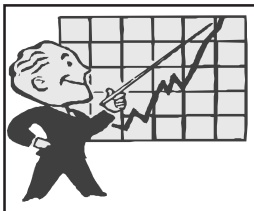
It has already been mentioned that the origin of colonialism dates back to the 16th century in the history of Europe, a period marked by Renaissance and English Reformation. Renaissance liberated the human mind from the inhibiting influences of the Medieval prejudices. It also set in motion an urge to know the unknown, a desire to explore the various fields of knowledge not only through learning and appropriating written discourses resulting in an intellectual revolution but also through undertaking difficult journeys to the undiscovered, unexplored parts of the world. The 16th century

Renaissance Europe experienced tremendous upsurge of overseas explorations fuelled by nationalist pride and zeal for adventure. Vasco de Gama, the Portuguese sailor, discovered an Eastern route to India via the southern tip of Africa, Spain, Portugal and Netherlands and turned to the Atlantic region for the overseas expansion of trade. In England, Richard Hakluyt wrote a book called *The Principal Navigations, Voyages and Discoveries of the English Nation* to provide information about the early English voyages to Africa.

The Hundred Years' War with France (1337-1453) was a landmark in the history of the birth of English nationalist feeling because the victory over France was regarded as the victory not only of the king or the aristocracy but also of the entire nation. Meanwhile, the English Reformation brought to end the jurisdiction of Pope over England. An English church and a common language including a distinctive sense of territory and ethnicity facilitated the consolidations of a nationalist consciousness in England of the 15th century. While, the sense of an English identity amongst the people in England was the root of English Nationalism, a nationalist urge to establish the might and pride of the English nation in the Americas and Asia, in the Age of Discovery, gripped the imagination of the explorers during the 15th and the 16th centuries. This tendency was particularly at work when we find the rise of Portugal and Spain as the pioneering explorers of the globe during the Age of Discovery.

The phrase 'Age of Discovery' refers to the 15th and 16th century Renaissance Europe embarking upon overseas exploration to assert the power of the respective nations in various parts of the world. This motive to expand the national frontiers was fuelled by nationalistic feeling and it resulted in competition and conflict among the nations. Again, it is to be noted that the Renaissance itself created the conducive atmosphere for colonial expansion by making geographical and cartographical fund of knowledge available to the overseas explorers. Columbus landed in America in 1492 followed by other European explorers mainly from Portugal and Spain. The enriched intellectual environment and geographical fund of knowledge were utilised by these countries primarily with nationalist concerns. The explorers therefore were patronised by the ruling governments and this obviously

resulted in mutual rivalries among the countries engaged in the undertaking. Exploration and discovery were followed by settlements, plantation and trading of the agricultural produce. As a consequence, large cities began to emerge in and around the trading posts. Thus, it is seen that colonialism is inextricably linked up with the new advances in geographical and cartographical knowledge, commercial rivalries and a strong sense of nationalist consciousness. As nationalism fuelled colonial enterprises by the European countries, colonialism in turn, also stirred the nationalist feelings across Europe particularly during the Napoleonic Era. The conquests of Napoleon in Europe generated an anti-France feeling in the countries like England, Spain, Poland, Russia and Belgium. The spirit of resistance to the Napoleonic imperialism, on the one hand, generated the nationalist pride of these countries, and on the other, they vigorously reacted to the expansionist drive of France with similar colonial drives in Asia and Africa in the 19th century. So, you find that both Nationalism and Colonialism are inextricably linked with each other.



CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

Q 1: How did the Renaissance influence the first phase of colonisation ?

Q 2: What connections do you see between Nationalist concerns and colonial drives?

8.4 TRADE AND CONFLICT

Before 1760, colonial expansion was confined to trading posts and factories without any design or strategy to exert political authority in the colonised territories. However, the private trading companies certainly needed some sort of protection from their own governments in the event of attack by the rival Europeans. Although the governments did not have any direct part in directing colonisation, the British crown, however, granted charters to companies (like Virginia or Massachusetts) granting authority over the trade of a designated tract. The trading companies, human enjoyed

considerable freedom to frame rules in the expansion of commercial interests. In the context of Britain, the battery of controls was meant to secure the British merchants monopoly in colonial trade and minimise imports from outside the empire.

The early Spanish and Portuguese settlers in the Americas resorted to the cultivation of crops like sugar, coffee and tobacco mainly for commercial purposes. These colonies were also rich in minerals like gold and silver. The gold deposits of Brazil and Mexico attracted the European attention resulting in the rapid immigration of Europeans to the 'New World'. African slaves, European convicts, indentured labourers and free passengers signalled a flourishing market in all four categories till the American war of Independence. 'Slave trade' emerged as an organised branch of commerce as shipping companies vied with each other for its rising demand in the plantations in the Americas. This early phase of colonisation also largely shared the consumption pattern in the European countries. It was seen that the demand for sugar and tea propelled many early trading ventures in both the Atlantic and Asia. Spain and Portugal put the theory of mercantilism into practice by selling European finished products in the Americas and amassing gold and silver deposits for themselves to use these minerals as their national treasure. Britain, France, Netherlands and Denmark were late entrants in the colonising mission of the Americas. The presence of so many European colonial powers obviously led to a period of mutual rivalries and conflict, particularly from 1689 to 1763. During this period, the four wars between France and Britain were not confined to Europe alone but spread to their overseas colonies in the Americas and the East, particularly India. The Seven Years' War (1756-63) was the first major war fought on the issue of colonisation among the European powers. France, Sudan, Russia and Australia confronted England, Prussia and Hanover in this war for defending and securing colonial possession. The War ended with the signing of the Treaty of Paris. The French colonial presence in the North America had almost disappeared with the ceding of New France (where French-speaking population dominated). In India too, Britain's rise in the southern part was ensured with the result of the Carnatic wars.

Colonial trade by a pre-capitalist Europe resulted in massive flow of human and natural resources between the colonial and the colonised countries. Migration in the form of slaves and indentured labour to the plantations in Latin America, Australia and New Zealand caused significant changes in the demographic pattern of population of the concerned countries. Raw materials were transported to the colonial metropolis for manufacturing finished products both for metropolitan consumption and mainly for selling at high prices in the captive markets of the colonies. These exploitative measures kept the colonies economically underdeveloped for a long period to come. On the other hand, this economic imbalance proved highly conducive to the growth of European capitalism and industrialisation. In the West Indian plantations, slaves were engaged in the production of sugar for consumption in Europe; in India raw cotton was exported to Europe at nominal price and manufactures from Britain sold back clothing materials in India posing a threat to the survival of indigenous textile industries prevalent mainly in rural India.

The old mercantilist empire initiated by the trading companies was followed in 1780s by a different sort of empire called an Empire of free trade and Commerce. In 1776, Adam Smith in his *Wealth of Nations* insisted upon commercial freedom for encouraging productivity and maximum wealth. He prescribed not territorial control or administration over people but access to markets, supplies and customers. He dismissed the idea of administrative empire as a waste of money and power of the governments, and argued for the expansion of mercantile connections to establish a wide network of commercial exchange. The emergence of e new type of empire led to the beginning of a new phase of global war between 1793 and 1815. During this period, the British overpowered the rival colonial powers like French, Netherlands and Spain. Britain lost its thirteen colonies in North America in 1783 after a War of Independence and then its attention turned to Asia, Africa and the Pacific. When France was defeated in 1815, there was virtually no one to pose a serious threat to Britain's increasing dominance in East Britain, which enlarged the "Empire of Rule" as against the "Empire of Settlement". After winning the Opium War of 1839-42, Britain could enjoy

the freedom of trade in China, the largest non-European empire that also had to submit to the commercial demands of the West. Another factor which was highly instrumental in the enlargement of British trade even in the little known regions of the world was the establishment of the Royal Graphical Society in 1830 and John Arrowsmith's great Atlas. Arrowsmith's maps provided necessary guidelines to the trading companies regarding the commercial, agrarian and religious prospects of hitherto unknown regions of the world.



LET US KNOW

Abolition of slavery and slave trade was initiated in 1807 and by 1837-38; it was terminated throughout the British empire. However, a new system of slavery in the form of indentured labour got introduced after 1834 involving millions of South Asians, Africans, Chinese and Pacific islanders until it was stopped in 1922.



CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

Q 3: What role did the trading companies play in the early phase of Colonialism?

Q 4: What is the significance of Adam Smith's *Wealth of Nations?*

Q 5: What do you mean by the terms 'Empire of Settlement' and 'Empire of Rule'?

Q 6: What were the factors that enlarged British trade and commerce?

8.5 IDEA OF THE EMPIRE

John Dee, a writer of the Elizabethan England and contemporary of Richard Hakluyt is said to be the first to use the term 'British Empire'. He advocated the establishment of a British Empire in the Atlantic region like that of the Spanish and Portuguese. The British Empire was decidedly different from the other European empires like the Habsburg Empire which

were based on lordship. The British Empire was a maritime, overseas and commercial endeavours held together by trade and settlement, and defended by naval power. Historians usually study the subject of 'Empire' as a historical process involving two distinct phases. The first phase refers to the period between 1583 and 1783, while the second phase covers the period from 1783 up to the end of the Napoleonic wars in 1815.

8.5.1 The First British Empire

The first British Empire began to take shape during the early 17th century. In 1604, Britain's hostilities with its colonial rival Spain subsided as King James VI negotiated the treaty of London and Britain saw the prospect of establishing its own overseas colonies instead of eying on other colonial establishments. After a series of unsuccessful attempts in Guinea, Grenada and St Lucia, Britain established colonial settlements in St. Kitts (1624), Barbados (1627) and Nevis (1628). These English Colonies were used for sugar plantations, which also made the British initially dependent on the Dutch shipments for the import of slave labour and export of sugar. Later, the entry of the English ships for protecting the English business interests led to a series of Anglo-Dutch wars. England won Japan from the Spanish in 1655 and the next year the Bahamas formed a part of the English settlements in the Americas. A number of private trading companies like Virginia Company, the Newfoundland Company, Hudson's Bay Company, Royal African Company, etc. were formed for colonising the various parts of the Americas such as Virginia, Mayland, Connecticut, New Netherlands (renamed New York), Pennsylvania, Plymouth, etc. These colonies were mainly put to agricultural use and the extensive plantations also opened the doors for another highly profitable business — Slave Trade.



LET US KNOW

The seeds of the British Empire were sown in as early as 1578 when Queen Elizabeth I granted a patent to Humphrey Gilbert for discovery and overseas exploration. Gilbert made two attempts to establish a colony in North America but his success could not lead to any enduring result. In 1584, Gilbert's half-brother Sir Walter Raleigh made another attempt to found a colony in the present-day North Carolina which too did not last for long.

The rise of the thirteen colonies in the North America saw a parallel development with England and the Netherlands forming the East India Company and the Dutch East India Company in 1600 and 1602 respectively to dismantle the Portuguese monopoly of trade in Asia. A deal was signed between England and the Netherlands according to which the spice trade of the East Indies archipelago went into the hands of the Netherlands, and the textile trade of India was won by England, which later proved to be a more profitable trade than the spice trade. Meanwhile, England had to face a new threat from France in the beginning of the 18th century as France and Spain formed an alliance in the war of Spanish succession during the period 1701-1714 against the English, Dutch and Portuguese forces. At the end of the war, Britain gained Newfoundland and Arcadia from France. The British annexation of Gibraltar from Spain was a turning point in the growth of British Empire as the new territorial gain allowed Britain to control the Atlantic entry and exit point to the Mediterrarian. Britain and France again waged war for imperial gains in 1756 that lasted up to 1763. Known as the Seven Years' War, the war came ended with the signing of the **Treaty of Paris**. The war was fought on a global scale involving Europe, India, North America, the Caribbean, the Philippines and the coastal Africa. The treaty of Paris ensured and consolidated the position of Britain as the most powerful empire as Britain gained New France and Ruput's island in North America from France, and

Florida from Spain. In India, the result of the Carnatic wars went in favour of Britain ensuring the rise of the British India as the most valuable possession of Britain. The English East India Company which had acquired the trading rights in 1617 from the Mughal emperor, took every opportunity of the decline of the Mughal power in the 18th century and the gain of Bengal in the **Battle of Plassey** of 1757. This paved the way for the company's emergence as the powerful political force in the subsequent stages of the imperial history in India.

8.5.2 The Second British Empire

The outbreak of the American War of Independence in 1775 signaled the end of the Empire's rule over the thirteen colonies of America. In 1783, these colonies declared independence ending the first phase of the British Empire. Meanwhile, in 1776, Adam Smith's *Wealth of Nations* came out in which the economist argued that mercantilists must give way to free trade. By 'mercantilism', Adam Smith meant the complex array of legislation imposed on colonial trade by the mother century. Smith argued that the mercantile regulations confined colonial imports and exports to the mother country. Moreover, the reduced prices for exported produce and high prices for imported produce failed to generate new business and new employment. On the one hand, these regulations lessened the wealth of the nations, and on the other, they raised the rate of profit among the merchants. Smith recognised the value of colonial trade, but did not believe that it was enhanced by mercantile regulation. He suggested the policy of free trade so that the costs of possessing on empire could not outweigh the gains. The growth of trade between Britain and the newly independent America after 1783 also seemed to justify Smith's opinion that regulatory measures in colonial trade were not necessary for economic profit. The realisation of the importance of free trade and some other important changes in the colonial administration marked the period of the Second Empire from 1783 till 1815.



LET US KNOW

The second phase of the British Empire was also marked by Britain's shift of focus from the Atlantic to the pacific zone. Although the Western coast of Australia was discovered by the Dutch in 1606 and named 'Now Holland' by the Dutch East India Company, only in 1770, James Cook discovered the eastern coast of Australia and claiming it to be a British colony named it 'New South Wales'. The Australian colonies exported wool and gold, and Melbourne becomes one of the richest and largest cities in the British Empire for its tremendous economic prospects and activities. Britain also initiated colonising activities in many parts of New Zealand in 1770s by establishing trading stations especially in the North. Meanwhile, the rise of France under Napoleon was a matter of grave concern for Britain in the beginning of the 17th century. Two victories for Britain, one at Trafalgar in 1805, and another at Waterloo in 1815, sealed the fate of France as France had to leave Ionian islands, Malta, Mauritus, St. Lucia and Tobago to Britain. Victory over Napoleon left Britain without any major rival in colonial expansion and consolidation, other than Russia in Central Asia.

In India, the first phase of colonisation had begun in the early 17th century with the East India Company flourishing its trading activities in Bengal. The company had to use the long route around the African cape to India because of the presence of many European colonial rivals on other available routes such as the Persian Gulf route through Iraq, the Red Sea route through Egypt. However, the company could procure the maximum profit for itself mainly because of the monopoly status granted to it by the Crown and for its enlarging shipments to carry Indian products to Africa and the Americas. The huge profit for the company had adverse impact on the revenues for the Indian rulers, which led to the Battle of Plassey in 1757, and the victory for the British side ensured the rapid growth of British colonial power even in the other parts of India. The inter-European rivalries and wars got

reduced in the 18th century after Plassey; the intermediaries employed by the British East India Company snatched away the power of export, import and manufacture of goods from the hands of the Indian merchants. Besides textiles, opium trade became a major source of revenue collection by the British merchants and in the decades following the Battle of Plassey, the company acquired a virtual stronghold on the economic and political life of Eastern India.

This first phase of British colonialism in India was one of direct plunder as the company unscrupulously collected revenues from Indian farmers to buy Indian finished products to be reported to England, Africa and the Americas. In the second phase, (1813-1858) India was exploited both as a source of raw material and a market for British manufactured goods. In 1813, the company lost its monopoly of trading rights in India as per the Charter Act. It has already been mentioned that Adam Smith's critique of the idea of companies enjoying exclusive monopolies in his *Wealth of Nations* encouraged the British government to adopt the policy of free trade. The British East India Company was under attack mainly for the huge private profit enjoyed of the company officials depriving England of its share of gain in the whole enterprise. The Charter Act of 1813 brought an end to mercantile monopoly in India with the introduction of free trade marked by commercialisation of agriculture and entry of cheap, mass produced, machine made British products in the Indian market. As the nature of agricultural production was determined by the demands of the overseas markets, cash crops like indigo, cotton, jute and tea replaced the food crops. The railway network was built up to serve the interest of the British traders as the profit generated through the import trade went directly to British business houses, and millions of Indian farmers died of starvation and epidemics. The systematic drain of wealth from India to England speeded up the pace of Industrial Revolution and development of modern capitalism in Europe while India had to wait till 1947 to break off the shackles of colonial economy and its adverse effects.

8.5.3 Other Four Phases of the British Empire

The British Empire passed through different phases. When the mid-Victorian Empire emerged after the collapse of the old Mercantile Empire, it began to develop four different versions or models of Empire in different regions of the globe which are as the following:

1. In Canada, self-governing settlement colonies were established and they were enjoying almost complete self-rule. In this form of Empire, imperial interference in the affairs of the colony was reduced to a considerable extent.

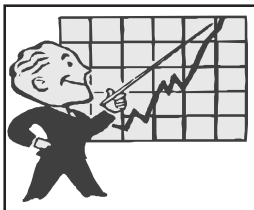
2. The second variety was the colonial dependencies. The essential principle of 'Crown Colony' government was the concentration of both executive and legislative power in the hands of a governor accountable to England. Britain applied this model in Trinidad, captured from the Spanish in 1796. 'Crown Colony' government was a highly flexible formula that allowed the colonial governors to make local agreements with indigenous rules; the local governors had the discretion on who to consult and how to form or select the legislative bodies.

3. Another variety of Empire was the 'Double Government' policy applied in India after the transfer of power from the company to the crown in 1857. It put on end to the company policy of annexing princely states. Thus, the existing 'British India' came under the direct governance of the Crown, while the 'Native State India' ruled by the Indian princes came under the watchful eye of the British 'resident'.

4. Then there was the most characteristic mode of Victorian Empire — 'Informal Empire'. In this form of empire, a country without losing its sovereignty had to compromise on economic and cultural fields to serve the interests of a stronger foreign power. Britain applied the policy of Informal Empire in some Latin American countries like Argentina. Argentina with the large-scale ownership of banks and transport infrastructure by the British merchants was an example

of how an empire could thrive and flourish without any formal political annexation. For example, in China, the British merchants gained the right to trade in a number of 'treaty ports' and their activities remained free from the Chinese administrative control. China's opening the doors of trade to the Europeans was illustrative of the functioning of the British Empire in its extra-territorial form.

It is important to note that Empire was displayed for public appraisal. The Great Exhibition of 1851 and the 1924 Wembley British Empire Exhibition were visited by millions of people. These exhibitions celebrated the achievements of the British Empire and the crowds were made to think that colonisation was a civilising mission, although in reality it was a strategy for economic exploitation and political subordination.



CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

Q 7: What was the nature of the British Empire during its early phase?

Q 8: What is the significance of the Seven Years' War in the colonial scene?

Q 9: What major changes took place in Britain's policy of colonisation of India after 1813?

Q 10: What were the four varieties of the British Empire?

8.6 IMPERIALISM AND EXPANSION

'Colonialism' and 'Imperialism' are sometimes used in synonymous terms. But, there are marked differences between the two ideas and their application. Imperialism is the continuation of the colonial practice of domination often without actual settlements in the non-European spaces. The British Empire attempted and also succeeded in controlling the non-European regions through economic strategies like slave labour, capitalism, trade restrictions and mercenary expansion of the European power. By the end of the 20th century, political control of the colonies moved from the

Europeans to the natives. However, economically, the native population is still under the control of the European and American power. Even after official decolonisation, the free nation-states continue to suffer from economic exploitation. Therefore, these states may still be called 'imperial', although they are post-colonial in the temporal sense.

Imperialism is usually seen as a recent phenomenon. J. A. Hobson, one of the classical theorists of Imperialism, in his book *Imperialism: A Study* (1902) mentioned the year 1870 is the origin of Imperialism. V.I. Lenin, on the other hand, argues in his *Imperialism: The Highest Stage of Capitalism* (1916) that it began in 1900 as capitalism had reached a new stage of development after 1900. Hobson explains the rise of Imperialism as the offshoot of the concentration of incomes in the hands of the upper classes. According to him, imperial expansion opened outlets for investment of the surplus capital by that particular group. Lenin, too, saw Imperialism as the outcome of the capitalist markets and industries which acquired new outlets for goods and capital. Both Hobson and Lenin maintained that imperialism is economic in its origin and manifestation. However, the critics of Hobson and Lenin point out that Imperialism is more than an economic affair.

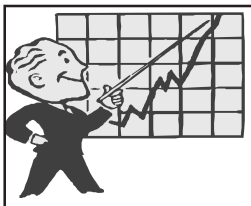
Ronald Robinson and John Gallagher's study of the 'scramble' for Africa shows that Britain did not acquire colonies in Africa as outlets for surplus capital. Britain's intention was to defend the routes to India via the Cape of Good Hope and Suez Canal. Robinson and Gallagher, however, did not dismiss the fact that India itself was a primary concern for the Britain administration for the avenues of trade and investment in the subcontinent. Thus, the Imperialism of free trade built up an informal empire that thrived, not upon formal annexation, but on forcing potential trading partners to open their doors. Recently, P.J. Cain and A.G. Hopkins have come up with a new theory of Imperialism which highlight the close association of the business elite in the service sector (egg, trade, finance and the related services such as shipping and insurance) with the British policy makers as the prime reason behind the imperial expansion particularly after 1850.



LET US KNOW

The discussion on Colonialism and Imperialism in this unit might have left the impression that it is only a political and economic phenomenon. However, colonialism has a cultural dimension as well. On the one hand, there is an argument of 'colonial modernity' according to which modernisation, secularisation and development of the Asian and African countries would have been impossible without the project of colonisation undertaken by the West. But, majority of the recent cultural historians point out that besides the political and economic evils of colonialism (loss of independence, loss of territorial integrity, economic exploitation in multiple ways, etc.), it always had the secret agenda of distorting the culture of the indigenous people.

Although there is no single explanation of the driving force behind Imperialism, by the early 20the century, the British covered approximately a quarter of the globe. However, at the same time, it is to be noted that the new phase of Imperialism since 1870 to 1912, was also a period of constant rivalries among the European colonial powers mainly becomes of the rise of new colonial powers like Germany and Russia.



CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

Q 11: What is 'Imperialism'?

Q 12: What are the evils of Colonialism according to some cultural historians?



8.7 LET US SUM UP

As you finish reading this unit, you find that in the last two decades of the 20th century, there has been a profound shift in the way colonial domination and imperial expansion have been understood. Colonialism is not simply about extending formal and informal political influence or

establishing of economic domination. It also represents the desire of the coloniser, to exert mastery over the colonised society through a variety of strategies. These strategies are seen through different discursive practices like the studies in the colonial history, anthropology, sociology, language, literature, travel writing and so on by the colonial officers often employed in the services of the colonial regime. This fund of colonial knowledge was employed by the colonial power for maintaining control over the colonies. India, being one of the largest colonies of Britain, figured prominently in the British imagination. For instance, the idea of India as an uncivilised place to be brought into civilisation by British rule had circulated widely in the Mid-Victorian England. Although official decolonisation of countries like India, Africa and Latin America was almost complete by the 6th decade of the 20th century, Colonialism in an insidious way is still continuing in the form of Neo-colonialism and Globalisation.



8.8 FURTHER READING

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8.9 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS (HINTS ONLY)

Ans to Q No 1: The 16th century Renaissance spirit encouraged overseas explorations… …Vasco de Gama discovered an eastern route to India via the southern tip of Africa, Spain, Portugal and Netherlands… …the Atlantic region became open for the overseas expansion of trade.

Ans to Q No 2: The Hundred Years' War with France (1337-1453) aroused the English nationalist feeling… … consolidations of the nationalist

consciousness in 15th century and the sense of an English identity … …a nationalist urge to establish the might and pride of the nation in the Americas and Asia.

Ans to Q No 3: The trading companies enjoyed considerable freedom to frame rules for expanding British trade and commerce… …but these companies certainly needed some sort of protection from their own governments in the event of attack by the rival Europeans… …the British crown, however, granted charters to companies like Virginia or Massachusetts granting authority over the trade of a designated tract.

Ans to Q No 4: Adam Smith in his book *Wealth of Nations* insisted on commercial freedom for encouraging productivity and maximum wealth… …he prescribed access to markets, supplies and customers… …he was against the idea of Administrative Empire as a waste of money and power of the governments.

Ans to Q No 5: When France was defeated in 1815, there was virtually no one to pose a serious threat to Britain's increasing dominance in trade. Subsequently, there emerged "Empire of rule" as against "Empire of settlement" to maintain Britain's superiority over other powerful nations of the globe.

Ans to Q No 6: One is the establishment of the Royal Graphical Society in 1830 enlarged British trade even in the little known regions of the world… …The other is John Arrowsmith's great Atlas providing necessary guidelines to these hitherto unknown regions of the world.

Ans to Q No 7: The British Empire was a maritime, overseas and commercial endeavours held together by trade and settlement, and defended by naval power.

Ans to Q No 8: Seven Years' War ended with the Treaty of Paris… …the war involved Europe, India, North America, the Caribbean, the Philippines and the coastal Africa… …the treaty consolidated the position of Britain as a major power.

Ans to Q No 9: The Charter Act of 1813 brought an end to the British mercantile monopoly in India… …free trade was marked by

commercialisation of agriculture… …agricultural production was determined by the demands of the overseas markets… …the railway network was built up… …huge profit generated through import and export.

Ans to Q No 10: Self governing settlement colonies as in Canada… …'Crown Colony' as applied by Britain applied in Trinidad… …'Double Government' policy as was applied in India… …'Informal Empire' as applied in some Latin American countries like Argentina.

Ans to Q No 11: Imperialism is the continuation of the colonial practice of domination often without actual settlements in the non-European setting.

Ans to Q No 12: Loss of independence, loss of territorial integrity, economic exploitation in multiple ways, etc. are some of the evils of Colonialism having a secret agenda of distorting the culture of the indigenous people.



8.10 POSSIBLE QUESTIONS

Q 1: Give a brief sketch of the origin and development of British colonialism from the early 16th century till the end of the 18th.

Q 2: What were the factors behind the spurt of colonial activities in its first phase of expansion in Asia and the Atlantic?

Q 3: What were the two phases of the British Empire? What differences do you find in them?

Q 4: Explain the nature of the Second Empire and trace its development and consequences in colonial India.

Q 5: Comment on the variety of available views on 'Imperialism'.

Q 6: Assess the consequences of Colonialism and Imperialism keeping in view the far reaching impact on the economy and culture of the colonial territories of Asia and Africa.

Q 7: In what ways, did the colonial expansion, also gave birth to various conflicts of interests? Explain in detail with examples.

*** ***** ***



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