



**SURESH**  
**GYAN VIHAR**  
**UNIVERSITY**  
Accredited by NAAC with 'A+' Grade

**Master of Arts**

**(History)**

**HISTORY OF MAJOR REVOLUTIONS**  
**(1750-1950 A.D.)**

**Semester-II**

**Author- Ashphak Ahmad**

**SURESH GYAN VIHAR UNIVERSITY**  
**Centre for Distance and Online Education**  
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Tel.: (011) 28520627 | Ph.: 9625993408

Email: [info@sbprakashan.com](mailto:info@sbprakashan.com) | Web.: [www.sbprakashan.com](http://www.sbprakashan.com)

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# INDEX

## UNIT I

FRENCH REVOLUTION 5

## UNIT II

RUSSIAN REVOLUTION 18

## UNIT III

CHINESE REVOLUTION 36

## UNIT IV

INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION 61

## UNIT V

AMERICAN REVOLUTION 79

## **LEARNING OUTCOMES**

**The students will be able to understand:**

### **UNIT -1**

- Understanding the socio-economic, political, and cultural factors that led to the French Revolution.
- Analysis of the grievances of different social classes.
- Recognition of the historical and cultural contexts that shaped religious and philosophical developments.

### **UNIT -2**

- Mastery of the ideas of Enlightenment thinkers and their influence on the French Revolution.
- Analysis of how Enlightenment ideals manifested in revolutionary actions.
- In-depth understanding of the teachings and philosophy of the Bhagavad Gita

### **UNIT -3**

- Understanding the political and social conditions of the Russian Empire in 1914.
- Recognition of the challenges faced by the Russian society.
- Understanding the principles and practices of Jainism.

### **UNIT-4**

- Mastery of the immediate and long-term impacts of the Russian Revolution.
- Recognition of the changes in governance, economy, and society.
- Engagement with scholarly discussions surrounding the original home and identity of the Aryans.

### **UNIT-5**

- Understanding the historical context of foreign influence and control in China.
- Analysis of the impact on Chinese society and governance.
- Recognition of the challenges and experiences faced by women during the partition..

# **HISTORY OF MAJOR REVOLUTIONS (1789-1949 A.D.) SYLLABUS**

## **UNIT I**

### **FRENCH REVOLUTION**

Introduction, French Revolutions of 1789, 1830 and 1848, Reasons behind French Revolution, Three Estates, Unpopular Monarchy & financial troubles, Role of Enlightenment Thinkers, Impact/Constructive Criticism

## **UNIT II**

### **RUSSIAN REVOLUTION**

Introduction, The Russian Empire In 1914, Socialism in Russia, Russian Revolution of 1905, Causes of Russian Revolution, The First World War & The Russian Revolution, Impacts of Russian Revolution

## **UNIT III**

### **CHINESE REVOLUTION**

Introduction, Chinese Revolutions of 1911 and 1949, Control of China by other countries, Unfair treatment of peasants, Young people's desire to modernize China, End of Dynasties in China, Culture of Fear in China caused by Red Guard, Destruction of Schools in pursuit of stamping out any reminder of the past, Failing Economy because the Red Guard put so many workers out of work

## **UNIT IV**

### **INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION**

Introduction, Industrial Revolution, History of Methods of Production before Industrial Revolution, Industrial Revolution first in England, Components of Industrial Revolution, Impact of Industrial Revolution

## **UNIT V**

### **AMERICAN REVOLUTION**

Introduction, American Revolution (1765), Reasons for American resentments against the British, Mercantile Capitalism, Royal Proclamation of 1763, Role of Enlightenment Thinkers, No Representation in British Parliament, Intolerable Acts of 1774, The Philadelphia Congress

# FRENCH REVOLUTION

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## STRUCTURE

- 1.1 Learning Objective
- 1.2 Introduction
- 1.3 French Revolutions of 1789, 1830 and 1848
- 1.4 Reasons behind French Revolution
- 1.5 Three Estates
- 1.6 Unpopular Monarchy & Financial Troubles
- 1.7 Role of Enlightenment Thinkers
- 1.8 Impact/Constructive Criticism
- 1.9 Chapter Summary
- 1.10 Review Questions
- 1.11 Multiple Choice Questions



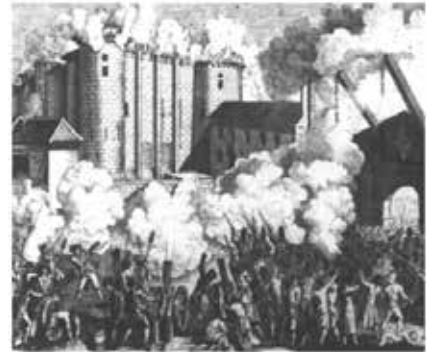
## 1.1 LEARNING OBJECTIVE

After completing this unit, students will be able to:

- Learn about French Revolution
- Understand the reasons behind French Revolution
- Know about the 'three estates'
- Learn about the role of enlightenment thinkers

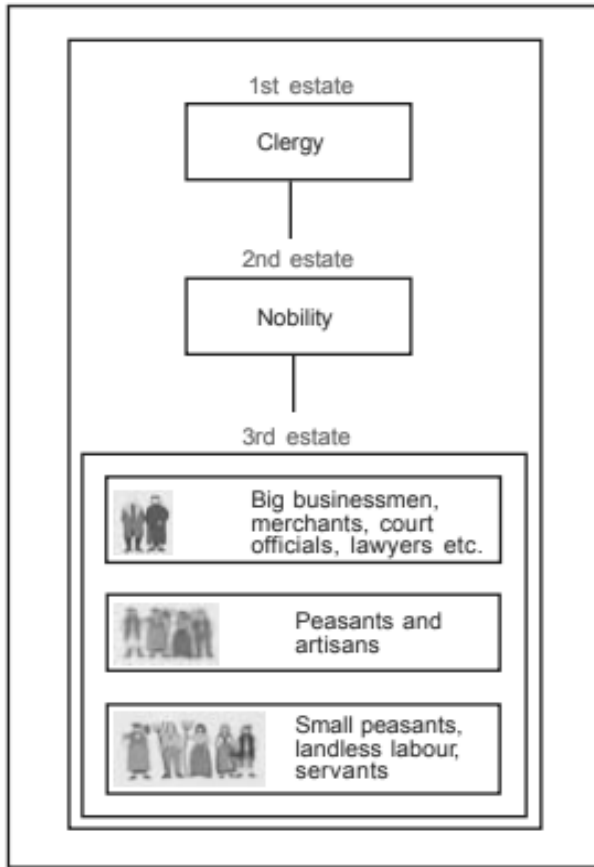
## 1.2 INTRODUCTION

On the morning of 14 July 1789, the city of Paris was in a state of alarm. The king had commanded troops to move into the city. Rumors spread that he would soon order the army to open fire upon the citizens. Some 7,000 men and women gathered in front of the town hall and decided to form a peoples' militia. They broke into a number of government buildings in search of arms. Finally, a group of several hundred people marched towards the eastern part of the city and stormed the fortress-prison, the Bastille, where



they hoped to find hoarded ammunition. In the armed fight that followed, the commander of the Bastille was killed and the prisoners released though there were only seven of them. Yet the Bastille was hated by all, because it stood for the despotic power of the king. The fortress was demolished and its stone fragments were sold in the markets to all those who wished to keep a souvenir of its destruction. The days that followed saw more rioting both in Paris and the countryside. Most people were protesting against the high price of bread. Much later, when historians looked back upon this time, they saw it as the beginning of a chain of events that ultimately led to the execution of the king in France, though most people at the time did not anticipate this outcome. How and why did this happen?

In 1774, Louis XVI of the Bourbon family of kings ascended the throne of France. He was 20 years old and married to the Austrian princess Marie Antoinette. Upon his accession the new king found an empty treasury. Long years of war had drained the financial resources of France. Added to this was the cost of maintaining an extravagant court at the immense palace of Versailles. Under Louis XVI, France helped the thirteen American colonies to gain their independence from the common enemy, Britain. The war added more than a billion livres to a debt that had already risen to more than 2 billion livres. Lenders who gave the state credit, now began to charge 10 per cent interest on loans. So, the French government was obliged to spend an increasing percentage of its budget on interest payments alone. To meet its regular expenses, such as the cost of maintaining an army, the court, running government offices or universities, the state was forced to increase taxes. Yet even this measure would not have sufficed. French society in the eighteenth century was divided into three estates, and only members of the third estate paid taxes. The society of estates was part of the feudal system that dated back to the middle ages. The term Old Regime is usually used to describe the society and institutions of France before 1789.



The given figure shows how the system of estates in French society was organized. Peasants made up about 90 per cent of the population. However, only a small number of them owned the land they cultivated. About 60 per cent of the land was owned by nobles, the Church and other richer members of the third estate. The members of the first two estates, that is, the clergy and the nobility, enjoyed certain privileges by birth. The most important of these was exemption from paying taxes to the state. The nobles further enjoyed feudal privileges. These included feudal dues, which they extracted from the peasants. Peasants were obliged to render services to the lord  $\bar{n}$  to work in his house and fields  $\bar{n}$  to serve in the army or to participate in building roads. The Church too extracted its share of taxes called tithes from the peasants, and finally, all members of

NOTES



the third estate had to pay taxes to the state. These included a direct tax, called *taille*, and a number of indirect taxes which were levied on articles of everyday consumption like salt or tobacco. The burden of financing activities of the state through taxes was borne by the third estate alone.

### 1.3 FRENCH REVOLUTION OF 1789, 1830 AND 1848

#### Beginning

The French involvement in the American Revolution of 1776 was a costly affair that left the country in a state of near bankruptcy. King Louis's extravagant spending also did not help matters. Empty royal coffers, poor harvests and rise in food prices had created feelings of unrest among the poor rural and urban populace. The matter was further worsened by the imposition of taxes that provided no relief. As a result, rioting, looting and general strikes became the norm.

Towards the end of 1786, a universal land tax was proposed by the controller general, Charles Alexandre de Calonne. This tax reform would no longer exempt the privileged classes like the clergy and the nobility as had been the case for centuries. The King summoned the Estates-General to pass these measures. The Estates-General was an assembly that represented the French nobility clergy and the middle class. The last time the Estates-General was called was in 1614. The date of the meeting was fixed on May 5 1789, where grievances of the three estates would be presented to the king.



## NOTES



## Stages of French – Revolution

### Stage I – The meeting of the Estates-General

Despite the non-aristocratic members outnumbering the aristocrats in terms of population. Yet, they could be outvoted by the other two bodies. Before the meeting of the Estates-General on May 5, members of the Third Estate (as the non-aristocratic class was known) began to mobilize the support of equal voting rights which would be on the basis of head and not by status

While the middle-class was of the opinion that fiscal and judicial reform was the need of the hour, the nobles were against the idea of giving up the privileges they had enjoyed under the traditional system. When the meeting was convened, the question over the voting process turned to open hostility between the three orders, thus the original purpose of the meeting and the authority of the king who called for it being neglected.

With further talks having failed the Third estate met alone and formally adopted the title of National assembly on June 17, 1789. They gathered in a nearby indoor tennis court and took the oath of office. This oath was known as the Tennis Court Oath. The members of this new assembly vowed not to disperse until reforms have been initiated. Seeing no other option Louis XVI had absorb the three assemblies into the new order.

### Stage II – The French Revolution Begins

The National Assembly continued to meet at Versailles. In the meantime, fear and violence had consumed Paris. Speculations went around regarding an imminent military coup. This led to an insurgency which resulted in the taking of Bastille fortress on July 14, 1789. This event marked the beginning of the French Revolution.

A wave of revolutionary fervor spread throughout the countryside, which led to a peasant's revolt that saw many homes of tax collectors and burnt as well as those of the aristocrats themselves. The rebellions caused the nobles of the country to flee in masse. This period is known as the Great Fear when the National Assembly finally dealt a fatal blow to feudalism on August 4, 1789. The old order had finally ended.

### Stage III – Declaration of Rights of Man

The National Assembly adopted the Rights of Man and of the Citizen on August 4, 1789. The charter was grounded on democratic principles, drawing from philosophical as well as political ideas of Enlightenment thinkers like Jena-Jacques Rousseau. The declaration was published on August 26, 1789. The constitution was adopted on September 3, 1791. It symbolized a new French society where the king would have limited powers with a moderate assembly wield the most power.

This, however, was not enough for the radical elements of the assembly like Georges Danton and Maximilien de Robespierre, who demanded a trial of the king and a more republican form of government. The French constitution was adopted on September 3, 1791. Although it was moderate in its stance by limiting the powers of the king, it was not enough for the more radical members of the assembly like Maximilien de Robespierre who wanted Loise XVI to stand trial.



### Stage IV – Reign of Terror

The revolution took a more radical turn when a group of insurgents attacked the royal residence in Paris and arrested Louis XVI on August 10, 1792. The following month many who were accused of being the ‘enemies of the revolution’ were massacred in Paris. Some of these included the moderate voices of the revolution. The Legislative Assembly was replaced by the National Convention which proclaimed the establishment of the Republic of France and the abolition of the Monarchy. King Louis XVI was condemned to death on January 21, 1793, and executed for treason. His wife, Marie Antoinette would follow him nine months later.

The execution of the king marked the beginning of the most violent and turbulent phase of the French Revolution – the Reign of Terror. The National Convention was under the control of an extremist faction led by Robespierre. Under his auspices, thousands were executed for suspected treason and counter-revolutionary activities. The Reign of Terror ended until Robespierre’s own execution on July 28, 1794. Robespierre’s death began a moderate phase during which the people of France revolted against the excesses committed during the Reign of Terror. This was known as the Thermidorian Reaction.

### Stage V – End of the French Revolution

On August 22, 1795, the National Convention, now composed of moderates who had survived the excesses of the Reign of Terror approved the creation of a new constitution that created France’s bicameral legislature. The power would be in the hands of the Directory, a five-member group appointed by the parliament. Any opposition to this group was removed through the efforts of the army, now led by an upcoming and successful general, Napoleon Bonaparte.

The Directory’s rule was marked by financial crises and corruption. In addition, they had ceded much of their authority to the army that had helped them stay in power. Finally, resentment against the Directory reached fever pitch and a coup d’état was staged by Napoleon himself, toppling them from power. Napoleon appointed himself “first consul”. The French Revolution was over and the Napoleonic era was about to begin during which time French domination continental Europe would become the norm.

## 1.4 REASONS BEHIND FRENCH REVOLUTION

1. **Social** – The social conditions in France in the late 18th century were extremely unequal and exploitative. The clergy and the nobility formed the first two Estates and were the most privileged classes in French society. They were exempt from payment of taxes to the State. On the other hand, the Third Estate that consisted of peasants and workers formed the majority of the population. They were burdened with excessive taxes with no political and social rights. As a result, they were extremely discontent.
2. **Economic** – As a result of numerous wars waged by Louis XVI the State coffers were empty. The situation was made even more complex by France’s involvement in the American War of Independence and the faulty system of taxation. While the privileged classes were excused from paying taxes the Third Estate was more and more burdened with them.

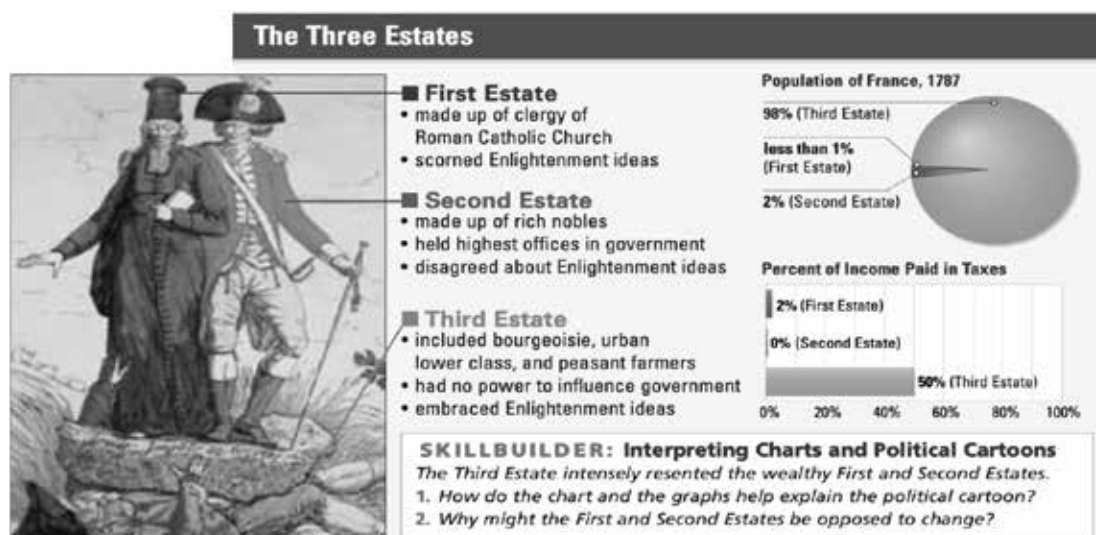
NOTES 

3. **Political** – The Bourbon king of France, Louis XVI was an extremely autocratic and weak-willed king who led a life of obscene luxury. This led to a lot of disenchantment among the masses who then were leading life of extreme poverty and widespread hunger.
4. **Intellectual** – The 18th century was marked by a conscious refusal by French thinkers of the ‘Divine Rights Theory’. Philosophers like Rousseau rejected the paradigm of absolute monarchy and promulgated the doctrine of equality of man and sovereignty of people. They played a pivotal role in exposing the fault lines of the old political system, i.e. the ancient regime, and articulating the popular discontent.

## 1.5 THREE ESTATES

### Old Regime

In the 1770s, the system of feudalism left over from the Middle Ages—called the **Old Regime**—remained in place. The people of France were still divided into three large social classes, or **estates**.



**The Privileged Estates** Two of the estates had privileges, including access to high offices and exemptions from paying taxes, that were not granted to the members of the third. The Roman Catholic Church, whose clergy formed the **First Estate**, owned 10 percent of the land in France. It provided education and relief services to the poor and contributed about 2 percent of its income to the government.

The **Second Estate** was made up of rich nobles, much of whose wealth was in land. Although they made up only 2 percent of the population, the nobles owned 20 percent of the land and paid almost no taxes. The majority of the clergy and the nobility scorned Enlightenment ideas as radical notions that threatened their status and power as privileged persons.

**The Third Estate** About 98 percent of the people belonged to the Third Estate. The three groups that made up this estate differed greatly in their economic conditions.

- The first group—the bourgeoisie (BUR•zhwah•ZEE) were merchants and artisans. They were well-educated and believed strongly in the Enlightenment ideals of liberty and equality. Although some of the bourgeoisie were as rich as nobles, they paid high taxes and lacked privileges like the other members of the Third Estate. Many felt that their wealth entitled them to a greater degree of social status and political power.
- The workers of France's cities—cooks, servants, and others—formed the second group within the Third Estate, a group poorer than the bourgeoisie. Paid low wages and frequently out of work, they often went hungry. If the cost of bread rose, mobs of these workers might attack carts of grain and bread to steal what they needed.
- Peasants formed the largest group within the Third Estate—more than 80 percent of France's 26 million people. Peasants paid about half their income in dues to nobles, tithes to the church, and taxes to the king's agents. They even paid taxes on such basic staples as salt. Peasants joined the urban poor in resenting the clergy and the nobles for their privileges and special the heavily taxed and discontented Third Estate was eager for change.

NOTES



## 1.6 UNPOPULAR MONARCHY AND FINANCIAL TROUBLES

In addition to the growing resentment of the lower classes, other factors were contributing to the revolutionary mood in France.

**Enlightenment Ideas:** New views about power and authority in government were spreading among the Third Estate. The people began questioning long-standing notions about the structure of society and using words like *equality*, *liberty*, and *democracy*. The success of the American Revolution inspired them, and they discussed the radical ideas of Rousseau and Voltaire.

**Economic Woes:** France's Once Prosperous economy was failing. The Population Is expanding rapidly, as were trade and production. However, the heavy burden of taxes made it impossible to conduct business profitably within France. The cost of living rose for everyone. In addition, bad weather in the 1780s caused widespread crop failures, resulting in a severe shortage of grain. The price of bread doubled in 1789, and many people faced starvation.

During this period, France's government sank deeply into debt. Extravagant spending by the King and Queen was part of the problem. **Louis XVI**, who became king in 1774, inherited part of the debt from his predecessors. He also borrowed heavily in order to help the American revolutionaries in their war against Great Britain—France's chief rival—thereby nearly doubling the government's debt. When bankers, in 1786, refused to lend the government any more money, Louis faced serious problems.

**A Weak Leader** Strong leadership might have prevented the coming crisis, but Louis XVI was indecisive and allowed matters to drift. He paid little attention to his government advisers, preferring to spend his time hunting or tinkering with locks rather than attending to the details of governing.

Louis had married his wife, **Marie Antoinette**, when he was 15 and she was 14. Because

## NOTES



Marie was a member of the royal family of Austria, France's long-time enemy, she became unpopular as soon as she set foot in France. As queen, Marie spent so much money on gowns, jewels, and gifts that she became known as Madame Deficit.

The population of France rose from about 23 million in 1715 to 28 million in 1789. This led to a rapid increase in the demand for food grains. Production of grains could not keep pace with the demand. So, the price of bread which was the staple diet of the majority rose rapidly. Most workers were employed as laborers' in workshops whose owners fixed their wages. But wages did not keep pace with the rise in prices. So, the gap between the poor and the rich widened. Things became worse whenever drought or hail reduced the harvest.

### 1.7 ROLE OF ENLIGHTENMENT THINKERS

The heart of the eighteenth-century Enlightenment is the loosely organized activity of prominent French thinkers of the mid-decades of the eighteenth century, the so-called "philosophes" (e.g., Voltaire, D'Alembert, Diderot, Montesquieu). The philosophes constituted an informal society of men of letters who collaborated on a loosely defined project of Enlightenment exemplified by the project of the Encyclopedia (see below 1.5). However, there are noteworthy centers of Enlightenment outside of France as well. There is a renowned Scottish Enlightenment (key figures are Frances Hutcheson, Adam Smith, David Hume, Thomas Reid), a German Enlightenment (die Aufklärung, key figures of which include Christian Wolff, Moses Mendelssohn, G.E. Lessing and Immanuel Kant), and there are also other hubs of Enlightenment and Enlightenment thinkers scattered throughout Europe and America in the eighteenth century.

What makes for the unity of such tremendously diverse thinkers under the label of "Enlightenment"? For the purposes of this entry, the Enlightenment is conceived broadly. D'Alembert, a leading figure of the French Enlightenment, characterizes his eighteenth century, in the midst of it, as "the century of philosophy par excellence", because of the tremendous intellectual and scientific progress of the age, but also because of the expectation of the age that philosophy (in the broad sense of the time, which includes the natural and social sciences) would dramatically improve human life. Guided by D'Alembert's characterization of his century, the Enlightenment is conceived here as having its primary origin in the scientific revolution of the 16th and 17th centuries.

The rise of the new science progressively undermines not only the ancient geocentric conception of the cosmos, but also the set of presuppositions that had served to constrain and guide philosophical inquiry in the earlier times. The dramatic success of the new science in explaining the natural world promotes philosophy from a handmaiden of theology, constrained by its purposes and methods, to an independent force with the power and authority to challenge the old and construct the new, in the realms both of theory and practice, on the basis of its own principles. Taking as the core of the Enlightenment the aspiration for intellectual progress, and the belief in the power of such progress to improve human society and individual lives, this entry includes descriptions of relevant aspects of the thought of earlier thinkers, such as Hobbes, Locke, Descartes, Bayle, Leibniz, and Spinoza, thinkers whose contributions are indispensable to understanding the eighteenth century as "the century of philosophy par excellence".



The Enlightenment is often associated with its political revolutions and ideals, especially the French Revolution of 1789. The energy created and expressed by the intellectual foment of Enlightenment thinkers contributes to the growing wave of social unrest in France in the eighteenth century. The social unrest comes to a head in the violent political upheaval which sweeps away the traditionally and hierarchically structured *ancien régime* (the monarchy, the privileges of the nobility, the political power of the Catholic Church).

The French revolutionaries meant to establish in place of the *ancien régime* a new reason-based order instituting the Enlightenment ideals of liberty and equality. Though the Enlightenment, as a diverse intellectual and social movement, has no definite end, the devolution of the French Revolution into the Terror in the 1790s, corresponding, as it roughly does, with the end of the eighteenth century and the rise of opposed movements, such as Romanticism, can serve as a convenient marker of the end of the Enlightenment, conceived as an historical period.

For Enlightenment thinkers themselves, however, the Enlightenment is not an historical period, but a process of social, psychological or spiritual development, unbound to time or place. Immanuel Kant defines “enlightenment” in his famous contribution to debate on the question in an essay entitled “An Answer to the Question: What is Enlightenment?” (1784), as humankind’s release from its self-incurred immaturity; “immaturity is the inability to use one’s own understanding without the guidance of another.” Expressing convictions shared among Enlightenment thinkers of widely divergent doctrines, Kant identifies enlightenment with the process of undertaking to think for oneself, to employ and rely on one’s own intellectual capacities in determining what to believe and how to act.

Enlightenment philosophers from across the geographical and temporal spectrum tend to have a great deal of confidence in humanity’s intellectual powers, both to achieve systematic knowledge of nature and to serve as an authoritative guide in practical life. This confidence is generally paired with suspicion or hostility toward other forms or carriers of authority (such as tradition, superstition, prejudice, myth and miracles), insofar as these are seen to compete with the authority of one’s own reason and experience.

Enlightenment philosophy tends to stand in tension with established religion, insofar as the release from self-incurred immaturity in this age, daring to think for oneself, awakening one’s intellectual powers, generally requires opposing the role of established religion in directing thought and action. The faith of the Enlightenment – if one may call it that – is that the process of enlightenment, of becoming progressively self-directed in thought and action through the awakening of one’s intellectual powers, leads ultimately to a better, more fulfilled human existence.

## **1.8 IMPACT/CONSTRUCTIVE CRITICISM**

The French Revolution had a major impact on Europe and the New World. Historians widely regard the Revolution as one of the most important events in European history. In the short-term, France lost thousands of its countrymen in the form of *émigrés*, or emigrants who wished to escape political tensions and save their lives. A number of individuals settled in the neighboring countries (chiefly Great Britain, Germany and Austria), while some settled in Russia, and many also went to Canada and the United States.

## NOTES



The displacement of these Frenchmen led to a spread of French culture, policies regulating immigration, and a safe haven for Royalists and other counterrevolutionaries to outlast the violence of the French Revolution. The long-term impact on France was profound, shaping politics, society, religion and ideas, and politics for more than a century. The closer other countries were, the greater and deeper was the French impact, bringing liberalism and the end of many feudal or traditional laws and practices. However, there was also a conservative counter-reaction that defeated Napoleon, reinstated the Bourbon kings, and in some ways reversed the new reforms.

Most of the new nations created by France were abolished and returned to prewar owners in 1814. However, Frederick Artz emphasizes the benefits the Italians gained from the French Revolution:

For nearly two decades the Italians had the excellent codes of law, a fair system of taxation, a better economic situation, and more religious and intellectual toleration than they had known for centuries.... Everywhere old physical, economic, and intellectual barriers had been thrown down and the Italians had begun to be aware of a common nationality. Likewise in Switzerland the long-term impact of the French Revolution has been assessed by Martin:

It proclaimed the equality of citizens before the law, equality of languages, freedom of thought and faith; it created a Swiss citizenship, basis of our modern nationality, and the separation of powers, of which the old regime had no conception; it suppressed internal tariffs and other economic restraints; it unified weights and measures, reformed civil and penal law, authorized mixed marriages (between Catholics and Protestants), suppressed torture and improved justice; it developed education and public works.

The greatest impact came in France itself. In addition to effects similar to those in Italy and Switzerland, France saw the introduction of the principle of legal equality, and the downgrading of the once powerful and rich Catholic Church to just a bureau controlled by the government. Power became centralized in Paris, with its strong bureaucracy and an army supplied by conscripting all young men. French politics were permanently polarized—'left' and 'right' were the new terms for the supporters and opponents of the principles of the Revolution.

## 1.9 CHAPTER SUMMARY

**French Revolution**, Movement that shook France between 1787 and 1799, reaching its first climax in 1789, and ended the ancient régime. Causes of the French Revolution included the loss of peasant support for the feudal system, broad acceptance of the reformist writings of the philosophers, an expanding bourgeoisie that was excluded from political power, a fiscal crisis worsened by participation in the American Revolution, and crop failures in 1788. The efforts of the regime in 1787 to increase taxes levied on the privileged classes initiated a crisis.

In response, Louis XVI convened the Estates-General, made up of clergy, nobility, and the Third Estate (commoners), in 1789. Trying to pass reforms, it swore the Tennis Court Oath not to disperse until France had a new constitution. The king grudgingly concurred



in the formation of the National Assembly, but rumours of an “aristocratic conspiracy” led to the Great Fear of July 1789, and Parisians seized the Bastille on July 1.

The assembly drafted a new constitution that introduced the Declaration of the Rights of Man and of the Citizen, proclaiming liberty, equality, and fraternity. The Constitution of 1791 also established a short-lived constitutional monarchy. The assembly nationalized church lands to pay off the public debt and reorganized the church via the Civil Constitution of the Clergy. The king tried to flee the country but was apprehended at Varennes.

France, newly nationalistic, declared war on Austria and Prussia in 1792, beginning the French Revolutionary Wars. Revolutionaries imprisoned the royal family and massacred nobles and clergy at the Tuileries in 1792. A new assembly, the National Convention—divided between Girondins and the extremist Montagnards—abolished the monarchy and established the First Republic in September 1792. Louis XVI was judged by the National Convention and executed for treason on Jan. 21, 1793.

The Montagnards seized power and adopted radical economic and social policies that provoked violent reactions, including the Wars of the Vendée and citizen revolts. Opposition was broken by the Reign of Terror. Military victories in 1794 brought a change in the public mood, and Maximilien Robespierre was overthrown in the Convention on 9 Thermidor, year II (in 1794 in the French republican calendar), and executed the next day.

Royalists tried to seize power in Paris but were crushed by Napoleon on 13 Vendémiaire, year IV (in 1795). A new constitution placed executive power in a Directory of five members. The war and schisms in the Directory led to disputes that were settled by coups d'état, chiefly those of 18 Fructidor, Year V (in 1797), and 18–19 Brumaire, Year VIII (in 1799), in which Napoleon abolished the Directory and declared himself leader of France.

For all its faults, the French Revolution is highly regarded as the turning point in modern history as the rise of new ideas steeped in liberalism, enlightenment and democracy. These ideals were carried throughout Europe by French armies that fought many wars in order to preserve the Republic's existence. It inspired the common folk in Europe to rise up against their own Monarchs in a wave of revolutionary fervor. Although most were harshly put down, the revolutions would continue into the early years of the 19th century which saw the fall of much absolute Monarchy all over Europe. Above all, the French Revolution brought an end to feudalism and made a path for future advances in broadly defined individual freedoms.

## 1.10 REVIEW QUESTIONS

### SHORT ANSWER TYPE QUESTIONS

1. Why did the French Revolution happen?
2. What were the impacts of French Revolution?
3. What do you understand by ‘Three Estates’?
4. What were the financial troubles faced by the French? Explain with suitable reasons.
5. What does ‘Reign of Terror’ signify?





## LONG ANSWER TYPE QUESTIONS

1. The French Revolution was not only a popular uprising against the absolute power of the king but was also against the privileges and wealth of the elite. Elaborate.
2. Although it failed to achieve all of its goals and at times turned violent, the French Revolution played a critical role in shaping modern nations by showing the world the power inherent in the will of the people. What's your take on it?
3. How did French Revolution succeed?
4. What role did enlightenment thinkers played in French Revolution?
5. Explain all the stages of French Revolution in detail.

### 1.11 MULTIPLE CHOICE QUESTIONS

1. French Revolution took place in?
  - a. 1789-1799
  - b. 1889-1899
  - c. 1989-1999
  - d. None of these
2. Who was the ruler of France during the revolution?
  - a. Louis XVI
  - b. Marie Antoinette
  - c. Napoleon
  - d. None of these
3. Who formed the National Assembly in France in 1789?
  - a. Third Estate
  - b. Clergy
  - c. Nobility
  - d. Common people
4. To whom was the taxes called Tithes payable by the peasants in the eighteenth-century France?
  - a. Third Estate
  - b. Clergy
  - c. Nobility
  - d. Church
5. Which class of society in France was behind the French Revolution?
  - a. Third Estate
  - b. Middle Class
  - c. Clergy
  - d. Nobility
6. On what charges was Louis XVI of France sentenced to death?
  - a. Treason
  - b. Rousseau

- c. Smuggling
  - d. None of these
7. Which period of France's history is known as 'the Reign of Terror'?
- a. 1793-1794
  - b. 1777-1779
  - c. 1834-1835
  - d. 1931-1932
8. The Third Estate comprised of?
- a. Poor servants and small peasants, landless laborers'
  - b. Peasants and artisan
  - c. Big businessmen, merchants, lawyers etc.
  - d. All the above
9. Which of the following statements is untrue about the Third Estate
- a. The Third Estate was made of the poor only
  - b. Within the Third Estate some were rich and some were poor
  - c. Richer members of the Third Estate owned lands
  - d. Peasants were obliged to serve in the army, or build roads
10. The word 'livres' stands for:
- a. Unit of currency in France
  - b. Tax levied by the Church
  - c. Tax to be paid directly to the state
  - d. None of these

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NOTES



# RUSSIAN REVOLUTION

## STRUCTURE

- 2.1 Learning Objective
- 2.2 Introduction
- 2.3 The Russian Empire In 1914
- 2.4 Socialism in Russia
- 2.5 Russian Revolution of 1905
- 2.6 Causes of Russian Revolution
- 2.7 The First World War & The Russian Revolution
- 2.8 Impacts of Russian Revolution
- 2.9 Chapter Summary
- 2.10 Review Questions
- 2.11 Multiple Choice Questions

## 2.1 LEARNING OBJECTIVE

After completing this unit, students will be able to:

- Learn about the Russian Empire in 1914
- Understand the Socialism in Russia
- Know the causes of Russian Revolution
- Know the history of First World War
- Learn about the impacts of Russian Revolution

## 2.2 INTRODUCTION

Russian Revolution was a series of revolutions of the early 20<sup>th</sup> century. The first revolution took place in 1905. It was followed by the Russian Revolution of 1917. The Russian Revolution of 1917 was actually two revolutions. The first revolution in February overthrew the imperial government. The second revolution in October placed the Bolsheviks in power.

It was a period of political and social revolution that took place in the former Russian Empire and began during the First World War. It was one of the most significant events of the twentieth century that ended centuries of monarchy in Russia and brought forth the first constitutionally communist state in the world.

## 2.3 THE RUSSIAN EMPIRE IN 1914

Russian empire was founded in November, 1721 that expanded across Eurasia and North America, following the end of the Great Northern war. Russia has a history of wars, revolution, autocracy and the idea of socialism which inspired many nations in the world. Tsar Nicholas II ruled the Russian empire in 1914 as an absolute monarchy. Participation of Russia in WWI became the major cause of Russian Revolution. Under the leadership of Tsar Nicholas II of the Romanov dynasty, Russia participated in WWI.



## NOTES



Russia was not like a country like today at that time but it was a huge empire. The empire consists of people of many identities and religions. Christianity was the dominant religion at that time. Catholics, Muslims and Buddhists were the empire included. Loss of war with Japan in 1905 caused a serious disturbance in Saint Petersburg (largest city) and Nicholas was convinced to accept reduction in his power, therefore in March, 1905, Russian parliament called State Dumas was announced by him. Germany was the main threat considered by the Russian Govt. Emperor Peter, the Great (1682-1725) fought a number of wars and extended a huge empire into a major European power. Capital was moved from Moscow to the new model city of Saint Petersburg. Russian empire is the third largest country in history stretching over the three countries – Europe, Asia and North America. On the ideological doctrine of orthodoxy, Autocracy, and nationality, the Russian empire functioned as an absolute monarchy.

### 2.4 SOCIALISM IN RUSSIA

All political parties were illegal in Russia before 1914. The Russian Social Democratic Workers Party was founded in 1898 by socialists who respected Marx's ideas. However, because of government policing, it had to operate as an illegal organization. It set up a newspaper, mobilized workers and organized strikes. Some Russian socialists felt that the Russian peasant custom of dividing land periodically made them natural socialists. So, peasants, not workers, would be the main force of the revolution, and Russia could become socialist more quickly than other countries. Socialists were active in the countryside through the late nineteenth century. They formed the Socialist Revolutionary Party in 1900.

This party struggled for peasants' rights and demanded that land belonging to nobles be transferred to peasants. Social Democrats disagreed with Socialist Revolutionaries about peasants. Lenin felt that peasants were not one united group. Some were poor and others rich, some worked as labourers while others were capitalists who employed workers. Given this 'differentiation' within them, they could not all be part of a socialist movement. The party was divided over the strategy of organization. Vladimir Lenin (who led the Bolshevik group) thought that in a repressive society like Tsarist Russia the party should be disciplined and should control the number and quality of its members. Others (Mensheviks) thought that the party should be open to all (as in Germany).

### 2.5 RUSSIAN REVOLUTION OF 1905

Everybody knows about the Russian Revolution of 1917, but fewer people may know about the series of events that foreshadowed it a dozen years earlier.





The revolution of 1905 was the culmination of structural problems that had been plaguing Tsarist Russia for decades which ultimately caused massive unrest that took over the entire empire. While the regime survived the revolution, Tsar Nicholas II, the last Russian emperor, was eventually forced to issue the October Manifesto which marked the beginning of constitutional monarchy in Russia by granting the establishment of the Russian parliament, Dumas.

In fact, the aftermath of the 1905 revolution was so far-reaching that it changed the country's threads of fate as it planted the seed of a massive change in the Russian social and political landscape. It was the "Great Dress Rehearsal" as referred to by Vladimir Lenin.

Historians and analysts have theorized a number of reasons that contributed to the 1905 revolution, from long-term problems such as the chronic instability of Russian autocratic rule to the trigger events of the Russo-Japanese War and the Bloody Sunday.

### **The Long-term Problems**

#### **The Agrarian Economy**

One of the major causes of the 1905 revolution can be traced back to the Emancipation Edict of 1861 that canceled the institution of Russian serfdom which brewed long-running dissatisfaction in both peasants and landowners.

Before industrialization, Russia was primarily an agrarian country, and roughly a third of its population consisted of serfs who—in Russia's feudal system—were owned by the oligarchic class of landowners. Prior to the abolishment of serfdom, peasants revolted on numerous occasions often violently which eventually led to the Emancipation reform, however, in a way that both the government and landowners profited from it.

The lands were not nationalized outright, rather, the peasants had to continue working on the lands of their former owners and pay installments with interests for decades. The landowners were not so content with the terms of emancipation either as they had lost big portions of their lands along with the free labor the serfs used to provide. The dissatisfaction in both parties gradually turned into rage as the overall economic conditions became worse with the famines striking the empire from 1897 to 1901 and the economic recession leading to widespread unemployment.

#### **The Radicalization of the Educated Class**

Around four decades prior to the revolution of 1905, reforms in the higher education system led to the lifting and easing of many restrictions in the universities which gradually resulted in newfound intellectual freedom among the educated class. With the expansion of universities, there was a rapid growth of journals and newspapers enhancing the circulation of information and ideas across the country which reinforced the acknowledgment of the right to have an independent opinion among the educated class. In the 1890s, the literacy levels had increased among the Russian public, exposing them to more reformist and revolutionary ideas from the west.

#### **Deplorable Work Environment**

Because of its agrarian economy, Russia was unable to keep up with its western competitors such as Britain and France. This caused instability as the Tsarist regime was always afraid to

## NOTES



get into conflict with the west. The rapid economic modernization and industrialization of Russia was an attempt to close this gap but it didn't coincide with political modernization and resulted in unbearable living and working conditions. Thousands of workers worked 11 to 12 hours a day in large factories without any type of legislation to govern their working conditions.

This coupled with the ban of trade unionism resulted in general discontent and frequent worker strikes. These discontented and radicalized workers were central to the revolution as they made up the majority of the protests' participants.

On rare occasions, there were industrialists who cared for their workers but they were harshly criticized for their liberal views by their peers and often were obligated to change their paths. One such industrialist was Savva Morozov whose death in 1905, according to the Russian historian Nataly Viko (Наталия Вико), "over eclipsed" the news of the revolutionary events. He was one of the firsts to introduce the idea of profit-sharing with factory workers but was removed from the Morozov family business as a result.

### **Ethnic Frictions**

Like any empire ruling over a vast geographical area, Russia was home to many different races and ethnicities that were not necessarily treated equally. The oppressive nature of the Russian government led to the alienation of the national minorities as they harbored resentful sentiments toward the government's Justification policies.

### **Trigger Events**

#### **The Russo-Japanese War**

In 1904, Russia faced a surprise attack from Japan and went to war with the country which resulted in repeated humiliating defeats. Nicholas II went to war hoping that a quick defeat of Japan would give him a popularity boost and portray him as a strong leader in the eyes of both his people and the world. However, it all went terribly wrong. In January 1905, the Russian forces had to surrender the Port Arthur naval base in northern China and were then defeated in Manchuria. The biggest defeat, however, came on 27 May 1905 when the Russian Baltic fleet lost 25 of their 35 warships at the battle of Tsushima.

These consecutive defeats were important factors in the 1905 revolution because they took a toll on the already weakened economy and cause more anger among the people of Russia. Moreover, a lot of the Russian army was fighting in Japan and was not present within the borders to protect and support the Tsar.

#### **The Bloody Sunday**

In contrast to the later ones, the revolution of 1905 began in a non-violent manner. In the February of that year, a peaceful procession of around 120 thousand unarmed civilians led by father Georgy Gapon, a Russian Orthodox priest, approached Tsar's winter palace in an attempt to present a petition asking for help from the Tsar himself.

At that point, people still regarded him as their protector and accepted him as the autocratic ruler. They didn't blame him for all of the problems in Russia, but his and advisors and the members of the civil service.

However, the Tsar's army misread the situation and opened fire on the crowd, killing and injuring hundreds of protestors. This was perhaps the most important event that triggered the 1905 revolution and heralded a downward spiral in all the problems in Russia at the time.

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## 2.6 CAUSES OF RUSSIAN REVOLUTION

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The situation in Russia at that time was the major cause of the Russian revolution. There were several reasons for these unbalanced situations which are mentioned below which help you to understand what caused the Russian revolution:

The shortage of food supply, effects of Blood Sunday, and World War I on Russia and its economy and society were some of the major reasons for this revolution.

- Autocracy was one of the major reasons that led to this revolution. Czar Alexander II became famous in Russia when some reforms were brought by him. But the successors after him became very autocratic such as Czar Alexander III and Czar Nicholas II. During their ruling period, various political parties lost their powers such as Meer, Jemstvo, and Duma. There was already unrest among the society and their policies and actions fueled this unrest. Thus, the autocratic rule of the Czars became one of the major reasons.
- Czar Alexander III and his son Czar Nicholas II followed the policy called a policy of Justification of all the systems. Nicholas II declared “ One Czar, One Church, and One Russia “. Only the catholic religion and the Russian language were introduced as per this policy. Even the Russian language was introduced in non-Russian regions as well such as Poland, Lithuania, Finland, and others. This policy created big unrest in Russia.
- The society of Russia was very unbalanced at that time. It consisted of two classes namely the rich and the poor. The rich include all the nobles, feudal lords, and wealthy people whereas the poor class consisted of labourers, peasants, and serfs, etc. Everyone was annoyed in society. For example, the feudal lords lost their lands, political parties lost their powers, and labourers were pissed off because of low salaries, etc.
- A suitable environment of the revolution was created by the rise and activities of Nihilism which influenced the Russian revolution in 1917. Their main aim was only to destroy the rule of Czars. Their preachers came to destroy the existing system of Czars, the social and religious faith, and the creation of a new world. Their Organizations were doing activities to influence the people against the Czars and its system.
- The industrial revolution also influenced this Russian revolution. Various Russian workers were involved in the construction of railways of Trans-Siberia and Trans-Caspian and the construction of these railways led to the development of various factories and Industries in Russia. The rise of consciousness among the labourers led to having the dream to get the country free from the autocratic rule of the Czars.





## 2.7 THE FIRST WORLD WAR AND THE RUSSIAN REVOLUTION

World War I, also known as the Great War and First World War, was a deadly global conflict that originated in Europe. Beginning from 1914 and lasting until 1918, the First World War left with an estimated nine million combatant deaths and 13 million civilian deaths as a direct result of the conflict.

### Origins of World War I

Towards the end of the 19th century, the growing rivalry between European nations became all too apparent. Germany, upon its unification in 1871, was becoming an industrial power and other nations of Europe, specifically France and Britain, felt threatened by this.

Around this time the fracturing Ottoman Empire gave birth to new countries in the Balkan region. One of them, Serbia, was gaining land and power at the expense of the empire of Austria-Hungary. To counter this threat, along with any future ones, the Austro-Hungarian Empire formed an alliance with Germany and Italy to defend each other.

In response, Britain, France and Russia formed the Triple Entente for the same purpose.

During the 1900s both Britain and Germany added bigger and better battleships to their naval arsenals. The rest of Europe also followed suit. By 1914, most of the European countries had their armies ready for war. All it needed was a spark to ignite it. That spark came when Archduke Franz Ferdinand was assassinated in Sarajevo, Bosnia on June 28, 1914.

Franz Ferdinand was the heir to the throne of Austria-Hungary and the man who shot him was a Serb nationalist, Gavrilo Princip. Gavrilo was protesting against Austro-Hungarian rule in Bosnia. Austria-Hungary declared war on Serbia, prompting Russia to mobilize its army to defend Serbia. Germany, in turn, declared war on Russia and on France. To invade France a large German army marched through Belgium, violating its territorial integrity. This drew Britain into the war, since, in 1830, it had made an agreement to defend Belgium if it was ever attacked.

### The making of a Global War

The war drew in many European powers at the time along with their overseas colonies. They were divided into two groups – the Allied Powers and the Central Powers. The Central Powers were made up of Germany, Austria-Hungary and Turkey, while the Allies including France, Britain and its empire, Russia, Italy, Japan and from 1917, the United States of America.

The war was fought along two main lines, or fronts. There was the Western Front, which ran from Belgium, through France to Switzerland, and the Eastern front which ran from the Baltic to the Black Sea. There was also sporadic fighting in the Middle East and along the border between Italy and Austria.

### Events Before and During World War I

Year/Month	Event
1878	Serbia gained independence from the Ottoman Empire



1881	Germany, Austria-Hungary and Italy form the Triple Alliance to defend each other in the event of war
1904	Britain forms the Entente Cordiale with France
1907	Russia Joins with Britain to form the Triple Entente
1908	Austria-Hungary Occupies Bosnia-Herzegovina to stop Serbia from taking control
1912-1913	Balkan Wars are fought between the Balkan League (Serbia, Bulgaria, Greece and Montenegro). The Balkan League is victorious
1914 – June 28	Gavrilo Princip assassinated Archduke Franz Ferdinand in Sarajevo
1914 – July 28	Austria declares war on Serbia. Russia prepares to defend Serbia from Austria
1914 – August 1	Germany declares war on Russia to defend Austria
1914 – August 3	Germany Declares war France, Russia's ally
1914 – August 4	German armies march through Belgium to France. Britain declares war on Germany. World War I begins
1914 – August 26	Germany defeats Russian forces at the battle of Tannenberg
1914 – September	At the battle of the Marne, the Allies halted the German advance on Paris. German victory in the same month ends Russian involvement in East Prussia.
1914 – November	At the end of the battle of Ypres, German forces are prevented from itching the English Channel

### What made World War I different?

The factor that made World War I different was the fact that it was fought from parallel lines of trenches separated from only a short stretch of ground known as “no man’s land”. Trench warfare was necessary as the power, speed and accuracy of the weapons used on both sides made open battle impossible. When soldiers did leave the trenches to launch an attack, often only a few meters of the ground were gained and the cost of casualties was enormous. This led to a stalemate situation that lasted from the end of 1914 until the summer of 1918. Even the use of new weapons such as tanks, nerve gas and aero planes did little to change the situation.

### The Tide Turns

At the end of 1917, following the Russian Revolution, Russia had started peace talks with Germany and German soldiers who had been fighting on the Eastern Front were able to join the fighting in the west, For a while, they outnumbered the Allied forces, but by 8 September 1918 over 1,20,000 well-trained and well-equipped forces of the United States joined the allies in France. This changed the balance power in favor of the Allies. By

NOTES 

the End of October, all German occupied-France and Belgium had been reclaimed with Turkey and Austria-Hungary having been defeated.

### Important Battles of World War I

Year/Month	Event
1915	British naval blockade of Germany leads to a German submarine blockade of Britain
1915 – April – May	Germany uses poison gas for the first time at the second battle of Ypres
1915 – May 22	Italy joins the Allies
1915 September	British and French Campaign at Loos fails
1916 – February	Start of the battle of Verdun, lasting for five months
1916 – March	Failure of the Gallipoli campaign by Australian, New Zealand and British forces to knock Ottoman Turkey out of the war
1916 – June	Russian offensive led by general Brusilov fails to defeat the Germans
1917 – April 6	The United States joins the war on the side of the allies
1917 – July	The third battle of the Ypres, Allied forces gain little in their offensive
1917 – October	Italians are defeated at the battle of the Caporetto by Germany and Austria-Hungary
1918 – March 3	Armistice signed between Russian and Germany
1918 – July	Germany launches the offensive on the western front. The offensive fails and the allies launched a counteroffensive in August of that year which is a success
1918 – November	Armistice is signed between Germany and the Allies in November !! at the 11th hour. End of World War I

### End of the War

In Germany, people were running short of food and fuel. The German navy mutinied and there was widespread unrest. On November 9, the German ruler, Kaiser William II, abdicated and on November 11, 1918 an armistice was signed between Germany and the allies, bringing the fighting to an end. In January 1919, the Allies met at the Paris Peace Conference, which formally ended the war. It drew up the Treaty of Versailles, which imposed a harsh peace upon Germany and laid the responsibility of starting the conflict squarely on Germany's shoulders.



## RUSSIAN REVOLUTION

By the early years of the twentieth century, political movements based on the ideas of socialism had emerged in a number of countries in Europe. With the outbreak of the First World War, however, the socialist movement in most countries of Europe suffered a setback. The Second International faced a split on the question of attitude to the War and ceased to function. During this period, however, unrest was brewing in Russia. The Russian Revolution took place in 1917, affecting the course of world history for many decades.

In the nineteenth century, almost, entire Europe was undergoing important social, economic and political transformation. Most of the countries were republics like France or constitutional monarchies like England. The rule of the old feudal aristocracies had been replaced by that of the new middle classes. Russia, however, was still living in 'the old world' under the autocratic rule of the Czars, as the Russian emperors were called. Serfdom had been abolished in 1861, but it did not improve the condition of peasants. They still had miserably small holdings of land with no capital to develop even these. For the small holdings they acquired, they had to pay heavy redemption dues for decades. Land hunger of the peasants was a major social factor in the Russian society.

Industrialization began very late in Russia, in the second half of the nineteenth century. Then it developed at a fairly fast rate, but more than half of the capital for investment came from foreign countries. Foreign investors were interested in quick profits and showed no concern for the conditions of workers. Russian capitalists, with insufficient capital, competed with foreign investors by reducing workers' wages. Whether factories were owned by foreigners or Russians, the conditions of work were horrible. The workers had no political rights and no means of gaining even minor reforms. The words of Marx that workers have 'nothing to lose but their chains' rang literally true to them

The Russian state under the Czars was completely unsuited to the needs of modern times. Czar Nicholas II, in whose reign the Revolution occurred, still believed in the divine right of kings. The preservation of absolutism was regarded by him as a sacred duty. The only people who supported the Czar were the nobility and the upper layers of the clergy. All the rest of the population in the vast Russian empire was hostile. The bureaucracy that the Czars had built was top heavy, inflexible and inefficient, the members being recruited from amongst the privileged classes rather than on the basis of any ability.

The Russian Czars had built a vast empire by conquest of diverse nationalities in Europe and Asia. In these conquered areas, they imposed the use of the Russian language and tried to belittle the cultures of the people of these areas. Also, Russia's imperialist expansion brought her into conflicts with other imperialist powers. These wars further exposed the hollowness of the czarist state.

### Growth of Revolutionary Movements in Russia

There were many peasant rebellions in Russia before the nineteenth century but they were suppressed. Many Russian thinkers had been influenced by developments in Western Europe and wanted to see similar changes in Russia. Their efforts had helped to bring about the abolition of serfdom. This, however, turned out to be a hollow victory. The

## NOTES



hopes of gradual changes in the direction of constitutional democratic government were soon shattered and every attempt at gradual improvement seemed to end in failure. In the conditions that existed in Russia, even a moderate democrat or reformer had to be a revolutionary. In the last quarter of the nineteenth century, there was a movement known as 'going to the people' when intellectuals started preaching their ideas to the peasants.

When the workers' organizations were set up after industrialization began, they were dominated by ideas of socialism. In 1883, the Russian Social Democratic Party was formed by George Plekhanov, a follower of Marx. This party along with many other socialist groups was united into the Russian Social Democratic Labour Party in 1898. However, the party was soon split over questions of organization and policy. One group which was in a minority (hence known as the Mensheviks) favored a party of the type that existed in countries like France and Germany and participated in elections to the parliaments of their countries. The majority, known as the Bolsheviks, were convinced that in a country where no democratic rights existed and where there was no parliament, a party organized on parliamentary lines would not be effective. They favored a party of those who would abide by the discipline of the party and work for revolution.

The leader of the Bolsheviks was Vladimir Ilyich Ulyanov, popularly known as Lenin. He is regarded as one of the greatest leaders of the socialist movement after Marx and Engels. He devoted himself to the task of organizing the Bolshevik Party as an instrument for bringing about revolution. His name has become inseparable from the Revolution of 1917. The Russian socialists, including Plekhanov and Lenin, had played an important part in the Second International.

Besides the Menshevik and the Bolshevik parties, which were the political parties of industrial workers, there was the Socialist Revolutionary Party which voiced the demands of the peasantry. Then there were parties of the non-Russian nationalities of the Russian empire which were working to free their lands from colonial oppression.

The revolutionary movement in Russia had been growing when the **1905 Revolution broke out**. In 1904, a war had broken out between Russia and Japan. The Russian armies had suffered reverses in the war. This had further strengthened the revolutionary movement in Russia. On 9 January 1905, a mass of peaceful workers with their wives and children was fired at in St. Petersburg while on its way to the Winter Palace to present a petition to the Czar. More than a thousand of them were killed and thousands of others were wounded. This day is known as Bloody Sunday. The news of the killings provoked unprecedented disturbances throughout Russia. Even sections of the army and the navy revolted. The sailors of the battleship Potemkin joined the revolutionaries. A new form of organization developed in this revolution which proved decisive in the upheaval of 1917. This was the 'Soviet', or the council of workers' representatives. Beginning as committees to conduct strikes, they became the instruments of political power. Soviets of peasants were also formed.

In October, the Czar yielded and announced his manifesto granting freedom of speech, press and association, and conferred the power to make laws upon an elected body called the 'Duma'. The Czar's manifesto contained principles which would have made Russia a constitutional monarchy like England. However, the Czar soon relapsed into his old ways.

No longer could one hope for gradual reform. The 1905 Revolution proved to be a dress rehearsal of the revolution that came in 1917.

### The Russian Revolution

It aroused the people and prepared them for revolution. It drew soldiers and the peoples of non-Russian nationalities into close contact with the Russian revolutionaries. Hoping to satisfy his imperial ambitions by annexing Constantinople and the Straits of the Dardanelles, the Czar took Russia into the First World War. This proved fatal and brought about the final breakdown of the Russian autocracy. The Czarist state was incapable of carrying on a modern war. The decadence of the royal family made matters worse, Nicholas II was completely dominated by his wife.

She, in turn, was ruled by a friend named Rasputin who virtually ran the government. Corruption in the state resulted in great suffering among the people. There was a shortage of bread. The Russian army suffered heavy reverses. The government was completely unmindful of the conditions of soldiers on the front. By February 1917, 600,000 soldiers had been killed in war. There was widespread discontent throughout the empire as well as in the army. The condition was ripe for a revolution. In setting forth 'the fundamental law for a successful revolution', Lenin had included two conditions the people should fully understand that revolution is necessary and be ready to sacrifice their lives for it; the existing government should be in a state of crisis to make it possible for it to be overthrown rapidly. That tune had certainly arrived in Russia in 1917.

### Beginning of the Revolution

Minor incidents usually 'set off revolutions. In the case of the Russian Revolution it was a demonstration by working-class women trying to purchase bread. A general strike of workers followed, in which soldiers and others soon joined. On 12 March 1917 the capital city of St. Petersburg (renamed Petrograd, later Leningrad and once again, after the collapse of the Soviet Union, St. Petersburg) fell into the hands of the revolutionaries. Soon the revolutionaries took Moscow, the Czar gave up his throne and the first Provisional Government was formed on 15 March. The famous poet Mayakovsky, expressing the contempt of the Russian people for the Czar, wrote on the fall of the Czar:

*Like the chewed stump of a fag  
we spat their dynasty out*

The fall of the Czar is known as the **February Revolution** because, according to Old Russian calendar, it occurred on 27 February 1917. The fall of the Czar, however, marked only the beginning of the revolution. The most important demands of the people were fourfold: peace, land to the tiller, control of industry by workers, and equal status for the non-Russian nationalities. The Provisional Government under the leadership of a man named Kerensky did not implement any of these demands and lost the support of the people. Lenin, who was in exile in Switzerland at the time of the February Revolution, returned to Russia in April. Under his leadership, the Bolshevik Party put forward clear policies to end the war and transfer land to the peasants and advanced the slogan 'All Power to the Soviets'. On the question of non-Russian nationalities, Bolsheviks were the only party then with a clear policy.



NOTES 

Lenin had described the Russian empire as a 'prison of nations' and had declared that no genuine democracy could be established unless all the non-Russian peoples were given equal rights. He had proclaimed the right of all peoples, including those under the Russian empire, to self-determination. The unpopularity of the Kerensky government led to its collapse on 7 November 1917, when a group of sailors occupied the Winter Palace, the seat of the Kerensky government. Leon Trotsky who had played an important role in the 1905 Revolution returned to Russia in May 1917. As head of the Petrograd Soviet, he was one of the most outstanding leaders of the November uprising. An All Russian Congress of Soviets met on the same day and assumed full political power. This event which took place on 7 November is known as the October Revolution because of the corresponding date of the old Russian calendar, 25 October.



The Congress of Soviets on the next day issued a proclamation to all peoples and belligerent states to open negotiations for a just peace without annexation and indemnities. Russia withdrew from the war, though formal peace was signed with Germany later, after ceding the territories that Germany demanded as a price for peace. Following the decree on land, the estates of the landlords, the Church and the Czar were confiscated and transferred to peasants' societies to be allotted to peasant families to be cultivated without hired labour. The control of industries was transferred to shop committees of workers. By the middle of 1918, banks and insurance companies, large industries, mines, water transport and railways were nationalized, foreign debts were repudiated and foreign Investments were confiscated. A Declaration of the Rights of Peoples was issued conferring the right of self-determination upon all nationalities. A new government, called the Council of People's Commissars, headed by Lenin was formed. These first acts of the new government were hailed as the beginning of the era of socialism.



The **October Revolution** had been almost completely peaceful. Only two persons were reported killed in Petrograd on the day the Revolution took place. However, soon the new state was involved in a civil war. The officers of the army of the fallen Czar organized an armed rebellion against the Soviet state. Troops of foreign powers — England, France, Japan, United States and other — joined them. War raged till 1920. By this time the ‘Red Army’ of the new state was in control of almost all the lands of the old Czarist Empire. The Red Army was badly equipped and composed mainly of workers and peasants however, it won over better equipped and better trained forces, just as the citizen armies in the American and French revolutions had won.

## **2.8 IMPACTS OF RUSSIAN REVOLUTION**

The overthrow of autocracy and the destruction of the aristocracy and the power of the church were the first achievements of the Russian Revolution. The Czarist Empire was transformed into a new state called the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics (U.S.S.R) for short Soviet Union. The policies of the new state were to be directed to the realization of the old socialist ideal, ‘from each according to his capacity, to each according to his work’. Private property in the means of production was abolished and the motive of private profit eliminated from the system of production.

Economic planning by the state was adopted to build a technologically advanced economy at a fast rate and to eliminate glaring inequalities in society. Work became an essential requirement for every person there was no unearned income to live on. The right to work became a constitutional right and it became the duty of the state to provide employment to every individual. Education of the entire people was given a high priority. The equality of all the nationalities in the U S S.R. was recognized in the constitution framed in 1924 and later in 1936. The constitution gave the republics formed by the nationalities autonomy to develop their languages and cultures. These developments were particularly significant for the Asian republics of U S S R which were much more backward than the European part.

Within a few years of the revolution, the Soviet Union emerged as a major power in the world. The social and economic systems that began to be built there was hailed by many as the beginning of a new civilization while others called it an evil system. After about 70 years of the revolution, the system collapsed and in 1991 the Soviet Union ceased to exist as a state. (The map in this chapter shows the 15 republics which formed the Soviet Union before its breakup)

In its impact on the world, the Russian Revolution had few parallels in history. The ideas of socialism which the socialist movement had been advocating and which the Russian Revolution espoused were intended for universal application. The Russian Revolution was the first successful revolution in history which proclaimed the building of a socialist society as its objective. It had led to the creation of a new state over a vast area of the globe. It was, therefore, bound to have repercussions for the rest of the world.

### **Comintern**

Soon after the revolution, the Communist International (also known as the Third International or Comintern) was formed for promoting revolutions on an international



## NOTES



scale. The split in the socialist movement at the time of the First World War has been mentioned before. The leftwing sections in many socialist parties now formed themselves into communist parties and they affiliated themselves to the Comintern. Communist parties were also formed in other countries, often with the active involvement and support of the Comintern. Thus the international communist movement arose under one organization which decided on policies to be followed by all communist parties. The Soviet Union was considered the leader of the world communist movement by the communist parties in various countries and the Communist Party of Soviet Union played a leading role in determining the policies of the Comintern. It is generally agreed that Comintern was often used by the Soviet Union as an instrument for pursuing its own objectives. However, the formation of communist parties in many countries of the world with the objective of bringing about revolution and following common policies was a major consequence of the Russian Revolution.

With the formation of the Comintern, the socialist movement was divided into two sections — socialist and communist. There were many differences between them on the methods of bringing about socialism and about the concept of socialism itself. Despite these differences, socialism became one of the most widely held ideologies within a few decades after its emergence. The spread of the influence of socialist ideas and movements after the First World War was in no small measure due to the success of the Russian Revolution.

The growing popularity of socialism and many achievements made by the Soviet Union led to a redefinition of democracy. Most people who did not believe in socialism also began to recognize that for democracy to be real, political rights without social and economic rights were not enough. Economic and social affairs could not be left to the capitalists. The idea of the state playing an active role in regulating the economy and planning the economy to improve the conditions of the people was accepted. The biblical idea, revived by the socialist movement and the Russian Revolution, 'He that does not work neither shall he eat', gained widespread acceptance, adding a new dignity to labour. The popularity of socialism also helped to mitigate discriminations based on race, colour and sex.

The spread of socialist ideas also helped in promoting internationalism. The nations, at least in theory, began to accept the idea that their relations with other nations should go farther than merely promoting their narrow self-interests. Many problems which were considered national began to be looked upon as concerns of the world as a whole. The universality and internationalism which were fundamental principles of socialist ideology from the beginning were totally opposed to imperialism. The Russian Revolution served to hasten the end of imperialism. According to Marx, a nation which enslaves another nation can never be free. Socialists all over the world organized campaigns for putting an end to imperialism.

The new Soviet state came to be looked upon as a friend of the peoples of the colonies struggling for national independence. Russia after the Revolution was the first country in Europe to openly support the cause of independence of all nations from foreign rule. Immediately after the Revolution, the Soviet government had annulled the unequal treaties which the Czar had imposed on China. It also gave assistance of various kinds to Sun Yat Sen in his struggle for the unification of China. The Russian Revolution also influenced

the movements for independence in so far as the latter gradually broadened the objectives of independence to include social and economic equality through planned economic development. Writing about the Russian Revolution in his Autobiography, Jawaharlal Nehru said, "It made me think of politics much more in terms of social change."

NOTES



## 2.9 CHAPTER SUMMARY

Russia was not like a country like today at that time but it was a huge empire. The empire consists of people of many identities and religions. Christianity was the dominant religion at that time. Catholics, Muslims and Buddhists were the empire included. All political parties were illegal in Russia before 1914. The Russian Social Democratic Workers Party was founded in 1898 by socialists who respected Marx's ideas. However, because of government policing, it had to operate as an illegal organization.

By the early years of the twentieth century, political movements based on the ideas of socialism had emerged in a number of countries in Europe. With the outbreak of the First World War, however, the socialist movement in most countries of Europe suffered a setback. The Second International faced a split on the question of attitude to the War and ceased to function. During this period, however, unrest was brewing in Russia. The Russian Revolution took place in 1917, affecting the course of world history for many decades.

The Russian state under the Czars was completely unsuited to the needs of modern times. Czar Nicholas II, in whose reign the Revolution occurred, still believed in the divine right of kings. The preservation of absolutism was regarded by him as a sacred duty. The only people who supported the Czar were the nobility and the upper layers of the clergy. All the rest of the population in the vast Russian empire was hostile. The bureaucracy that the Czars had built was top heavy, inflexible and inefficient, the members being recruited from amongst the privileged classes rather than on the basis of any ability.

The overthrow of autocracy and the destruction of the aristocracy and the power of the church were the first achievements of the Russian Revolution. The Czarist Empire was transformed into a new state called the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics (U.S.S.R.) for short Soviet Union. The policies of the new state were to be directed to the realization of the old socialist ideal, 'from each according to his capacity, to each according to his work'. Private property in the means of production was abolished and the motive of private profit eliminated from the system of production.

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## 2.10 REVIEW QUESTIONS

### SHORT ANSWER TYPE QUESTIONS

1. Why did the Tsarist autocracy collapse in 1917?
2. What were the main changes brought about by the Bolsheviks immediately after the October Revolution?
3. Explain the following terms: Bolsheviks, Mensheviks, Soviet, February Revolution, October Revolution, Bloody Sunday, Communist International.
4. What do you understand by Comintern? Explain the same in brief.
5. What made World War I different?

### LONG ANSWER TYPE QUESTIONS

1. Discuss the impact of the Russian Revolution on the world in detail.
2. How did Russia's participation in the First World War help create conditions for the fall of the Russian autocracy?
3. Discuss the view that the Russian Revolution was brought about by a small group of revolutionaries without the support of the masses.
4. Describe First World War in detail.
5. What were the causes of Russian Revolution?

## 2.11 MULTIPLE CHOICE QUESTIONS

1. When did Soviet Union disintegrated?
  - a. 1990
  - b. 1991
  - c. 1992
  - d. 1993
2. Which one of the following countries was not a part of the former U.S.S.R.?
  - a. Moldova
  - b. Georgia
  - c. Finland
  - d. Russia
3. Who was the father of 'Russian Revolution'?
  - a. Max Muller
  - b. Lenin
  - c. Adolf Hitler
  - d. George Washington
4. When did Russian parliament declare its independence from Soviet Union?
  - a. 1990
  - b. 1993



- c. 1992
- d. 1991
- 5. Name the majority group of the Russian Social Democratic Workers Party led by Lenin?
  - a. Mensheviks
  - b. Bolsheviks
  - c. Jadidists
  - d. Both b & c
- 6. In which year Russian Revolution started?
  - a. 1919
  - b. 1915
  - c. 1917
  - d. 1913
- 7. Duma was constituted during the period of which emperor of Russia?
  - a. Nicholas I
  - b. Nicholas II
  - c. Nicholas III
  - d. Nicholas IV
- 8. Russian emperors were also known as?
  - a. Tsars
  - b. King
  - c. Znast
  - d. Karl
- 9. Who was the leader of Bolshevik Revolution in Russia?
  - a. Lenin
  - b. Stalin
  - c. Bulganin
  - d. Rousseau
- 10. The First World War began in which year?
  - a. 1939
  - b. 1940
  - c. 1914
  - d. 1918

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# CHINESE REVOLUTION

## STRUCTURE

- 3.1 Learning Objective
- 3.2 Introduction
- 3.3 Chinese Revolutions of 1911 and 1949
- 3.4 Control of China by Other Countries
- 3.5 Unfair Treatment of Peasants
- 3.6 Young People's Desire to Modernize China
- 3.7 End of Dynasties in China
- 3.8 Culture of Fear in China caused by Red Guard
- 3.9 Destruction of Schools in Pursuit of Stamping out any Reminder of the Past
- 3.10 Failing Economy because the Red Guard put so many Workers out of Work
- 3.11 Chapter Summary
- 3.12 Review Questions
- 3.13 Multiple Choice Questions



### 3.1 LEARNING OBJECTIVE

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After completing this unit, students will be able to:

- Understand the history about Chinese Revolution
- Know how the peasants were treated unfairly
- Learn about the Young people's desire to modernize China
- Learn about the Culture of Fear caused by Red Guard in China
- Know about the failing economy due to Red Guard

### 3.2 INTRODUCTION

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The People's Republic of China (PRC) was established on October 1, 1949. However, an assessment of Chinese communism cannot begin there. It must begin about 30 years earlier, because the preceding years shaped the PRC as a communist state.

Chinese communism has had a remarkable continuity of leadership. Mao Zedong (W-G: Mao tse-Tung, 1893-1976) and his colleagues were party members in the 1920s. Mao was instrumental in establishing an early form of Chinese communism in the years 1928-34. He helped to develop it and create the military and political strategy in the Yen-an years of 1935-45 that won the civil war in 1949. He then went on to mold communist China and ruled it - in his last years at least in name - until his death in September 1976.

However, we should also bear in mind that while most veteran communists followed Mao from the late 1950s on, some came to oppose his more extreme policies. Here we should mention the long-time Premier and Foreign Minister Zhou Enlai (W-G: Chu En-lai, 1898-1976), and the leader of the PRC after Mao's death, Deng Xiaoping (Teng Hsiao-p'ing, b. 1904), who was to set the country on the path of economic reform in 1978. However, Deng was also determined to preserve the party's monopoly of power, and crushed the massive student democracy movement by force in June 1989.

To understand the rise of communism in China, we must see it within the context of Chinese history.

### 3.3 CHINESE REVOLUTION OF 1911 AND 1949

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China has been in the throes of a revolution in which it has been struggling for two things: to free itself from foreign control and to build a strong and modern nation with a government representing the people. Sun Yat-sen, the great leader of the revolution, died in 1925, but the movement for democracy in China is still far from its goal and his principles are the things for which the Chinese people are fighting today.

The chief result of the impact of the West on China had been to weaken her and to postpone the day when she could form a strong new government to replace the tottering Manchu Dynasty. In other ways, however, the West helped to bring about the Chinese Revolution. Chinese who went abroad to study or who came in contact with Western education in China soon realized that China must develop a strong government along Western lines if it was to take its place in the modern world. Also, the growth of modern trade and industry in the treaty ports developed an entirely new class in China, a middle class of merchants,

## NOTES



manufacturers, and bankers who did business with the West and shared many of its ideas. This class provided much of the leadership and the money for a nationalist movement which came to be organized under the name of the National People's Party, or, in Chinese, the Kuomintang.

The political genius of the revolution was Sun Yat-sen, a physician who had studied in Hawaii and Hongkong. He built a politically disciplined revolutionary party, worked out a theory of the aims of the Chinese Revolution, and developed the methods by which to achieve them. In a series of lectures to thousands of his followers at Canton he described these aims as the "Three Principles of the People," which are usually translated as "Nationalism, Democracy, and the People's Livelihood."

### **The First Revolution Got Rid of the Manchus**

The first revolution, in 1911, aimed to rid the country of the Manchus and to set up a republic modeled on the governments of the United States and Great Britain. It was comparatively simple to overthrow the Manchu Dynasty. It fell because it was too rotten to stand. But the long task of forming a strong and representative government was not so simple and has not yet been completed.

For the first fifteen years after 1911 little apparent progress was made. This was the period of the war lords: politicians with private armies who fought, shadow-boxed, and bargained among themselves and with or against the central government. Various foreign governments had dealings with one war lord or another, in search of someone who could be set up as the internationally recognized dictator of China, able to mortgage China's minerals and other resources in return for loans. Japan, on the other hand, pursued a calculated policy of always supporting more than one war lord, since Japan did not want a unified dictatorship any more than any other form of unity in China.

During these years the Nationalists, under Sun Yat-sen, were slowly gaining popular support, but realized that they needed help from abroad in order to overthrow the war lords and set up a strong central government. After appealing in vain to the United States, Great Britain, and Japan, they turned to Soviet Russia. Sun Yat-sen invited Russian technical and political advisers to come to Canton to help to reorganize the Kuomintang and build up a revolutionary army. The Chinese Communist Party; which had been organized in 1921, was admitted into partnership with the Kuomintang and helped to organize factory workers and peasants so that they could assist in the revolution.

### **The Second Revolution United China**

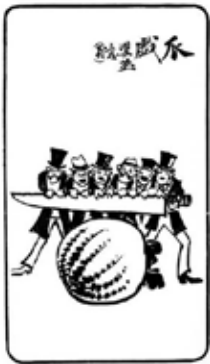
In 1926 the army of the Nationalists, under the leadership of a young general, Chiang Kai-shek, began to march north from Canton to unify all China. Ahead of them went an army of propagandists who roused the people against the war lords and in support of the Nationalist ideals. As a result, the war lord armies, which were not bound together by either patriotism or nationalism, were overwhelmed.

The rapid advance of the Northern Expedition slowed after Hankow, Nanking, and Shanghai were occupied. As they advanced up the railway from Nanking toward Tientsin and Peking the Japanese military forces in the province of Shantung obstructed there, provoking an armed clash.

In North China there loomed the threat of war with Japan. There- was also the threat of intervention by Britain and America, which did not wish to see a new government in China under Communist or Russian influence. In these circumstances Chiang Kai-shek felt that he could not afford to alienate either Britain and America or his own landlord and growing capitalist class who had become alarmed by the growing left wing of the Kuomintang—the Communists, students, and intellectuals who wanted to base their power on the peasants and workers of China. He therefore decided to break with Russia and to destroy the Chinese Communists.

The Russian advisers fled, many thousands of Communists were killed, and the right wing of the Kuomintang, backed by the army, set up a government in Nanking. Thus, in 1928, the present Nationalist government of China was founded and was immediately recognized by most of the great powers. The struggle between the Chinese Communists and the government lasted from 1928 to 1937, when a United Front was formed to face the growing menace of Japan.

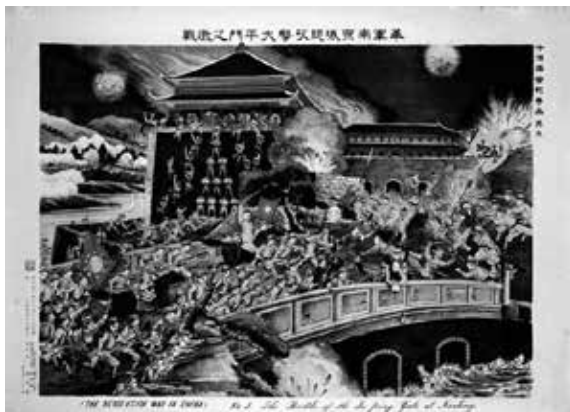
### 3.4 CONTROL OF CHINA BY OTHER COUNTRIES



In the early 1900s, there was one image that kept popping up in Chinese newspapers and magazines: the melon. No, it wasn't a diet craze. The melon was China. It was a time when foreign influences were exploiting China's weak state more and more. That created an anxiety that China was being "carved up like a melon" by greedy imperialists.

Anxiety about imperialism is understandable. But China has a complicated relationship with imperialism. For much of its history, China was an empire itself. In the nineteenth century, however, it struggled against foreign

imperialism. Decades of unequal treaties with Western nations and rising Japanese power meant that China had lost control of key ports, cities, and spheres of influence. The government was also forced to borrow money from foreign banks. Although in most cases not technically colonies, large regions of China were in reality under foreign control.



This situation was a large part of the reason why, in 1911, rebels started the Xinhai Revolution, overthrowing China's last imperial dynasty. The actual trigger came when the government gave control of China's railways to foreign companies. The revolt overthrew the six-year-old Emperor Puyi, and in 1912 opposition leaders established a Chinese republic.





### 3.5 UNFAIR TREATMENT OF PEASANTS

#### The Need for Social Reform and Change.

The social structure of China was obsolete. In particular, the *gentry class* (landlords who sometimes were also local officials) was an obstacle to modernization. They dominated **the peasants**, who made up the vast majority of the population. Almost all of them lived in abject **poverty**, dying like flies in the recurrent famines. At the same time, most of the *merchants* in the coastal cities lacked capital and vision, while those who tried to develop more modern methods were checked by foreign privilege. The *urban workers* - about 2 million out of an estimated population of some 300 million in 1918 - were mostly unskilled and also lived in dire poverty. Thus, *social reform was a third priority, coming behind national unity and independence, because reformers saw them as the basic prerequisites for the modernization of China.*

### 3.6 YOUNG PEOPLE'S DESIRE TO MODERNIZE CHINA

If you want to characterize what happened in China between the late 19th century and the outbreak of World War II in 1937, it's really a story of China as a country that is trying to find modernity. Now "modernity" is one of those words that we use often in a slightly vague, slightly broad fashion—but actually, for the Chinese, it had a real urgency during that period. And the reason for that was that China, for the first time in hundreds of years, found itself as a victim in the international system.

Some way through the mid-19th century, Westerners arrived in China. People with military power behind them—the British with their gunboats—forcing China open, not only to sell opium, one of the products that they were very keen to push inside China, but also to bring a whole variety of new ideas and ways of operating. And while there was much about this that opened China to a wider world, we have to acknowledge that it happened at the point of a gun, and this was something that really terrified and concentrated the minds of the Chinese.

And so, in the early 20th century, you see a whole variety of experiments in thought—the Chinese, thinking about their situation and working out how they could fight back against a world which seemed to have dominated them. And the products of that thinking were often very rich. For a start, we get the emergence of nationalism, one of the most important forces in the China of the time, and actually one that really has a great deal of significance even today.

And so, in the late 19th century and the early 20th century, you'd find a whole variety of Chinese who argued that what China needed to do was to reconstitute itself, in many ways, along the lines of a Western country. And for many of these Chinese, one of the great mentors of that time was Japan, a country just across the sea which had managed very rapidly to modernize itself—in terms of government, in terms of technology, in terms of education.

Much of the early 20th century in China is really the story of a country trying to come into being as a nation-state. It was a traditional empire that had existed under the emperors for many, many centuries. In 1911, the last emperor was overthrown, and after that China



became a new fledgling republic—Asia’s first republic, as it happened—which tried one way or another to work out how the problems of increased military strife within the country and imperialist attacks from outside could be dealt with, could be fought back against. This is really the central political and social narrative of China during those decades.

China’s push toward modernization began when the Qing dynasty, then current rulers of a 2000-year-old empire, started to crumble. The first major blow to the Qing reign came in the mid-19th century, a time when imperialist Western forces were looking to increase trade and influence with countries in the East. The Qing had been trading silk, porcelain, and tea with the British Empire for centuries. But as the dynasty was largely self-sufficient, its merchants only accepted silver as a form of payment.

This created a massive deficit in Britain until the British realized the demand for opium in China. The Qing’s attempt to stop the flow of opium resulted in two major wars that would change its relationship with the West—the Opium Wars. Although the Qing outnumbered their attackers about 10 to 1, they were no match for the high-powered British Navy, and their swift defeat greatly affected the dynasty’s prestige.

Worse though, a series of unequal treaties forced open China’s ports for colonial trade to the British, French, and American forces more than ever before. They also allowed foreign Christian missionaries to travel and settle freely, and granted foreigners protection from local laws. As Western forces weakened the country from the outside, anti-Qing sentiment and movements within China grew dramatically.

A real turning point moment for the last dynasty of China, the Qing, was the Taiping War from the early 1850s up to 1864. It was quite possibly the single bloodiest civil war ever in history.

Tens of millions of Chinese died as the Qing and Taiping fought brutally for control of the empire. The Taiping fought so capably that, in order to defeat them, the Qing had to invite the provincial leaders within China to bring their own armies into war, independent from the Qing army. The war culminated in 1864 in a tremendously bloody battle in Nanjing.

In the end, the Taiping threat to the Qing was finally put down, but it was put down at great cost to the Qing because they had let a particular sort of genie out of the bottle. By allowing the provincial leaders of China to set up their own armies, they had set the seeds for an acknowledgment that the central government no longer had the power to control things from Beijing, from the capital.

And eventually, the emergence of these local armies would lead to a phenomenon that became associated with early 20th century China, what’s often called “warlord-ism.” In other words, the idea that each province of China might have its own strongman in charge—with his own army—who would pay very little attention to the central government, because he had plenty of men on horseback behind him.

Another movement that arose at the turn of the century calling for the end of the Qing rule was a peasant revolt that came to be called the Boxer Uprising. The Boxers, a self-described spiritual group from northern rural China, believed the rise in Chinese Christianity and the influence of Western powers in the region were responsible for the gruelling period of

## NOTES



drought and economic hardship that had befallen them in the years following the Taiping War. They attempted to bolster the power of the dynasty by violently forcing foreigners and Chinese Christians off their lands. The plan backfired quickly, unintentionally exacerbating problems for the already weakened dynasty.

Although this started as a peasant uprising in the more rural parts of northern China, it actually turned into a huge international incident—because of course when they started attacking Chinese Christians, and when ultimately they besieged the foreigners in the embassies—the legations of Beijing—the foreign community struck back with 20,000 soldiers sent from a variety of different countries, including not just the West, but also Japan.

The Boxers, and also the Qing dynasty who supported them, were basically defeated pretty comprehensively. As a result, not only was the dynasty humiliated, but a huge financial penalty was placed upon the Chinese state. And this economic burden, known as the Boxer Indemnity, a huge fine that was basically put upon the Chinese state, was one of the things that pushed it even further towards economic bankruptcy.

The dynasty, now reeling from decades of struggle and unrest, knew that it had to change to keep pace with the modern world. It looked at Meiji Japan's rapid industrialization and its more modernized government institutions, and saw a model that appeared to be thriving, and it attempted to make a variety of similar reforms in the early 20th century. Unfortunately for the Qing, they would find that across a wide spectrum, they no longer had the support or resources to carry out their reform goals. And in 1911, they faced a shock that would alter the country forever.

### 3.7 END OF DYNASTIES IN CHINA

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#### Conditions in China in 1917

##### Fragmentation

China has a 4,000-year history, and was a unified state under several imperial dynasties. The last dynasty, the Qing, was founded by the Manchus in 1644, after their conquest of China. It ruled for almost three hundred years, until it finally collapsed in 1912. By that time the imperial system had fallen into decay and was totally discredited.

Most historians attribute the decline of China at least in part to the inability of its rulers to understand and adapt modern technology. While this is true, another key factor was the quadrupling of the population under the Qing, which put enormous pressure on government resources. In fact, by the early 20th century, Japan was the only Asian country to achieve modernization and cope with a rapid population increase. We should note, however, that in the late 19th and early 20th centuries, there were some outstanding Chinese thinkers who wanted to modernize China. Some hoped for a constitutional framework, i.e., parliamentary monarchy, while others worked for a democratic republic. Most wanted the abolition of the feudal-Confucian system; all wanted the abolition of foreign privilege and the unification of their vast country.

The man who came to lead the strongest movement for reform and unity was Sun Yat-sen (1866-1925). Sun was born near Canton; he was raised by his elder brother in Hawaii



and graduated as a medical doctor in Hongkong in 1892. Two years later, however, he began to devote himself to political work for the overthrow of the Qing dynasty. His goal was to create a strong, unified, modern, Chinese republic. Between 1905 and 1912, Sun developed a political movement called the *Revolutionary Alliance*, which was funded by donations from Chinese businessmen living outside of China. Sun's main backer was Charlie Soong (d. 1927). He came to the United States around 1880, converted to Christianity, and found generous Americans to pay for his education in the U.S. Later, he became a successful businessman in Shanghai. He began by printing and selling bibles, but made his fortune on noodle factories. We should note that Soong's children went on to play important political roles. His two daughters received an American education, after which Ch'ingling married Sun Yat-sen, while May'ling married Chiang Kai-shek. Soong's son, Teseven (T.V.) studied at Harvard and Columbia Universities and became Chiang's Finance Minister.

*In 1911, a military revolt led to revolution and the fall of the Qing dynasty.* Although the revolution aroused great hope for democracy, the Republic established in 1912 proved a miserable failure. The *Kuomintang* (Kuomintang, KMT) or Nationalist Party developed by Sun Yat-sen after the revolution on the base of the old Revolutionary Alliance, was still very weak, and the country was in the grip of war lords, who created their own satrapies and had their own armies. Meanwhile, the central government came under the rule of Gen. Yuan Shikai, who died in June 1916 before he could consolidate his power as Emperor. He was succeeded by Li Yuanhong, who had been Vice-President. There followed an insurrection in spring 1917, led by Gen. Zhang Xun, who tried to restore the Qing dynasty in the person of its last male heir, the boy emperor Puyi (1906-1967), but the insurrection collapsed. In August 1918, a new Chinese parliament elected Hsu Shih-ch'ang (W-G) as President, and he retained this post until 1922. However, the central government was weak and faced a rival government in Guangzhou (Canton). *In the meanwhile, China had lined up with the entente powers and Japan against Germany and Austria-Hungary in World War I.* Although the Chinese authorities did not send soldiers, they did send some 100,000 laborers who were used by the allied armies in France and Belgium, while others worked for the Allies in Mesopotamia and Africa. However, *in January 1917, Japan obtained special rights in the former Chinese provinces of Manchuria and Inner Mongolia, extending them in 1918.* Finally, the Versailles Treaty of June 28, 1919 (peace treaty with Germany worked out by the victor powers) *did not return the former German concession at Shantung to China, but gave it to Japan.* This caused strong anti-Japanese and anti-western feelings in China.

### **The Semi-Colonial Status of China**

In the course of the 19th century, foreign powers had firmly established their separate enclaves (concessions) in the major coastal cities. They had extensive economic-political privileges, including extra-territorial status, the best example of which was the foreign enclave in the great port city of Shanghai. These concessions were won by force and spelled out in the *unequal treaties*. Along with the power of local warlords, these foreign privileges were a major obstacle to any Chinese political movement aiming to unify the country.



### 3.8 CULTURE OF FEAR IN CHINA CAUSED BY RED GUARD

#### What was it and when did it begin?

The Great Proletarian Cultural Revolution was a decade-long period of political and social chaos caused by Mao Zedong's bid to use the Chinese masses to reassert his control over the Communist party. Its bewildering complexity and almost unfathomable brutality was such that to this day historians struggle to make sense of everything that occurred during the period.

However, Mao's decision to launch the "revolution" in May 1966 is now widely interpreted as an attempt to destroy his enemies by unleashing the people on the party and urging them to purify its ranks. When the mass mobilization kicked off party newspapers depicted it as an epochal struggle that would inject new life into the socialist cause.

"Like the red sun rising in the east, the unprecedented Great Proletarian Cultural Revolution is illuminating the land with its brilliant rays," one editorial read. In fact, the Cultural Revolution crippled the economy, ruined millions of lives and thrust China into 10 years of turmoil, bloodshed, hunger and stagnation.

Gangs of students and Red Guards attacked people wearing "bourgeois clothes" on the street, "imperialist" signs were torn down and intellectuals and party officials were murdered or driven to suicide. After violence had run its bloody course, the country's rulers conceded it had been a catastrophe that had brought nothing but "grave disorder, damage and retrogression".

An official party reckoning described it as a catastrophe which had caused "the most severe setback and the heaviest losses suffered by the party, the country, and the people since the founding of the People's Republic" in 1949.

#### Who were the Red Guards?

Students who answered Mao's call for continuing revolution, Red Guards formed large groups that targeted political enemies for abuse and public humiliation. Sometimes the groups even battled one another. Under a campaign to wipe out the "Four Olds" — ideas, customs, culture, habits — they carried out widespread destruction of historical sites and cultural relics. As the Red Guards grew more extreme, the People's Liberation Army was sent in to control them.





### Who were the ‘sent-down youth’?

In the early years of the People’s Republic, educated young people from the cities were sent to the countryside to work on farms. The movement accelerated during the Cultural Revolution, partly as a way to disperse the Red Guards. More than 16 million young people were sent to the countryside, including Xi Jinping, China’s current president.

### Whose idea was it and what was the aim?

The Cultural Revolution was the brainchild of China’s ‘Great Helmsman’, Chairman Mao Zedong. Seventeen years after his troops seized power, Mao saw his latest political campaign as a way of reinvigorating the communist revolution by strengthening ideology and weeding out opponents.

“Our objective is to struggle against and crush those persons in authority who are taking the capitalist road... so as to facilitate the consolidation and development of the socialist system,” one early directive stated. Frank Dikötter, the author of a new book on the period, says Mao hoped his movement would make China the pinnacle of the socialist universe and turn him into “the man who leads planet Earth into communism.”



Chinese red guards during the cultural revolution in 1966.

But it was also an attempt by the elderly dictator, whose authority had been badly hit by the calamitous Great Famine of the 1950s, to reassert control over the party by obliterating enemies, real or imagined. “It was a power struggle waged... behind the smokescreen of a fictitious mass movement,” Belgian scholar Pierre Ryckmans wrote in his damning account of the Cultural Revolution, *The Chairman’s New Clothes*.

### How exactly did it start?

Most historians agree the Cultural Revolution began in mid-May 1966 when party chiefs in Beijing issued a document known as the “May 16 Notification”. It warned that the party had been infiltrated by counter-revolutionary “revisionists” who were plotting to create a “dictatorship of the bourgeoisie”. A fortnight later, on 1 June, the party’s official mouthpiece newspaper urged the masses to “clear away the evil habits of the old society” by launching an all-out assault on “monsters and demons”.

## NOTES



Chinese students sprang into action, setting up Red Guard divisions in classrooms and campuses across the country. By August 1966 - so-called Red August - the mayhem was in full swing as Mao's allies urged Red Guards to destroy the "four olds" - old ideas, old customs, old habits and old culture.

Schools and universities were closed and churches, shrines, libraries, shops and private homes ransacked or destroyed as the assault on "feudal" traditions began.

Gangs of teenagers in red armbands and military fatigues roamed the streets of cities such as Beijing and Shanghai setting upon those with "bourgeois" clothes or reactionary haircuts. "Imperialist" street signs were torn down.

Party officials, teachers and intellectuals also found themselves in the cross-hairs: they were publicly humiliated, beaten and in some cases murdered or driven to suicide after vicious "struggle sessions". Blood flowed as Mao ordered security forces not to interfere in the Red Guards' work. Nearly 1,800 people lost their lives in Beijing in August and September 1966 alone.

### What happened next?

After the initial explosion of student-led "red terror", the chaos spread rapidly. Workers joined the fray and China was plunged into what historians describe as a state of virtual civil war, with rival factions battling it out in cities across the country. By late 1968 Mao realized his revolution had spiralled out of control. In a bid to rein in the violence he issued instructions to send millions of urban youth down to the countryside for "re-education".

He also ordered the army to restore order, effectively transforming China into a military dictatorship, which lasted until about 1971. As the army fought to bring the situation under control, the death toll soared. Between 1971 and the Cultural Revolution's official end, in 1976, a semblance of normality returned to China. US president Richard Nixon even toured the country in February 1972 in a historic visit that re-established ties between Washington and Beijing. It was, in Nixon's words, "the week that changed the world".

### How many victims were there?

Historians believe somewhere between 500,000 and two million people lost their lives as a result of the Cultural Revolution. Perhaps the worst affected region was the southern province of Guangxi where there were reports of cannibalism. Appalling acts of barbarity also occurred in Inner Mongolia where authorities unleashed a vicious campaign of torture against supposed separatists.

Even China's feline population suffered as Red Guards tried to eliminate what they claimed was a symbol of "bourgeois decadence". "Walking through the streets of the capital at the end of August [1966], people saw dead cats lying by the roadside with their front paws tied together," writes Dikötter. Yet contrary to popular belief, the government was responsible for most of the bloodshed, not the Red Guards.

"We read a lot of horror stories about students beating their teachers to death in the stairwell," says Andrew Walder, the author of *China Under Mao*.

"[But] based on the government's own published histories well over half, if not two-thirds

of the people who were killed or imprisoned during the Cultural Revolution suffered that from 1968 to early 1970” as the army moved in to halt the violence.

The lives of some of the Communist party’s most powerful figures were upended by the turbulence, including future leader Deng Xiaoping, who was purged in 1967, and Xi Zhongxun, the father of China’s current president, Xi Jinping, who was publicly humiliated, beaten and sent into exile.

President Xi’s half-sister, Xi Heping, is said to have taken her own life after being persecuted.

### How were foreigners affected?

As chaos enveloped Beijing in the summer of 1966, foreign diplomats found themselves at the eye of the storm. “Earplugs became standard embassy issue,” the former British ambassador Percy Cradock writes in his memoirs recalling how a cacophony of songs praising “our beloved Chairman Mao” became the soundtrack of life in the capital.

By the following year things had taken a more sinister turn. Red Guards laid siege to the Soviet, French and Indonesian embassies, torched the Mongolian ambassador’s car and hung a sign outside the British mission that read: “Crush British Imperialism!” One night, in late August, diplomats were forced to flee from the British embassy as it was ransacked and burned. Outside protesters chanted: “Kill! Kill!”. Anthony Grey, a Reuters journalist in Beijing, spent more than two years in captivity after being detained by Chinese authorities in July 1967.

### What was the Little Red Book?

The Cultural Revolution’s official handbook was the Little Red Book, a pocket-sized collection of quotations from Mao that offered a design for Red Guard life.

“Be resolute, fear no sacrifice, and surmount every difficulty to win victory!” read one famous counsel.

At the height of the Cultural Revolution, Little Red Book reading sessions were held on public buses and even in the skies above China, as air hostesses preached Mao’s words of wisdom to their passengers. During the 1960s, the Little Red Book is said to have been the most printed book on earth, with more than a billion copies printed.





## NOTES



Peasants study Chairman Mao's quotations in the Little Red Book - the 'bible' of the Cultural Revolution during a break from rice planting, 1970, Guangxi, China. Photograph: Sinopix/REX/Shutterstock

### When did it end?

The Cultural Revolution officially came to an end when Mao died on 9 September 1976 at the age of 82. In a bid to move on - and avoid discrediting Mao too much - party leaders ordered that the Chairman's widow, Jiang Qing, and a group of accomplices be publicly tried for masterminding the chaos. They were known as the "Gang of Four".

Jiang contested the charges claiming she had merely been "Chairman Mao's dog" but was sentenced to death in 1981, later reduced to life in prison. In 1991, on the eve of the 25th anniversary of the Cultural Revolution, she hung herself.

### How did the Cultural Revolution affect China?

Mao had hoped his revolutionary movement would turn China into a beacon of communism. But 50 years on many believe it had the opposite effect, paving the way for China's embrace of capitalism in the 1980s and its subsequent economic boom.

"A common verdict is: no Cultural Revolution, no economic reform," Roderick MacFarquhar and Michael Schoenhals write in their book on the period, *Mao's Last Revolution*. "The Cultural Revolution was so great a disaster that it provoked an even more profound cultural revolution, precisely the one that Mao intended to forestall."

Another enduring legacy, experts say, is the obsession of today's rulers with stability and political control. Leaders such as Xi Jinping, a 13-year-old Beijing schoolboy when the Cultural Revolution began, had a front row seat to the mayhem, and some even partook in the violence.

"They saw a China that was totally chaotic for about two years and they saw atrocities sometimes," says Walder, a Stanford University expert on the period. "They view the loss of the party's control as something that will lead to chaos."

Dikötter believes the nightmarish upheaval also served to destroy any remaining faith the Chinese people had in their Great Teacher. "Even before Mao died, people buried Maoism."

1966 Fearing that internal enemies are seeking to subvert his revolution, Mao begins the Cultural Revolution. Students form Red Guard groups to enforce his vision. Attacks multiply on people deemed foes of Mao.

1967 Radical officials and Red Guards topple leaders. Many fallen leaders are paraded and beaten. Clashes over the direction of the Cultural Revolution deepen. Mao tries to rein in the most radical Red Guards.

1968 The authorities start sending millions of urban youths to the countryside. The Communist Party expels former President Liu Shaoqi, and the next year he dies after brutal treatment. A campaign to "cleanse class ranks" claims many lives.

1969 Marshal Lin Biao is declared Mao's heir apparent. Lin Biao dies in a plane crash in 1971 after a falling out with Mao.

1972 President Richard Nixon visits China.



Premier Zhou Enlai oversees efforts to restore the economy. In ensuing years, purged leaders are able to return to office. But Mao remains protective of his leftist allies.

1976 Premier Zhou dies in January, followed by Mao's death in September. Soon after Mao dies, his heir Hua Guofeng and other officials engineer the arrest of Mao's main radical allies, the Gang of Four.

### How is the Cultural Revolution remembered today?

After Mao's death, the Communist party made some attempts to confront the horrors of the previous decade. Some were punished for the violence while those unfairly purged or persecuted were rehabilitated. But those efforts petered out in the early 1980s as Beijing became wary of implicating itself in the killing at a time of growing opposition from Chinese youth. Academics were discouraged from digging into the party's inconvenient truth.

Experts say Beijing would seek to mark this year's 50th anniversary with deafening silence.

"They won't go there - it is just too damaging to the party," says MacFarquhar. "The party is guilty of three massive blows to the Chinese people: the [Great] Famine, the Cultural Revolution and the destruction of the environment which is ongoing now and may in fact be more deadly than the other two in the long run. And the last thing it wants to say is that we were the guilty ones."

However, a bitter public row over a Mao-themed extravaganza held in Beijing earlier this month has unexpectedly thrust the decade-long upheaval back into the headlines.

## 3.9 DESTRUCTION OF SCHOOLS IN PURSUIT OF STAMPING OUT ANY REMINDER OF THE PAST

### Peking University

Student demonstrations at the university in 1919 gave the influential May Fourth Movement its name. During the Sino-Japanese War (1937–45), the university was temporarily relocated to Kunming in Yunnan province. In 1952 the university was reorganized and merged with Yanjing (Yen-ching) University, which had been founded by American Methodist missionaries in 1922. Peking University relocated to Yanjing's more spacious campus, on the northwestern outskirts of Beijing. The first disturbances of the Cultural Revolution began there in 1966. Education at the university subsequently ceased until 1970 and did not regain a firm basis until after the end of the Cultural Revolution in 1976. In the 1980s the university again became the center of student demonstrations, which came to a climax in Tiananmen Square in 1989.

The school originated as the Capital College, which was founded in 1898 by the Guangxu emperor as part of his short-lived program to modernize and reform China's institutions. This school languished after the empress dowager Cixi's coup d'état of the same year. After the overthrow of the Qing dynasty in 1911/12, the school was renamed Peking University. It was subsequently reinvigorated under the guidance of the new president Cai Yuanpei, and by 1920 it had become a center for the most progressive currents among China's intelligentsia and students. During the 1920s two founders of the Chinese Communist

## NOTES



Party, Li Dazhao and Chen Duxiu, were on the university's faculty, and the young Mao Zedong, who began studying Marxism in 1918 under their influence, worked in the university's library. The noted writer Lu Xun lectured there on Chinese literature in the 1920s.

### National Movement for Educational Reform

The period of the Cultural Revolution in China (1966-1969) witnessed a massive effort by the Maoist leadership to engineer the socialist transformation of Chinese society, one of the areas most radically affected by the Cultural Revolution was the Chinese educational system. The Great Leap Forward has brought about much economic instability and lack of agricultural production, leading to the great famine. The goals and policies imposed by the government during the Cultural Revolution greatly decentralized the educational system and shifted focus from an industrial intensive production to an agricultural production. Although many rural schools continued to function throughout this period, formal education virtually ceased in the urban areas.

The Cultural Revolution had three basic objectives in reforming the educational system. In terms of the content of education, the first objective was to intensify ideological education so as to raise the "political consciousness" of the students. The second objective was to integrate theory and practice in the educational process in order to make education more responsive to the immediate production needs of the country. In terms of the scope of the educational system, the third objective was to popularize education, especially in the rural areas of China.

Prior to the Cultural Revolution, it seems that there was a tendency in Chinese education to emphasize technological and professional training often at the expense of the socialist revolution as envisioned by Chairman Mao. In 1956, with the exception of the third year of senior middle school in which a section of the "constitution" class was held each week, it was reported that political classes were entirely cancelled. This trend was further reinforced after the Great Leap Forward when educational policy emphasized more study and less work and politics. This general educational policy seems to have led to the consolidation of an "elite technocracy" drawn largely from the educated bourgeois elements of the past. Thus, the most important goal of educational reform in the Cultural Revolution was to mobilize the students and raise to a higher level their awareness of class contradictions still existing in Chinese society. As Mao made clear, "all work in school is for changing the thinking of the student." This educational objective was part of the massive effort of the Cultural Revolution as a whole to revitalize the commitment of the country to the socialist transformation of society.

The economic objectives of the educational reforms of the Cultural Revolution should be seen within the context of the overall strategy for economic development. The emphasis on integrating theory with practice, or education with production, was not new in itself. The Ministry of Education stated explicitly in 1950 that "the purpose of institutions of higher learning in the People's Republic of China is to train high level specialists for national reconstruction in accordance with the principles of the Cultural and Educational policy included in the Common Program of the People's Political Consultative Conference of China, and using a method which combines theory and practice.



These specialists will have advanced standards of culture, will master modern science and technology, and will have total dedication to serving the people.” However, the way in which theory was linked to practice was quite different from that which Mao had in mind for the Cultural Revolution. And the problem here was not simply one of implementation but of basically different concepts of economic development.

### Leadership support for Revolutionary Students

Mao is reported to have criticized the work teams apparently fearing that they would slow the momentum of the mass movement he was trying to foster. To symbolize the Maoists support for the students, ChTen Po-ta, new head of the Central Cultural Revolution Group, and Chiang ChTing began on July 23 a series of visits to Peking University. ChTen told the students:

“We have come as pupils to learn from you, and study how you debate... We are not your teachers. Our minds are just like a white blank. We must first learn from you before we can teach you... “

Chiang Chfing echoed ChTen’s statement that they had come as pupils. She said they hoped to understand “things” better by studying the students wallposters and talking with them. She promised that the government (i. e. the Maoists) would never divorce itself from the students. 41 KTang Sheng, another member of the Central Cultural Revolution Group, emphasized the faith that the Maoists had in the revolutionary masses.

On July 28, the Peking Municipal CCP Committee, in response to the criticism of the work teams it had dispatched, announced their abolition. Students, teachers and staff of the schools were urged to set up mass organizations to carry on the cultural revolution and members of the work groups were instructed to study the criticism of the masses.

By the end of July, the Maoists were using every resource to increase revolutionary fervor. Middle school students had been unleashed, college students had been proclaimed worthy to lead the central leaders, while the work teams, the only controlling organizational force, had been recalled. The time was now ripe for a dramatic act by Mao Tse-tung himself. This is reported to have occurred on July 16 when 75-year-old Mao is said to have swum a long distance in the Yangtze River, and in very good time. 43 How far and how fast he really swam, or even whether he swam at all is not really too important. The significance lies in the gesture — the appeal of this “youthful” act to the students he was trying to mobilize. It was a strong, if unsubtle, attempt on his part to identify himself with the vitality of youth. The dramatic increase in student praise of Mao during July and August suggests that his appeal was highly successful.

### Early mass rallies and movements

Red Guards, Chinese (Pinyin) Hongweibing or (Wade-Giles romanization) Hung-wei-ping, in Chinese history, groups of militant university and high school students formed into paramilitary units as part of the Cultural Revolution (1966–76). These young people often wore green jackets similar to the uniforms of the Chinese army at the time, with

## NOTES



red armbands attached to one of the sleeves. They were formed under the auspices of the Chinese Communist Party (CCP) in 1966 in order to help party chairman Mao Zedong combat “revisionist” authorities—i.e., those party leaders Mao considered as being insufficiently revolutionary.

Mao was thus making a bid to regain control of the CCP from his colleagues, but the Red Guards who responded in August 1966 to his summons fancied themselves as new revolutionary rebels pledged to eliminating all remnants of the old culture in China, as well as purging all supposedly bourgeois elements within the government. Several million Red Guards journeyed to Beijing to meet with Mao in eight massive demonstrations late in 1966, and the total number of Red Guards throughout the country may have reached 11 million at some point.

While engaging in marches, meetings, and frenzied propagandizing, Red Guard units attacked and persecuted local party leaders as well as schoolteachers and school officials, other intellectuals, and persons of traditional views. Several hundred thousand people died in the course of these persecutions. By early 1967 Red Guard units were overthrowing existing party authorities in towns, cities, and entire provinces.

These units soon began fighting among themselves, however, as various factions vied for power amidst each one’s claims that it was the true representative of Maoist thought. The Red Guards’ increasing factionalism and their total disruption of industrial production and of Chinese urban life caused the government in 1967–68 to urge the Red Guards to retire into the countryside. The Chinese military was called in to restore order throughout the country, and from this point the Red Guard movement gradually subsided.

### Long March

On October 16, 1934, 100,000 Chinese Communist troops set out on a 6,000-mile trek from their base in Kiangsi. This trek, later to be known as the Long March, began after Chiang Kai-shek and his Nationalist armies (the Kuomintang) thwarted the fledgling Communist organization in Southeast China. The Long March was an arduous journey; approximately 90,000 men and women died before it was over.

However, communism was not eliminated in China. This paper argues that the Long March galvanized commitment to\_ the communist cause and thus was the key precursor to the eventual victory of the Communist Party in China in 1949. By narrowly escaping defeat and destruction through the Long March, the Communists were able to re-build support to fight the Nationalists once again - and this time they won.

Mao Zedong, the eventual Chairman of the New Republic of China did not allow the Communists to disappear. This charismatic leader and poet helped ensure the survival of 83 of the 100,000 troops who undertook the Long March. Mao was born on December 26 1893 in the Hunan Province of China to peasants who had prospered by hard work. Mao was rebelliously nature and left his father’s farm early in life to attend school. Upon graduating from normal school in 1918, Mao went to Peking where he worked as a library assistant. He met two men in Peking who influenced him: Li Ta-chao and Ch’en Tu-hsiu. These men, “whose social criticism drew him into their orbit,” were the founders of the Chinese Communist Party in 1921.



During the next few years, Mao held various positions in the Chinese Communist Party until 1927. He began to realize that the “major force” in China was discontentment of the peasants and he wrote a report “which constituted one of his major contributions to Chinese Communism.”<sup>8</sup> Mao believed that the peasants should own their own land and not be responsible for land that is not theirs. He thought that millions of peasants would “rise like a tornado or tempest - a force so extraordinarily swift and violent that no power, however great, will be able to suppress it. He planned a military uprising at Nanchang, and hoped that the Red Armies under Ho Lung, Yeh Ting and other Communist guerrilla chieftains would then march triumphantly on Canton to establish a new revolutionary government.

However, the victory and eventual capture of Nanchang never materialized. The peasants did not have the interest that Mao believed they had in revolting against Chiang Kai Shek. Mao was captured and had to bribe his way out of captivity, eventually leading some of his troops to the mountains of Chinggangshan on the border of Hunan and Kiangsi. Because of Mao’s unfortunate handling of the Autumn Harvest Uprising he was expelled from the Politburo. Mao began to lose “favour with the Communist Party leadership.” The intellectuals who ran the party were unhappy with Mao’s obsession with, “confiscating the landlords’ land in Hunan.”

#### **Attempts to disperse students**

On November 12, a letter issued by the General Office of the CCPC and the State Council urged the two million Red Guards and revolutionary students who had been reviewed on November 10 and 11 to return home as soon as possible carrying with them Mao’s message. Peking’s students and PLA men were urged to help these students register for train tickets, help them board the train, and give them a warm sendoff.

The PLA personnel were also praised for their organizational and mobilization support given the visiting students. Merely four days later, on November 16, the general drift of official thinking became plain. It was announced that after November 21, no more Red Guards were to come to Peking by train, ship or bus to exchange revolutionary experience. However, they would be given free transportation back to their place of origin. Schools were to remain closed until the following summer and students were to be allowed to resume trips to Peking in the spring. Official reasons given for this decision included the cold weather that was approaching, and the need to devote transportation facilities to the movement of supplies during the winter and spring.

It endorsed Lin Piao’s November 3rd speech and authorized provinces to organize exchanges of revolutionary experiences on the basis of the principles contained therein within their own provinces during the winter. The notion that exchange of revolutionary experience on foot, which was not forbidden even to Peking, was perhaps a more valid revolutionizing experience must at least have made it easier for Mao and his associates to call a halt to these mass revolutionization meetings.

All indications are that the new regulations were ineffective. On November 25 and 26 Mao and Lin reviewed nearly two-and-a-half million more Red Guards and revolutionary students. The new deadline for leaving Peking via free transportation was December 20

## NOTES



and this time no Red Guards in Peking would be given free transportation and food after December 21st. Furthermore, the youths were to be issued through tickets and were to make no stopovers.

The heat was obviously being turned higher. Perhaps in response to these continuing pressures from Central authorities, a long march contingent from Shensi proposed on December 1 in JMJP that Red Guards avoid using buses and other means of public transportation even in cities, 86 presumably in an effort to protect the concept of exchange on foot from prohibition in the face of ominous government warnings.

#### **Students' relations with workers and peasants**

The four-point decision issued on September 11 attempted to bring peace between workers and peasants on the one hand and students on the other. A JMJP editorial on the same day had admitted that a number of people in authority were suppressing the mass organizations and were even inciting workers and peasants who "did not know the truth" to oppose the students. A series of CCPCC decisions handed down on September 14th prohibited students from going into the communes unless authorized by Party leaders. At the same time, revolutionary teachers and students and Red Guards in urban schools were to be mobilized and sent to the countryside to help with the autumn harvest. But considering the amount of traveling being done by young people in this period it would seem that the response was not overwhelming. The question is whether the young people, full of their role as the "vanguard" of the revolution, did not alienate the peasant population rather than integrate with it. Officially, students were praised for coming to the countryside to help with production and propagate Mao's thought and the peasants credited them with helping to revolutionize peasant thinking.

The stage had thus been set by late December and the revolution was on. The Red Guards, the vanguard of the revolution, had agitated the populace. However, the question was whether the result was to alienate the people from students or from those enemies singled out by Mao. Another problem revolved around student antagonism towards the workers and peasants and whether the Maoists would back step and support the masses or continue to back the vanguard. Mao had discussed this very question in 1939.

A new phase of the Cultural Revolution began in January. On January 4, eleven revolutionary mass organizations in Shanghai issued a "Message to all Shanghai" warning that a handful of persons in authority taking the capitalist road in Shanghai were trying to sabotage production to thwart the progress of the Cultural Revolution. It urged workers and students to unite to defeat the bourgeois enemy. Seven of the eleven organizations involved were student groups. In a subsequent "Urgent Notice" by the Shanghai revolutionary rebel organization, including more than ten student groups, students were told that "The integration of students with workers and peasants is the inevitable road by which the students will transform their world outlooks and carry to success the great Cultural Revolution.

The entire country was urged to follow the example of the revolutionary rebels of Shanghai and there were soon reports of power seizures in Shansi, Heilungkiang and other areas.



The Red Guards, as revolutionary mass organizations, took part in many of these power struggles. In the main, they proved totally incapable of participating in administration.

This was due both to their lack of political/ administrative experience and to their inability to resolve factional disputes within their own ranks and with other revolutionary mass organizations. Both of these liabilities would seem to stem at least in part, from their moral rectitude — a virtue quite appropriate to the smashing phase of the cultural revolution, but counter-productive when Mao wanted them to tighten their belts and unite with the masses.

### 3.10 FAILING ECONOMY BECAUSE THE RED GUARD PUT SO MANY WORKERS OUT OF WORK

After the initial explosion of student-led “red terror”, the chaos spread rapidly. Workers joined the fray and China was plunged into what historians describe as a state of virtual civil war, with rival factions battling it out in cities across the country. By late 1968 Mao realized his revolution had spiraled out of control. In a bid to rein in the violence he issued instructions to send millions of urban youth down to the countryside for “re-education”. He also ordered the army to restore order, effectively transforming China into a military dictatorship, which lasted until about 1971.

During Mao’s rule, China’s economy was worse than during Republic of China era (Republican era). He basically adopted a failed Soviet-style communist centrally planned economic model and this “communist experiment” actually failed. It resulted in 30 million death in the great famine during the Great Leap Forward, Contrary to the communist / Marxist model that said the landlord exploited the proletariat (workers / peasants), the Chinese communist actually became the “new landlord”, as they owned all the lands, while the peasants did not have any land themselves. If it’s not your own land, why farm so hard? Thus, they became peasant-serfs themselves or slaves to the Mao’s government and were exploited by the Chinese communist.

The farmers did not have any freedom to sell their farming products in the market, but had to instead sell them to the Chinese communist government at a fixed price. The Chinese communist government in turn distributed these agricultural products to the urban area through “distributing tickets”, so as to maintain “equal wealth” in the urban area (based on communist model). Consequently, collectivization occurred, but when Mao’s government had to sell these agricultural products to Soviet Union (to pay back the debt for renting those weapons used in Korean War), little was left to the peasants. Many peasants were sent to steel factory to churn out useless steel and no-one was left to do farming. Consequently, agricultural production decreases rapidly. This led to great famine, esp. in rural region.

There was some industrialization aided by the Soviets, but productivity remained very low, as communist centrally planned model removed all the incentives to work hard. If the salary is the same, why work hard even if it means doing the same type of work. It doesn’t make any difference for working hard or being lazy as long as you get the same wages. It basically confirms the conclusion that **Socialist economic model produces lazy people**. That actually led to recession that was worse than during the Republic of China era. China became even more impoverished and poorer than during the Republican era.



NOTES 

When Mao got blamed for this plan, he initiated the Cultural Revolution to purge and wipe out his political enemies within the parties, in order to consolidate his power. He used red guards to crush, kill lots of innocent party reformers, intellectuals, and cultural elites in China. He resulted in the Chinese cultural genocide / disaster of Cultural revolution destroying Chinese culture that became one of the major reasons why so many mainland Chinese were uncultured, unpolished, uncouth and having bad manners who were looked down by many people (even by overseas Chinese), who thinks many mainland Chinese lost the true Chinese culture.

### 3.11 CHAPTER SUMMARY

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China has been in the throes of a revolution in which it has been struggling for two things: to free itself from foreign control and to build a strong and modern nation with a government representing the people. Sun Yat-sen, the great leader of the revolution, died in 1925, but the movement for democracy in China is still far from its goal and his principles are the things for which the Chinese people are fighting today.

The first revolution, in 1911, aimed to rid the country of the Manchus and to set up a republic modeled on the governments of the United States and Great Britain. It was comparatively simple to overthrow the Manchu Dynasty. It fell because it was too rotten to stand. But the long task of forming a strong and representative government was not so simple and has not yet been completed.

In 1926 the army of the Nationalists, under the leadership of a young general, Chiang Kai-shek, began to march north from Canton to unify all China. Ahead of them went an army of propagandists who roused the people against the war lords and in support of the Nationalist ideals. As a result, the war lord armies, which were not bound together by either patriotism or nationalism, were overwhelmed.

In the early 1900s, there was one image that kept popping up in Chinese newspapers and magazines: the melon. No, it wasn't a diet craze. The melon was China. It was a time when foreign influences were exploiting China's weak state more and more. That created an anxiety that China was being "carved up like a melon" by greedy imperialists.

China has a 4,000-year history, and was a unified state under several imperial dynasties. The last dynasty, the Qing, was founded by the Manchus in 1644, after their conquest of China. It ruled for almost three hundred years, until it finally collapsed in 1912. By that time the imperial system had fallen into decay and was totally discredited. Most historians attribute the decline of China at least in part to the inability of its rulers to understand and adapt modern technology. While this is true, another key factor was the quadrupling of the population under the Qing, which put enormous pressure on government resources.

In fact, by the early 20th century, Japan was the only Asian country to achieve modernization and cope with a rapid population increase. We should note, however, that in the late 19th and early 20th centuries, there were some outstanding Chinese thinkers who wanted to modernize China. Some hoped for a constitutional framework, i.e., parliamentary monarchy, while others worked for a democratic republic. Most wanted the abolition of the feudal-Confucian system; all wanted the abolition of foreign privilege and the unification of their vast country.



In the course of the 19th century, foreign powers had firmly established their separate enclaves (concessions) in the major coastal cities. They had extensive economic-political privileges, including extra-territorial status, the best example of which was the foreign enclave in the great port city of Shanghai. These concessions were won by force and spelled out in the *unequal treaties*. Along with the power of local warlords, these foreign privileges were a major obstacle to any Chinese political movement aiming to unify the country.

The Great Proletarian Cultural Revolution was a decade-long period of political and social chaos caused by Mao Zedong's bid to use the Chinese masses to reassert his control over the Communist party. Its bewildering complexity and almost unfathomable brutality was such that to this day historians struggle to make sense of everything that occurred during the period.

Students who answered Mao's call for continuing revolution, Red Guards formed large groups that targeted political enemies for abuse and public humiliation. Sometimes the groups even battled one another. Under a campaign to wipe out the "Four Old's" — ideas, customs, culture, habits — they carried out widespread destruction of historical sites and cultural relics. As the Red Guards grew more extreme, the People's Liberation Army was sent in to control them.

The Cultural Revolution was the brainchild of China's 'Great Helmsman', Chairman Mao Zedong. Seventeen years after his troops seized power, Mao saw his latest political campaign as a way of reinvigorating the communist revolution by strengthening ideology and weeding out opponents.

Most historians agree the Cultural Revolution began in mid-May 1966 when party chiefs in Beijing issued a document known as the "May 16 Notification". It warned that the party had been infiltrated by counter-revolutionary "revisionists" who were plotting to create a "dictatorship of the bourgeoisie". A fortnight later, on 1 June, the party's official mouthpiece newspaper urged the masses to "clear away the evil habits of the old society" by launching an all-out assault on "monsters and demons".

Schools and universities were closed and churches, shrines, libraries, shops and private homes ransacked or destroyed as the assault on "feudal" traditions began. Gangs of teenagers in red armbands and military fatigues roamed the streets of cities such as Beijing and Shanghai setting upon those with "bourgeois" clothes or reactionary haircuts. "Imperialist" street signs were torn down.

Mao had hoped his revolutionary movement would turn China into a beacon of communism. But 50 years on many believe it had the opposite effect, paving the way for China's embrace of capitalism in the 1980s and its subsequent economic boom.

A shift in emphasis occurred in early November. On November 2, China News Service released a long, odyssey-like account of a group of eleven middle school students who travelled 2,000 li on foot from Anhwei province to Peking. 79 The justification for their journey as revealed by China News Service is quite significant. We are youths brought up under the red banner without going through tests in the storm of revolution. We have been looking for an opportunity to steel ourselves in the storm of revolution to step up the remolding of our world outlook and the revolutionization of our thinking.

NOTES 

After the initial explosion of student-led “red terror”, the chaos spread rapidly. Workers joined the fray and China was plunged into what historians describe as a state of virtual civil war, with rival factions battling it out in cities across the country. By late 1968 Mao realized his revolution had spiraled out of control. In a bid to rein in the violence he issued instructions to send millions of urban youth down to the countryside for “re-education”. He also ordered the army to restore order, effectively transforming China into a military dictatorship, which lasted until about 1971.

When Mao got blamed for this plan, he initiated the Cultural Revolution to purge and wipe out his political enemies within the parties, in order to consolidate his power. He used red guards to crush, kill lots of innocent party reformers, intellectuals, and cultural elites in China. He resulted in the Chinese cultural genocide / disaster of Cultural revolution destroying Chinese culture that became one of the major reasons why so many mainland Chinese were uncultured, unpolished, uncouth and having bad manners who were looked down by many people (even by overseas Chinese), who thinks many mainland Chinese lost the true Chinese culture.

**3.12 REVIEW QUESTIONS****SHORT ANSWER TYPE QUESTIONS**

1. What role did the ‘Long March’ played in the Chinese Revolution?
2. Who were ‘Red Guards’? Explain about the same in brief.
3. How is the Cultural Revolution remembered today?
4. Explain in brief the end of dynasties rule in Chins.
5. What was the Cultural Revolution and when did it begin in China?

**LONG ANSWER TYPE QUESTIONS**

1. How did the Cultural Revolution affect China? Explain in detail.
2. Explain in detail the involvement of students in the revolution.
3. Explain how the Qing regime was challenged by foreign imperialism and the actions of Westerners in China during the 1800s.
4. Discuss the role of Japan in contributing to rising nationalism and anti-Qing sentiment during the late 19th and early 20th century.
5. Why did Mao Zedong describe the Long March as “a propaganda force, a seeding machine”? How has the legacy of the Long March been exploited by the CCP?

**3.13 MULTIPLE CHOICE QUESTIONS**

1. When was People’s Republic of China (PRC) established \_\_\_\_\_?
  - a. October 1, 1949
  - b. August 17, 1948
  - c. March 22, 1949
  - d. October 3, 1949

2. Quotations from Mao that offered a design for Red Guard life were written in book called \_\_\_\_\_ during the Cultural Revolution.
  - a. Little Red Book
  - b. The Art of War
  - c. Guns
  - d. Larger Than Life
3. When did Mao die?
  - a. 6 April 1976
  - b. 14 November 1975
  - c. 9 September 1976
  - d. 8 August 1976
4. Old ideas, old customs, old habits and old culture collectively were termed as \_\_\_\_\_ by Mao.
  - a. Four folds
  - b. Four Olds
  - c. Four ideas
  - d. None of these.
5. The \_\_\_\_\_ was the brainchild of China's 'Great Helmsman', Chairman Mao Zedong.
  - a. Rise of Red Guards
  - b. Chinese Revolution
  - c. Decline of dynasties
  - d. Cultural Revolution
6. Students who answered Mao's call for continuing revolution were termed as \_\_\_\_\_?
  - a. People's Republic of China
  - b. Red Guards
  - c. Cultural Revolutionists
  - d. None of these.
7. The \_\_\_\_\_ dynasty was founded by the Manchu's in 1644.
  - a. Zhou Dynasty
  - b. Qing Dynasty
  - c. Han Dynasty
  - d. Tang Dynasty
8. The first revolution, in 1911, aimed to rid China of the \_\_\_\_\_ dynasty.
  - a. Manchus Dynasty
  - b. Tang Dynasty
  - c. Zhou Dynasty
  - d. Qing Dynasty
9. \_\_\_\_\_ made the vast majority of the population of China.
  - a. Leaders
  - b. Students



NOTES



- c. Peasants
  - d. None of these.
10. **What was the goal of the Boxer Rebellion?**
- a. Rid China of all foreigners
  - b. Spread Christianity in China
  - c. Overthrow communism
  - d. Force the emperor to abdicate

◆◆◆◆

# INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION

## STRUCTURE

- 4.1 Learning Objective
- 4.2 Introduction
- 4.3 Industrial Revolution
- 4.4 History of Methods of Production before Industrial Revolution
- 4.5 Industrial Revolution First in England
- 4.6 Components of Industrial Revolution
- 4.7 Impact of Industrial Revolution
- 4.8 Chapter Summary
- 4.9 Review Questions
- 4.10 Multiple Choice Questions



## 4.1 LEARNING OBJECTIVE

After completing this unit, students will be able to:

- Learn about the beginning of Industrial Revolution
- Learn about the methods of production before Industrial Revolution
- Know about the events related to the pace of industrial revolution
- Know the reason that why Industrial Revolution began in England
- Learn about the impact of industrial revolution

## 4.2 INTRODUCTION



In 1900, a popular music publisher E.T. Paull produced a music book that had a picture on the cover page announcing the 'Dawn of the Century' in the given figure. As you can see from the illustration, at the Centre of the picture is a goddess-like figure, the angel of progress, bearing the flag of the new century. She is gently perched on a wheel with wings, symbolizing time. Her flight is taking her into the future. Floating about, behind her, are the signs of progress: railway, camera, machines, printing press and factory.

This glorification of machines and technology is even more marked in a picture which appeared on the pages of a trade magazine over a hundred years ago in the given figure. It shows two magicians. The one at the top is Aladdin from the Orient who built a beautiful palace with his New words Orient – The countries to the east of the Mediterranean, usually referring to Asia. The term arises out of a western viewpoint that sees this region as premodern, traditional and mysterious 'Dawn of the Century', published by E.T. Paull Music Co., New York, England, 1900. India and the Contemporary World 104 Give two examples where modern development that is associated with progress has lead to problems. You may like to think of areas related to environmental issues, nuclear weapons or disease. Activity magic lamp. The one at the bottom is the modern mechanic, who with his modern tools weaves a new magic: builds bridges, ships, towers and high-rise buildings. Aladdin is shown as representing the East and the past, the mechanic stands for the West and modernity.



These images offer us a triumphant account of the modern world. Within this account the modern world is associated with rapid technological change and innovations, machines and factories, railways and steamships. The history of industrialization thus becomes simply a story of development, and the modern age appears as a wonderful time of technological progress. These images and associations have now become part of popular imagination. Do you not see rapid industrialization as a time of progress and modernity?

Do you not think that the spread of railways and factories, and construction of high-rise buildings and bridges is a sign of society's development? How have these images developed? And how do we relate to these ideas? Is industrialization always based on rapid technological development? Can we today continue to glorify continuous mechanization of all work? What has industrialization meant to people's lives? To answer such questions, we need to turn to the history of industrialization. In this chapter we will look at this history by focusing first on Britain, the first industrial nation, and then India, where the pattern of industrial change was conditioned by colonial rule.

### 4.3 INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION

Abundant fossil fuels, and the innovative machines they powered, launched an era of accelerated change that continues to transform human society.

#### The Transformation of the World



Try to imagine what your life would be like without any machines working for you. Make a list of the machines in your household and on your person; you may arrive at a surprising number. Now imagine earlier generations during their childhood years. How did they move from place to place? How did they communicate? What foods did they eat?

At one time, humans, fueled by the animals and plants they ate and the wood they burned, or aided by their domesticated animals, provided most of the energy in use. Windmills and waterwheels captured some extra energy, but there was little in reserve. All life operated within the fairly immediate flow of energy from the Sun to Earth.

Everything changed during the Industrial Revolution, which began around 1750. People found an extra source of energy with an incredible capacity for work. That source was fossil fuels — coal, oil, and natural gas, though coal led the way — formed underground from the remains of plants and animals from much earlier geologic times. When these fuels were burned, they released energy, originally from the Sun, that had been stored for hundreds of millions of years.

Coal was formed when huge trees from the Carboniferous period (345– 280 million years ago) fell and were covered with water, so that oxygen and bacteria could not decay them. Instead, the pressure of the weight of materials above them compressed them into dark, carbonic, ignitable rock.

Most of the Earth's oil and gas formed over a hundred million years ago from tiny animal skeletons and plant matter that fell to the bottom of seas or were buried in sediment. This organic matter was compacted by the weight of water and soil. Coal, oil, and gas, despite their relative abundance, are not evenly distributed on Earth; some places have much more than others, due to geographic factors and the diverse ecosystems that existed long ago.



## NOTES



### Early Steam Engines

The story of the Industrial Revolution begins on the small island of Great Britain. By the early 18th century, people there had used up most of their trees for building houses and ships and for cooking and heating. In their search for something else to burn, they turned to the hunks of black stone (coal) that they found near the surface of the earth. Soon they were digging deeper to mine it. Their coal mines filled with water that needed to be removed; horses pulling up bucketful proved slow going.



**Steam Engine**

To the rescue came James Watt (1736–1819), a Scottish instrument-maker who in 1776 designed an engine in which burning coal produced steam, which drove a piston assisted by a partial vacuum. (There had been earlier steam engines in Britain, and also in China and in Turkey, where one was used to turn the spit that roasts a lamb over a fire.) Its first application was to more quickly and efficiently pump water out of coal mines, to better allow for extraction of the natural resource, but Watt's engine worked well enough to be put to other uses; he became a wealthy man. After his patent ran out in 1800, others improved upon his engine. By 1900 engines burned 10 times more efficiently than they had a hundred years before.

At the outset of the 19th century, British colonies in North America were producing lots of cotton, using machines to spin the cotton thread on spindles and to weave it into cloth on looms. When they attached a steam engine to these machines, they could easily outproduce India, up until then the world's leading producer of cotton cloth. One steam engine could power many spindles and looms. This meant that people had to leave their homes and work together in factories.

Early in the 19th century the British also invented steam locomotives and steamships, which revolutionized travel. In 1851 they held the first world's fair, at which they exhibited telegraphs, sewing machines, revolvers, reaping machines, and steam hammers to demonstrate they that were the world's leading manufacturer of machinery. By this time the characteristics of industrial society — smoke rising from factories, bigger cities and denser populations, railroads — could be seen in many places in Britain.

### Why Britain?

Britain wasn't the only place that had deposits of coal. So why didn't the Industrial Revolution begin in China, or somewhere else that boasted this natural resource? Did it start in isolation in Britain, or were there global forces at work that shaped it? Was it geography or cultural institutions that mattered most? Historians have vigorously debated these questions, amassing as much evidence as possible for their answers. Possible reasons why industrialization began in Britain include:

- Shortage of wood and the abundance of convenient coal deposits
- Commercial-minded aristocracy; limited monarchy
- System of free enterprise; limited government involvement

- Government support for commercial projects, for a strong navy to protect ships
- Cheap cotton produced by slaves in North America
- High literacy rates
- Rule of law; protection of assets
- Valuable immigrants (Dutch, Jews, Huguenots [French Protestants])
- Possible reasons why industrialization did not begin in China include:
- Location of China's coal, which was in the north, while economic activity was centered in the south
- Rapid growth of population in China, giving less incentive for machines and more for labour-intensive methods
- Confucian ideals that valued stability and frowned upon experimentation and change
- Lack of Chinese government support for maritime explorations, thinking its empire seemed large enough to provide everything needed
- China's focus on defending self from nomadic attacks from the north and west
- Global forces influencing the development of industrialization in Britain include:
- Britain's location on the Atlantic Ocean
- British colonies in North America, which provided land, labour, and markets
- Silver from the Americas, used in trade with China
- Social and ideological conditions in Britain, and new thoughts about the economy, that encouraged an entrepreneurial spirit

By the way, if you're wondering what oil and natural gas were doing while coal was powering the Industrial Revolution, they had been discovered long before and were in use, but mostly as fuels for lamps and other light sources. It wasn't until the mid-20th century that oil caught up — and surpassed — coal in use.



Calcutta Harbor

## NOTES



### The Spread of the Industrial Revolution

Britain tried to keep secret how its machines were made, but people went there to learn about them and took the techniques back home. Sometimes they smuggled the machines out in rowboats to neighboring countries. The first countries after Britain to develop factories and railroads were Belgium, Switzerland, France, and the states that became Germany. Building a national railroad system proved an essential part of industrialization. Belgium began its railroads in 1834, France in 1842, Switzerland in 1847, and Germany in the 1850s.

Industrialization began in the United States when Samuel Slater emigrated from Britain to Rhode Island in 1789 and set up the first textile factory on U.S. soil. He did this from memory, having left Britain without notes or plans that could have been confiscated by British authorities. Francis Cabot Lowell, of Massachusetts, visited Britain from 1810 to 1812 and returned to set up the first power loom and the first factory combining mechanical spinning and weaving in the States. Railroad construction in America boomed from the 1830s to 1870s. The American Civil War (1861–65) was the first truly industrial war — the increasingly urbanized and factory-based North fighting against the agriculture-focused South — and industrialization grew explosively afterward. By 1900 the United States had overtaken Britain in manufacturing, producing 24 percent of the world's output.

After 1870 both Russia and Japan were forced by losing wars to abolish their feudal systems and to compete in the industrializing world. In Japan, the monarchy proved flexible enough to survive through early industrialization. In Russia, a profoundly rural country, the czar and the nobility undertook industrialization while trying to retain their dominance. Factory workers often worked 13-hour days without any legal rights. Discontent erupted repeatedly, and eventually a revolution brought the Communist party to power in 1917.

Industrialized nations used their strong armies and navies to colonize many parts of the world that were not industrialized, gaining access to the raw materials needed for their factories, a practice known as imperialism. In 1800 Europeans occupied or controlled about 34 percent of the land surface of the world; by 1914 this had risen to 84 percent.

Britain led the 19th-century takeovers and ended the century with the largest noncontiguous empire the world has ever known. (“The sun never sets on the British Empire,” as the British liked to say.) Britain exerted great influence in China and the Ottoman Empire without taking over direct rule, while in India, Southeast Asia, and 60 percent of Africa, it assumed all governmental functions.

In the last decade of the 19th century most European nations grabbed for a piece of Africa, and by 1900 the only independent country left on the continent was Ethiopia. After World War II (1939–1945) Europe's colonies demanded their independence, which didn't always happen immediately or without conflict but eventually took root. Now, in the early 21st century, Brazil, China, and India are becoming economic powerhouses, while many European countries are enduring troubled economic times.

### Consequences of the Industrial Revolution

The statistics that reflect the effects of industrialization are staggering. In 1700, before the widespread use of fossil fuels, the world had a population of 670 million people. By 2011



the world's population had reached 6.7 billion, a 10-fold increase in a mere 300 years. In the 20th century alone, the world's economy grew 14-fold, the per capita income grew almost fourfold, and the use of energy expanded at least 13-fold. This kind of growth has never before occurred in human history.

Many people around the world today enjoy the benefits of industrialization. With so much more energy flowing through human systems than ever before, many of us must do much less hard physical labor than earlier generations did. People today are able to feed more babies and bring them to adulthood. Many people vote and participate in modern states, which provide education, social security, and health benefits. Large numbers of people enjoy levels of wealth, health, education, travel, and life expectancy unimagined before industrialization.

The benefits of industrialization, however, have come at great cost. For one thing, the rate of change (acceleration) is now so rapid that individuals and social systems struggle to keep up. And strong arguments can be made about depersonalization in the age of mass production.

The increased complexity of the industrial system has also brought increased fragility. Industrialization depends on the interaction of many diverse components, any one of which could fail. We know that many of the essential components of the industrial system, and the natural resources it depends on, are being compromised — the soil, the oceans, the atmosphere, the underground water levels, plants, and animals are all at risk. Will growth continue unchecked, or are we approaching the end of an unsustainable industrial era? Whatever the future holds, we'll be debating — and dealing with — the consequences of modernization for years to come.

#### 4.4 HISTORY OF METHODS OF PRODUCTION BEFORE INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION



All too often we associate industrialization with the growth of factory industry. When we talk of industrial production, we refer to factory production. When we talk of industrial workers, we mean factory workers. Histories of industrialization very often begin with the setting up of the first factories. There is a problem with such ideas. Even before factories began to dot the landscape in England and Europe, there was large-scale industrial production for an international

market. This was not based on factories. Many historians now refer to this phase of industrialization as proto-industrialization. In the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries, merchants from the towns in Europe began moving to the countryside, supplying money to peasants and artisans, persuading them to produce for an international market.



## NOTES



With the expansion of world trade and the acquisition of colonies in different parts of the world, the demand for goods began growing. But merchants could not expand production within towns. This was because here urban crafts and trade guilds were powerful. These were associations of producers that trained craftspeople, maintained control over production, regulated competition and prices, and restricted the entry of new people into the trade. Rulers granted different guilds the monopoly right to produce and trade in specific products. It was therefore difficult for new merchants to set up business in towns.

So, they turned to the countryside. In the countryside poor peasants and artisans began working for merchants. As you have seen in the textbook last year, this was a time when open fields were disappearing and commons were being enclosed. Cottagers and poor peasants who had earlier depended on common lands for their survival, gathering their firewood, berries, vegetables, hay and straw, had to now look for alternative sources of income. Many had tiny plots of land which could not provide work for all members of the household. So, when merchants came around and offered advances to produce goods for them, peasant households eagerly agreed.

By working for the merchants, they knew words *Proto* – Indicating the first or early form of something India and the Contemporary World 106 could remain in the countryside and continue to cultivate their small plots. Income from proto-industrial production supplemented their shrinking income from cultivation. It also allowed them a fuller use of their family labor resources. Within this system a close relationship developed between the town and the countryside. Merchants were based in towns but the work was done mostly in the countryside. A merchant clothier in England purchased wool from a wool stapler, and carried it to the spinners; the yarn (thread) that was spun was taken in subsequent stages of production to weavers, fullers, and then to dyers.

The finishing was done in London before the export merchant sold the cloth in the international market. London in fact came to be known as a finishing Centre. This proto-industrial system was thus part of a network of commercial exchanges. It was controlled by merchants and the goods were produced by a vast number of producers working within their family farms, not in factories. At each stage of production 20 to 25 workers were employed by each merchant. This meant that each clothier was controlling hundreds of workers.

#### 4.5 INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION FIRST IN ENGLAND



The earliest factories in England came up by the 1730s. But it was only in the late eighteenth century that the number of factories multiplied. The first symbol of the new era was cotton. Its production boomed in the late nineteenth century. In 1760 Britain was importing 2.5 million pounds of raw cotton to feed its cotton industry. By 1787 this import soared to 22 million pounds. This increase was linked to a number of changes within the process of production.

Let us look briefly at some of these. A series of inventions in the eighteenth century increased the efficacy of each step of

the production process (carding, twisting and spinning, and rolling). They enhanced the output per worker, enabling each worker to produce more, and they made possible the production of stronger threads and yarn. Then Richard Arkwright created the cotton mill. Till this time, as you have seen, cloth production was spread all over the countryside and carried out within village households. But now, the costly new machines could be purchased, set up and maintained in the mill.

Within the mill all the New words Stapler – A person who ‘staples’ or sorts wool according to its fibre Fuller – A person who ‘fulls’ – that is, gathers – cloth by pleating Carding – The process in which fibres, such as cotton or wool, are prepared prior to spinning in the given figure – A Lancashire cotton mill, painted by C.E. Turner, *The Illustrated London News*, 1925. The artist said: ‘Seen through the humid atmosphere that makes Lancashire the best cotton-spinning locality in the world, a huge cotton-mill aglow with electricity in the twilight, is a most impressive sight.’

The Age of Industrialization processes were brought together under one roof and management. This allowed a more careful supervision over the production process, a watch over quality, and the regulation of labor, all of which had been difficult to do when production was in the countryside. In the early nineteenth century, factories increasingly became an intimate part of the English landscape. So visible were the imposing new mills, so magical seemed to be the power of new technology, that contemporaries were dazzled. They concentrated their attention on the mills, almost forgetting the bylines and the workshops where production still continued



**Industrial Manchester**

#### **4.6 COMPONENTS OF INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION**

How rapid was the process of industrialization? Does industrialization mean only the growth of factory industries?

NOTES **The First Industrial Revolution: The Age of Mechanical Production**

As it turns out, when you heat up water, you get steam. And beginning around 1760, through the advent of the steam engine, steam was powering everything from agriculture to textile manufacturing.

Society used to be largely agrarian, which is a fancy way of saying that life used to be centered around farming. But with steam power, those agrarian societies gave way to urbanization. The world began to rely on steam power and machine tools, while steamships and railroads revolutionized how people got from A to B. And what emerged as the new center of community life? The factory.



But factory life was difficult. Unskilled factory laborers were cheap and plentiful. They were made to work long hours, often in unsafe conditions. Even children worked in factories, putting in 14-hour shifts alongside adults. Such conditions endured into the 20th century.

Ultimately, advancing industrialization created a middle class of skilled workers. Cities and industries grew more quickly than ever before, and economies grew along with them.

**The Second Industrial Revolution: The Age of Science and Mass Production**

Things started to speed up with a number of key inventions. Think gasoline engines, airplanes, chemical fertilizer. All inventions that helped us go faster and do more.

But advancements in science weren't limited to the laboratory. Scientific principles were brought right into the factories. Most notably, the assembly line, which effectively powered mass production. By the early part of the 20th century, Henry Ford's company was mass producing the groundbreaking Ford Model T, a car with a gasoline engine built on an assembly line in his factories.



People follow the jobs, and the early 1900s saw workers leaving their rural homes behind to move to urban areas and factory jobs. By 1900, 40% of the US population lived in cities, compared to just 6% in 1800. Along with increasing urbanization, inventions such as electric lighting, radio, and telephones transformed the way people lived and communicated.

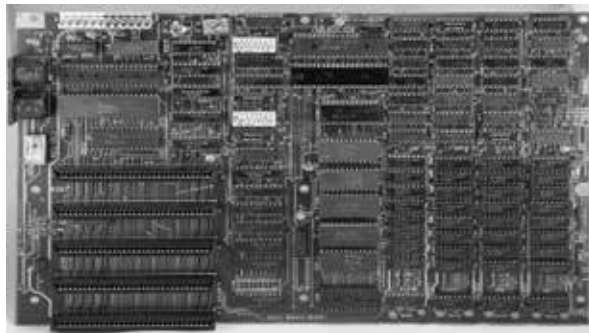
When you stop and think about it, it was this industrial revolution, the second one, that ushered in the modern world.

### **The Third Industrial Revolution: The Digital Revolution**

You're experiencing some of the wonders of the digital revolution right now. You're enjoying the cloud, the Internet, and some kind of handy device that lets you access both. You can even be reading this on your phone. Welcome to the digital revolution.

Beginning in the 1950s, the third industrial revolution brought semiconductors, mainframe computing, personal computing, and the Internet—the digital revolution. Things that used to be analog moved to digital technologies, like an old television you used to tune in with an antenna (analog) being replaced by an Internet-connected tablet that lets you stream movies (digital).

The move from analog electronic and mechanical devices to pervasive digital technology dramatically disrupted industries, especially global communications and energy. Electronics and information technology began to automate production and take supply chains global.







### **The Fourth Industrial Revolution: Starting Now!**

The Fourth Industrial Revolution is a term that describes present technological age. It is the fourth industrial era since the inception of the initial Industrial Revolution of the 18th century. The key elements of the fourth revolution are the fusion of technologies ranging from the physical, digital to biological spheres.

Building on the foundation given by the third Industrial Revolution, the fourth Industrial Revolution is moving from an electronic based industry to a process which is the combination of human beings and electronics.

It includes cyber-physical systems, the Internet of things, big data analytics, cloud computing, cognitive computing, artificial intelligence, 3-D printing, and autonomous vehicles etc. The best example would be processed artificial intelligence has broken the distinction between the Man, The Machine and Intelligence.

### **How can Industrial Revolution 4.0 help India?**

- It can play a major role in alleviating poverty.
- Better and low-cost health care can be achieved through the implementation of AI-driven diagnostics, personalized treatment, early identification of potential pandemics, and imaging diagnostics, among others.
- Enhancing farmer's income by providing them with the latest technologies, improvement in crop yield through real-time advisory, advanced detection of pest attacks, and prediction of crop prices to inform sowing practices.
- It will strengthen infrastructure and improve connectivity to the very last village.
- Artificial intelligence can be used to empower and enable specially-abled people.
- It will improve ease of living and ease of doing business using smart technologies.
- Recently, India has announced her drone policy, which will play an important role in security, traffic and mapping.

### **India and Industrial Revolution**

India was famous for her handicrafts from the pre-British times. In Mughal periods such as the variety of handicrafts that it became famous in the global market. However, the Industrial Revolution came late to India. This was mainly because of India's complicated political and economic relations with Britain. Impact of the revolution: -

- India dominated the cotton textile market in the 18th century. It took a severe hit when the Industrial Revolution began in England around 1760s.
- The use of steam power in British mills reduced the cost of cotton by 85 %.
- In order to protect its domestic industry, it began to restrict textile imports from India. On the other hand, it started to import textiles to India.
- British protectionist laws led to deindustrialization in India.
- The new colonial law forced the farmers to grow cash crops like cotton instead of food crops, leading to famine and poverty.



The third Industrial Revolution started in India in 1980s. Advancement in this phase encompasses the spread of personal computers, internet, and ICT. In India, the Industrial Revolution 4.0 is mainly based on Big Data and Artificial Intelligence.

#### 4.7 IMPACT OF INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION

The Industrial Revolution was a watershed moment in human history as every aspect of daily life felt its impact in one way or another. The average income and the growth of the population, in general, saw unprecedented changes. Modern economists are of the opinion that the standard of living of the general population began to change considerably for the first time in history even though it did not see an overall improvement until the beginning of the 20th century.

The Industrial Revolution saw the emergence of modern capitalist economies around the world at this time as the GDP per capita saw an exponential rate of growth around this time. Economic historians regard the Industrial Revolutions as the most important moment in human history since the domestication of animals and plants.

Industrialization marked a shift to powered, special-purpose machinery, factories and mass production. The iron and textile industries became the mainstay of the industrial revolution. From cooking appliances to ships, all had components of iron and steel. The process went into hyperdrive with the advent of steam engines and ships.

Technological changes that took place during the industrial revolution. During the industrial revolution, acceleration in the processes of technological innovation brought about an array of new tools and machines. The following are key technological changes that took place during the industrial revolution:

- **Textiles:** During the period, the organization of cotton production shifted from a small-scale cottage industry, in which rural families performed spinning and weaving tasks in their homes, to a large, mechanized, factory-based industry.
  - The boom in productivity began with a few technical devices, including the spinning jenny, spinning mule, and power loom.
- **Agriculture:** Several factors came together in 18th-century Europe to bring about a substantial increase in agricultural productivity.
  - These included new types of equipment, such as the seed drill developed by Jethro Toll around 1701. Progress was also made in crop rotation and land use, soil health, development of new crop varieties, and animal husbandry.
  - The result was a sustained increase in yields, capable of feeding a rapidly growing population with improved nutrition.
- **Energy:** The mining and distribution of coal set in motion some of the dynamics that led to Britain's industrialization. The coal-fired steam engine was in many respects the decisive technology of the Industrial Revolution.
- **Transportation:** Concurrent with the increased output of agricultural produce and manufactured goods arose the need for more efficient means of delivering these products to market.



- **Steam engines** and railways became important features of the industrial revolution during the 19th century.

### **Social and economic changes that took place during the industrial revolution**

A lot of socio-economic change took place during the Industrial Revolution. It changed the character and culture of people in the whole world.

- **Population Explosion:** Advancement in technology and better agricultural production led to better medical facilities and greater employment which led to population explosion.
- **Development of Banking and Finance System:** the middle class began opening up new factories for which they required financing and therefore, the banking and finance system began developing.
- **Status of Women:** The Industrial Revolution marked a dramatic change for women as many of them entered the workforce for the first time. Women had to compete with men for jobs. Female factory workers often made only one-third as much as men.
- **Rising Middle Class:** The middle-class men started owning factories, sent their male children to school and rose up in society due to an increase in wealth.
- **Urbanization:** People started moving to urban areas in search of better jobs in factories due to which these areas became highly populous with poor housing facilities.
- **The exploitation of resources:** industrial Revolution made the production of goods easy and ready in much less time. Therefore, more and more goods began to be produced which led to the exploitation of resources.

The Industrial Revolution was a revolutionary experience. It also increased material wealth, extended life, and was a powerful force for social change. And therefore, **there was more to the Industrial Revolution than a bunch of machines**, it was not only a technological revolution but a social-economic revolution that changed the way people lived afterwards.

### **4.8 CHAPTER SUMMARY**

The Industrial Revolution began in Great Britain, and many of the technological innovations were of British origin. Due to its cold damp climate, Britain was ideal for raising sheep which gave it a long history of producing textiles such as wool, linen, cotton etc. Before the industrial revolution, the textile industry was in every sense a 'cottage industry' as the work was performed in smaller workshops and homes by individual spinners, weavers and dyers.

With the introduction of machines like the flying shuttle, spinning jenny and power loom, weaving cloth and spinning yarn was made much easier and faster, while at the same time requiring less human labour.

The efficient and mechanized means of production could now meet the growing demand for cloth both at home and abroad. Britain's overseas colonies were also a captive market



for the goods it produced now. Along with the textile industry, the iron industry adopted some innovations of its own as well.

One of these innovations was the method of smelting iron with coke, a material created by heating coal. This method was cheaper when compared to using charcoal that was traditionally used and produced high-quality material at the same time. The rapidly expanding steel and iron production fulfilled demands created by many wars that Britain fought overseas, such as the Napoleonic Wars (1803-1815) and it helped in the growth of the railway industry.

Nothing so vividly describes the impact of the industrial revolution as the invention of machines that harnessed the power of steam. The first prototype of a modern steam engine was designed by Thomas Newcomen in the early 1700s. He named it as the “atmospheric steam engine” and was originally created for pumping out water from mines.

James Watt, an engineer from Scotland, worked on the steam engine created by Newcomen in the 1760s. By adding a water condenser to make it more efficient, James Watt invented a steam engine that would be far more efficient than any other models invented so far. Also, his innovation would be used by many industries such as paper and cotton mills, waterworks, canals, ironworks etc.

The demand for coal rose to astronomical heights during this period as most of the machines were powered by these cheap sources of energy. But these demands for coal were themselves met by the machines that helped workers to extract coal from the mines.

The later period of the Industrial Revolution saw many advances in long-distance communication. The first telegraphy system was patented by inventors William Cooke and Charles Wheatstone, while Samuel Morse worked on their version of the telegraph in the United States. The telegraph system created by Wheatstone and Cooke would be used for signalling in the railways as it required efficient means of communication due to the speed of the trains in question.

A new factory system that relied on owners and managers came to be during this time period. Along with the first stock exchanges in the 1770s and 1790s in Britain and the United States respectively. Adam Smith, regarded as the ‘father of modern economics’, published *The Wealth of Nations* where he advocated a system of free-market characterised by individual ownership of methods of production and little to no government interference.

For all its technological marvels and breakthroughs, the Industrial Revolution came with a few faults of its own. The rapid industrialisation had led to rapid urbanisation, prompting many to leave the countryside to find work in the cities. This brought significant challenges as the cities now suffered from overcrowding, pollution, appalling levels of sanitation compounded by frequent shortages of clean drinking water.

Although the standard of living improved dramatically for the middle and upper classes, the poor and the working classes had no change in their lot in life. Although mechanization of factories had improved output and production overall, the working conditions had become tedious and at times fraught with danger. The wages paid to these workers were also low, fuelling violent opposition to changes in Britain’s industrial landscape.

## NOTES



The Industrial Revolution was a watershed moment in human history as every aspect of daily life felt its impact in one way or another. The average income and the growth of the population, in general, saw unprecedented changes. Modern economists are of the opinion that the standard of living of the general population began to change considerably for the first time in history even though it did not see an overall improvement until the beginning of the 20th century.

The Industrial Revolution saw the emergence of modern capitalist economies around the world at this time as the GDP per capita saw an exponential rate of growth around this time. Economic historians regard the Industrial Revolutions as the most important moment in human history since the domestication of animals and plants.

#### 4.9 REVIEW QUESTIONS

##### SHORT ANSWER TYPE QUESTIONS

1. What was the Industrial Revolution? What were the interesting features of the inventions of this period?
2. How did the agricultural revolution lead to the Industrial Revolution?
3. Why was the steam engine important to the Industrial Revolution?
4. What was the foremost factor which had made Britain the founding father of the Industrial Revolution?
5. How can Industrial Revolution 4.0 help India?

##### LONG ANSWER TYPE QUESTIONS

1. How and why did the Industrial Revolution happen?
2. How did industrialization change working-class families?
3. Why is there seen a gap of a few years or decades or even a century between development and its widespread application?
4. How did Britain's involvement in wars from 1793 to 1815 affect British industries?
5. What were the relative advantages of canal and railway transportation?

#### 4.10 MULTIPLE CHOICE QUESTIONS

1. To drain mines, the Miner's Friend was invented, in 1698, by
  - a. James Watt
  - b. Thomas Savery
  - c. Thomas Newcomen
  - d. Matthew Boulton
2. By the 1850s, most of Britain was connected by
  - a. Rivers
  - b. Railways
  - c. Canals
  - d. Roads



3. **The transformation of industry and the economy in Britain, between the 1780s and the 1850s, is called the**
  - a. First Industrial Revolution
  - b. First Agricultural Revolution
  - c. First Technological Revolution
  - d. First Communication Revolution
4. **Initially, canals were built in England to**
  - a. Transport Coal to Cities.
  - b. Transport Food Grains.
  - c. Transport People.
  - d. Transport raw cotton.
5. **Among the several factors which made Britain the first industrialised country, the one described as a major economic change, in 18th century, was**
  - a. Common laws.
  - b. Single currency and market.
  - c. Use of money as medium of exchange.
  - d. Agricultural Revolution.
6. **What are buildings that contain machines for manufacturing?**
  - a. Barns
  - b. Factories
  - c. Stadiums
  - d. Schools
7. **What powered the first locomotive?**
  - a. Batteries
  - b. Alternating current
  - c. Steam
  - d. Nuclear
8. **The inventions were based on**
  - a. Study on natural science
  - b. Individual adventures
  - c. Determination, curiosity and interest of individuals
  - d. Study of humanities.
9. **Factory managers considered child labour as training for, future factory work because**
  - a. There were no other works available than factories.
  - b. It was a conspiracy of the British Government to limit the potential of working class.
  - c. Children would feel themselves perfect in their youth.
  - d. Workers were given no political rights and they could not – form their unions.

NOTES



10. The earliest factories in England came up by \_\_\_\_\_. But it was only in the late eighteenth century that the number of factories multiplied.
- a. 1760s
  - b. 1830s
  - c. 1730s
  - d. None of the above

◆◆◆◆

# AMERICAN REVOLUTION

## STRUCTURE

- 5.1 Learning Objective
- 5.2 Introduction
- 5.3 American Revolution (1765)
- 5.4 Reasons for American Resentments Against the British
- 5.5 Mercantile Capitalism
- 5.6 Royal Proclamation of 1763
- 5.7 Role of Enlightenment Thinkers
- 5.8 No Representation in British Parliament
- 5.9 Intolerable Acts of 1774
- 5.10 The Philadelphia Congress
- 5.11 Chapter Summary
- 5.12 Review Questions
- 5.13 Multiple Choice Questions





## 5.1 LEARNING OBJECTIVE

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After completing this unit, students will be able to:

- Learn about the history of American Revolution
- Know about the events that took place during the revolution such as the Stamp Act, Intolerable Acts of 1774, etc.
- Learn about the role of enlightenment thinkers
- Learn about the Royal Proclamation of 1763
- Know about Mercantile Capitalism
- Learn about the Philadelphia Congress

## 5.2 INTRODUCTION

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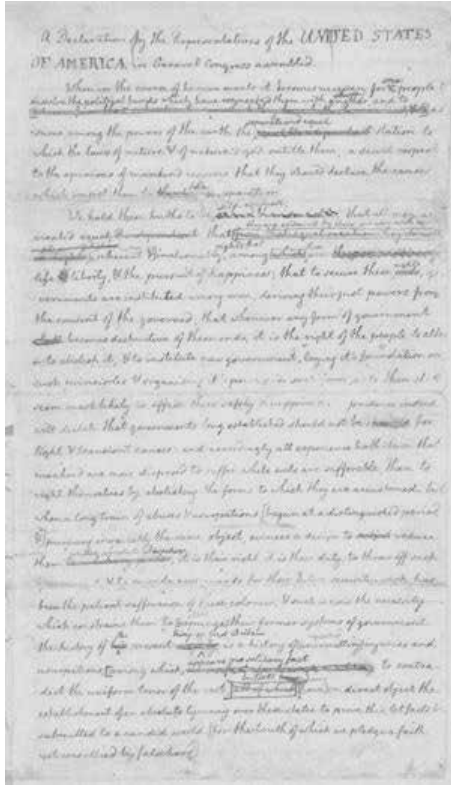
Until the end of the Seven Years' War in 1763, few colonists in British North America objected to their place in the British Empire. Colonists in British America reaped many benefits from the British imperial system and bore few costs for those benefits. Indeed, until the early 1760s, the British mostly left their American colonies alone. The Seven Years' War (known in the United States as the French and Indian War) changed everything. Although Britain eventually achieved victory over France and its allies, victory had come at great cost. A staggering war debt influenced many British policies over the next decade. Attempts to raise money by reforming colonial administration, enforcing tax laws, and placing troops in America led directly to conflict with colonists. By the mid-1770s, relations between Americans and the British administration had become strained and acrimonious.

The first shots of what would become the war for American independence were fired in April 1775. For some months before that clash at Lexington and Concord, patriots had been gathering arms and powder and had been training to fight the British if that became necessary. General Thomas Gage, commander of British forces around Boston, had been cautious; he did not wish to provoke the Americans. In April, however, Gage received orders to arrest several patriot leaders, rumored to be around Lexington.

Gage sent his troops out on the night of April 18, hoping to catch the colonists by surprise and thus to avoid bloodshed. When the British arrived in Lexington, however, colonial militia awaited them. A fire fight soon ensued. Even so, it was not obvious that this clash would lead to war. American opinion was split. Some wanted to declare independence immediately; others hoped for a quick reconciliation. The majority of Americans remained undecided but watching and waiting.

In June 1775, the Continental Congress created, on paper, a Continental Army and appointed George Washington as Commander. Washington's first task, when he arrived in Boston to take charge of the ragtag militia assembled there, was to create an army in fact. It was a daunting task with no end of problems: recruitment, retention, training and discipline, supply, and payment for soldiers' services were among those problems. Nevertheless, Washington realized that keeping an army in the field was his single most important objective.

During the first two years of the Revolutionary War, most of the fighting between the patriots and British took place in the north. At first, the British generally had their way because of their far superior sea power. Despite Washington's daring victories at Trenton and Princeton, New Jersey, in late 1776 and early 1777, the British still retained the initiative.



Indeed, had British efforts been better coordinated, they probably could have put down the rebellion in 1777. But such was not to be. Patriot forces, commanded by General Horatio Gates, achieved a significant victory at Saratoga, New York, in October 1777. Within months, this victory induced France to sign treaties of alliance and commerce with the United States. In retrospect, French involvement was the turning point of the war, although that was not obvious at the time.

Between 1778 and 1781, British military operations focused on the south because the British assumed a large percentage of Southerners were loyalists who could help them subdue the patriots. The British were successful in most conventional battles fought in that region, especially in areas close to their points of supply on the Atlantic coast. Even so, American generals Nathanael Greene and Daniel Morgan turned to guerrilla and hit-and-run warfare that eventually stymied the British. By 1781, British

General Lord Charles Cornwallis was ordered to march into Virginia to await resupply near Chesapeake Bay. The Americans and their French allies pounced on Cornwallis and forced his surrender.

Yorktown was a signal victory for the patriots, but two years of sporadic warfare, continued military preparations, and diplomatic negotiations still lay ahead. The Americans and British signed a preliminary peace treaty on November 30, 1782; they signed the final treaty, known as the Peace of Paris, on September 10, 1783. The treaty was generally quite favorable to the United States in terms of national boundaries and other concessions. Even so, British violations of the agreement would become an almost constant source of irritation between the two nations far into the future.

### 5.3 AMERICAN REVOLUTION (1765)

The British crown had different colonies all over the world – in Asia, Africa, and America. By AD 1770's, there were 13 colonies of Great Britain in North America. The colonial government was represented by the British crown (King George III). Tensions grew over time between the residents of Great Britain's 13 North American colonies and the colonial government, which resulted in a full-fledged war by 1775. The American residents fought against the British by making an alliance with France. Americans defeated the British in the American Revolutionary War, thus becoming the United States of America.



NOTES **A Little History of the American Continent – How did Britain start ruling Americas?**

Before 1492, the entire focus of history was limited to the *old world*. It contained the whole of the world's landmass without the Americas. There is no land route available to the *New World*. So it remained isolated from the major cultures and civilizations of the old world.

This changed when the sea route to America was discovered by Christopher Columbus in 1492. After that, various European powers established colonies in North America, prominent among them being Spain, Holland, France and **England**.

The colonies were populated mainly by European migrants who were landless peasants, people facing religious persecution, traders, explorers, and others seeking adventure and profit in these new found lands.



There were constant clashes between the hegemonic powers to establish control over as much land as possible and control trade supply lines. Since these powers were locked in conflicts across the globe, a new theatre of war was inaugurated in the Americas.

The rivalry was especially strong between **England and France**, which culminated in the **seven years' war (1756-63)**. It is known as the "**first true world war**" and was fought in Europe, West Africa, the Americas, India and the Philippines.

The war concluded with the **Battle of Wandiwash (1760)** with the decisive British victory. This ushered in an **era of British supremacy across the globe**. Both parties signed the **Treaty of Paris (1763)**, bringing an end to the war. (You may note that this treaty had a profound impact on India in the sense that French was subdued completely and this led to the consolidation of British power in India).

In North America, **Britain consolidated all colonies lining the Atlantic coast and drove the French out of Canada**. She was also successful in taking many Dutch territories, most important being New Netherlands, renaming it to New York.

**American Colonies – Conditions**

The colonies of England lined the Atlantic coast and were thirteen in number. The colonies had a diverse population, but the majority of them were independent farmers. With time, new industries were set up producing wool, flax and leather, mostly for European markets.

However, the nature of economies was varied within them. Fishing, shipbuilding, and allied industries grew in the north while plantation agriculture thrived in the south. Later, the divide grew into the north industrializing further and the south lapsing into a feudal economy powered by slaves brought from Africa. (You may note that this divide later led to the **American civil war (1861-65)** as well).



Politically, the colonies were governed by a **locally elected assembly**. They enacted laws and levied taxes. Though they enjoyed some independence, **they were ultimately answerable to the mother country (Britain)**.

Though Britain was ruled by the Parliament, secondary treatment was meted out to the people of America. This led to widespread discontentment and provided a fertile ground for rebel ideas to grow and prosper.

The ideas from the **age of enlightenment** influenced the Americans profoundly and the idea of staying as an independent nation gained traction.

## 5.4 REASONS FOR AMERICAN RESENTMENTS AGAINST THE BRITISH

An increasing tide of unrest rose in the British American colonies from 1763–1774 as the British government imposed a series of imperial reform measures. The British hoped not only to gain greater control over colonial trade and frontier settlement, but also to reduce the administrative cost of the colonies and the enormous debt left by the French and Indian War. Each step the British took, however, generated a backlash. Over time, imperial reforms pushed many colonists toward separation from the British Empire.

### Confronting the National Debt: The Aftermath of the French and Indian War

The British Empire had gained supremacy in North America with its victory over the French in 1763. Almost all of the North American territory east of the Mississippi fell under Great Britain's control, and British leaders took this opportunity to try to create a more coherent and unified empire after decades of lax oversight. Victory over the French had proved very costly, however, and the British believed the frontier had to be secured with a standing army in order to prevent another costly war with American Indian tribes.

## NOTES



Greater enforcement of imperial trade laws was put into place, and Parliament sought to raise revenue to pay off the crippling debt from the war and the cost of a standing army in America by implementing new taxes on the colonies.

The initial steps the British took in 1763 and 1764 to better regulate their expanded empire in North America raised suspicions among some colonists about the intent of the home government. These suspicions would grow and swell over the coming years.

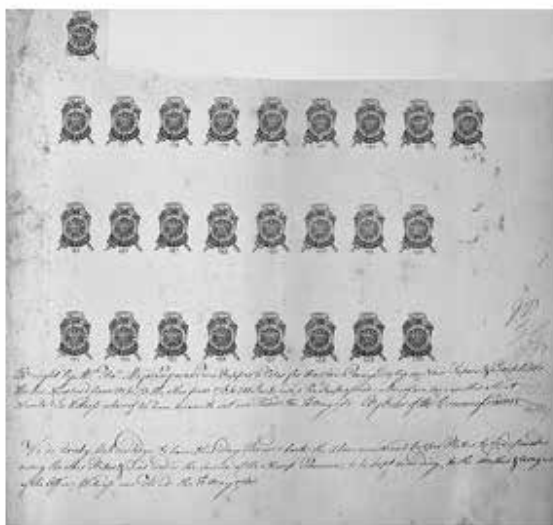
### Colonial Taxes and Protests

#### The Stamp Act

In 1765, the British Parliament moved beyond the efforts during the previous two years to better regulate westward expansion and trade with the Stamp Act. As a direct tax on the colonists, the Stamp Act imposed an internal tax on almost every type of printed paper colonist used, including newspapers, legal documents, and playing cards.

While the architects of the Stamp Act saw the measure as a way to defray the costs of the British Empire, it nonetheless gave rise to the first major colonial protest against British imperial control as expressed in the famous slogan “no taxation without representation.”

The Stamp Act reinforced the sense among some colonists that Parliament was not treating them as equals of their peers across the Atlantic. Outrage over the act created a degree of unity among otherwise unconnected American colonists, giving them a chance to act together both politically and socially. The crisis of the Stamp Act allowed colonists to loudly proclaim their identity as defenders of British liberty. With the repeal of the Stamp Act in 1766, liberty-loving subjects of the king celebrated what they viewed as a victory.



(a)



(b)

**The Stamp Act:** Under the Stamp Act, anyone who used or purchased anything printed on paper had to buy a revenue stamp for it. Image (a) shows a partial proof sheet of one-penny stamps. Image (b) provides a close-up of a one-penny stamp. (Credit (a): modification of work by the United Kingdom Government; Credit (b): modification of work by the United Kingdom Government)



### **The Townshend Acts and the Boston Massacre**

Colonists' joy over the repeal of the Stamp Act did not last long. The Declaratory Act of 1766 had articulated Great Britain's supreme authority over the colonies, and Parliament soon began exercising that authority. In 1767, Parliament passed the Townshend Acts, which implemented a tax on consumer goods in British North America. Like the Stamp Act, the Townshend Acts led many colonists to work together against what they perceived to be an unconstitutional measure. Protests eventually led to the Boston Massacre of 1770, in which five colonists were killed. The experience of resisting the Townshend Acts provided another shared experience among colonists from diverse regions and backgrounds, while its later partial repeal convinced many that liberty had once again been defended. Nonetheless, Great Britain's debt crisis still had not been solved.

### **The Tea Act and the Boston Tea Party**

The Tea Act of 1773 triggered a reaction with far more significant consequences than either the 1765 Stamp Act or the 1767 Townshend Acts. Colonists who had joined in protest against those earlier acts renewed their efforts in 1773. They understood that Parliament had again asserted its right to impose taxes without representation, and they feared the Tea Act was designed to seduce them into conceding this important principle by lowering the price of tea to the point that colonists might be satisfied.

They also deeply resented the East India Company's monopoly on the sale of tea in the American colonies; this resentment sprang from the knowledge that some members of Parliament had invested heavily in the company. The colonial rejection of the Tea Act culminated in an act of resistance known as the Boston Tea Party, in which a group of colonists from the Sons of Liberty threw \$1 million (in today's dollars) worth of British tea into the Boston Harbor that was meant to be sold in the colonies.

This act recast the decade-long argument between British colonists and the home government as an intolerable conspiracy against liberty and an excessive overreach of parliamentary power. The British responded by implementing the Coercive Acts, which were punitive in nature and meant to make an example of the colonies; and sending British troops to Boston to close Boston Harbor, causing tensions and resentments to escalate further.

### **The First Continental Congress and the Outbreak of War**

Following the Coercive Acts, colonists established the First Continental Congress, which comprised elected representatives from 12 of the 13 American colonies and represented a direct challenge to British authority. In its Declaration and Resolves, colonists demanded the repeal of all repressive acts passed since 1773.

The delegates also recommended that the colonies raise militias, lest the British respond to the Congress's proposed boycott of British goods with force. While the colonists still considered themselves British subjects, they were slowly retreating from British authority, creating their own de facto government via the First Continental Congress. The British largely ignored the demands of the Continental Congress and tried to disarm colonial insurgents in Massachusetts by confiscating their weapons and ammunition and arresting the leaders of the patriotic movement.

## NOTES



However, this effort faltered on April 19, 1775, when Massachusetts militias and British troops fired on each other as British troops marched to Lexington and Concord, an event immortalized by poet Ralph Waldo Emerson as the “shot heard round the world.” The American Revolution had begun.

In short, the following points led to the revolution:

- An increasing tide of unrest rose in the British American colonies from 1763–1774 as the British government imposed a series of imperial reform measures.
- The British hoped not only to gain greater control over colonial trade and frontier settlement, but also to reduce the administrative cost of the colonies and the enormous debt left by the French and Indian War.
- The British Parliament passed several revenue-raising acts that increased taxes in the colonies, including the Stamp Act, the Townshend Acts, and the Tea Act.
- Colonists resented the increased taxes and felt they were not being represented fairly in British government; they organized protests in the form of boycotts, groups like the Sons of Liberty, and the famous Boston Tea Party.
- Britain responded to colonial protest by enforcing punitive measures, and tensions rose until fighting broke out in the Battles of Lexington and Concord in April of 1775, marking the beginning of the Revolutionary War.

#### Key Terms

- **East India Company:** An English, and later British, joint-stock company which traded mainly with the Indian subcontinent and Qing, China.
- **Boston Massacre:** An incident on March 5, 1770, in which British Army soldiers killed five male civilians and injured six others.
- **Sons of Liberty:** An organization of American colonists that was created in the 13 American colonies to protect the rights of the colonists and fight taxation by the British government.

## 5.5 MERCANTILE CAPITALISM

### What Is Mercantilism?

Mercantilism was an economic system of trade that spanned from the 16th century to the 18th century. Mercantilism is based on the principle that the world’s wealth was static, and consequently, many European nations attempted to accumulate the largest possible share of that wealth by maximizing their exports and by limiting their imports via tariffs.

Mercantilism is an economic policy designed to increase a nation’s wealth through exports, which thrived in Great Britain between the 16th and 18th centuries. The country enjoyed the greatest benefits of mercantilism between 1640 and 1660 when the prevailing economic wisdom suggested that the empire’s colonies could supply raw materials and resources to the mother country and subsequently be used as export markets for the finished products.

The resulting favorable balance of trade was thought to increase national wealth and Great Britain was not alone in this line of thinking. The French, Spanish, and Portuguese

competed with the British for colonies under the belief that no great nation could exist and be self-sufficient without colonial resources. Because of this heavy reliance on its colonies, Great Britain imposed restrictions on how its colonies could spend their money or distribute assets.

### History of Mercantilism

First popularized in Europe during the 1500s, mercantilism was based on the idea that a nation's wealth and power were best served by increasing exports, in an effort to collect precious metals like gold and silver.

Mercantilism replaced the feudal economic system in Western Europe. At the time, England was the epicenter of the British Empire but had relatively few natural resources. To grow its wealth, England introduced fiscal policies that discouraged colonists from buying foreign products, while creating incentives to only buy British goods. For example, the Sugar Act of 1764 raised duties on foreign refined sugar and molasses imported by the colonies, in an effort to give British sugar growers in the West Indies a monopoly on the colonial market.

Similarly, the Navigation Act of 1651 forbade foreign vessels from trading along the British coast and required colonial exports to first pass through British control before being redistributed throughout Europe. Programs like these resulted in a favorable balance of trade that increased Great Britain's national wealth.

Under mercantilism, nations frequently engaged their military might to ensure local markets and supply sources were protected, to support the idea that a nation's economic health heavily relied on its supply of capital. Mercantilists also believed that a nation's economic health could be assessed by its levels of ownership of precious metals, like gold or silver, which tended to rise with increased new home construction, increased agricultural output, and a strong merchant fleet to provide additional markets with goods and raw materials.

### Jean-Baptiste Colbert: The Mercantile Ideal

Arguably the most influential proponent of mercantilism, French Controller General of Finance Jean-Baptiste Colbert (1619-1683) studied foreign-trade economic theories and was uniquely positioned to execute these ideas. As a devout monarchist, Colbert called for an economic strategy that protected the French crown from a rising Dutch mercantile class.

Colbert also increased the size of the French navy, on the belief that France had to control its trade routes to increase its wealth. Although his practices ultimately proved unsuccessful, his ideas were hugely popular, until they were overshadowed by the theory of free-market economics.

### British Colonial Mercantilism

The British colonies were subject to the direct and indirect effects of mercantilist policy at home. Below are several examples:

- **Controlled production and trade:** Mercantilism led to the adoption of enormous trade restrictions, which stunted the growth and freedom of colonial businesses.





## NOTES



- **The expansion of the slave trade:** Trade became triangulated between the British Empire, its colonies, and foreign markets, fostering the development of the slave trade in many colonies, including America. The colonies provided rum, cotton, and other products demanded by African imperialists. In turn, slaves were returned to America or the West Indies and traded for sugar and molasses.
- **Inflation and taxation:** The British government demanded that trades were conducted using gold and silver bullion, ever seeking a positive balance of trade. The colonies often had insufficient bullion left over to circulate in their markets, so they issued paper currency instead. Mismanagement of printed currency resulted in inflationary periods. Additionally, since Great Britain was in a near-constant state of war, heavy taxation was needed to prop up its army and navy. The combination of taxes and inflation caused great colonial discontent.

### British Mercantilism's Control of Production and Trade

Mercantilism led to the adoption of enormous trade restrictions, which stunted the growth and freedom of colonial business. Much of the trade that took place before the mid-17th century was controlled by the Spanish and Dutch, including to and from England. That was until the British decided to take the reins of their own shipping rights and eliminate these other nations completely from the equation.

In the 1660s, England passed the Acts of Trade and Navigation. Also known as the Navigation Acts, they were a series of laws designed to make American colonies more dependent on manufactured products from Great Britain. In this vein, British authorities further enumerated a set of protected goods that could only be sold to British merchants, including sugar, tobacco, cotton, indigo, furs, and iron.

But Britain's rise in the shipping wars didn't come without a cost. In fact, there were many transgressions and human rights violations that were committed by imperial the country (not to mention other European empires) on its colonies in Africa, Asia, and the Americas during this time. One of the key things to remember, though, is that not many of these transgressions were directly rationalized by mercantilism.

### The Slave Trade

Slavery was a common practice throughout the history of human civilization. The earliest records date back thousands of years to Mesopotamia. The Spanish, French, and Dutch used it to take advantage of the resources in parts of the New World. When local Indigenous populations started to decline, Blacks were transported from parts of Europe and Africa to the West Indies and South America, The British also used slavery to boost their position and advance their own interests.

Trade became triangulated during the mid-1600s between the British Empire, its colonies, and foreign markets. This fostered the development of the slave trade by England in many colonies, including America. The colonies provided rum, cotton, and other products that were heavily demanded by imperialists in Africa. In turn, slaves were returned to America or the West Indies and traded for sugar and molasses.

Not only did these new resources provide England with a large source of revenue, but so too did the slave trade. English company Royal Adventurers Trading to Africa and its successor, the Royal African Company were given a monopoly in the trade of slaves as early as the 1660s. By 1698, trading slaves was a right given to every Englishman, and the construction of large ships allowed as many as 40,000 slaves to be transported to and from English ports.

### **Inflation and Taxation**

The British government demanded the trade of gold and silver bullion and was always seeking a positive balance of trade.<sup>4</sup> As such, the colonies often had insufficient bullion left over to circulate in their own markets so they took to issuing paper currency instead. The mismanagement of printed currency resulted in periods of inflation.

Great Britain was also in a near-constant state of war. Taxation was needed to prop up the army and navy. The combination of inflation and taxation caused great colonial discontent. Some of the most notable taxes in early American history include:

- In 1733, the British Empire enacted the Molasses Act, which imposed a tax on foreign molasses imports per gallon.
- The British raised revenue by enacting the Sugar Act of 1764. Although it cut the tax on molasses, the law (also called the American Revenue Act or the American Duties Act) was enforced even more strictly.
- The Stamp Act of 1765 required all American colonists to pay a direct tax to England that would help pay for British troops in America. The act also required colonists to use stamped paper produced in England for any printed material.
- Other laws aimed at increasing revenue and ensuring the enforcement of trade regulations included the Commissioners of Customs Act 1767 and the Indemnity Act of 1767.

And of course, there were the Townshend Acts that were passed between 1767 and 1768. These laws imposed taxes on 72 different items imported by England to America, including the tax imposed on tea. The colonists revolted against the tea tax, leading to the Boston Tea Party.<sup>6</sup> Angry over the tax they said provided them with no taxation and the fact that they weren't able to control their resources and finished goods on their own, colonists dumped crates of imported British tea into Boston's Griffin's Wharf in 1773.

### **How Did Mercantilism Affect the British Colonies?**

England enacted new laws during the 16th and 18th centuries, putting tariffs on imports of foreign goods and restricting shipping through English channels. As such, mercantilism became the key economic model of the time. It encouraged the colonists to purchase goods from England rather than rival nations. The colonies sent raw materials to England where they were manufactured into finished products and sold to the colonists. This allowed Britain to monopolize the slave trade, transporting slaves from English ports to America. High inflation and heavy taxation on the colonies caused a rift between the colonists and the British.

## NOTES

**How Did Mercantilism Create Discord Between Britain and Its Colonies?**

Britain used mercantilism as a way to secure its interests in the New World. Raw materials were shipped back to England where they were converted to finished goods. These products were then shipped back to the colonies as exports, which the colonists purchased. In order to continue its stronghold in America, Britain had to ensure its military was paid for and did this by imposing a series of taxes on the colonists. This included taxes on goods like molasses, sugar, and tea. Angry at being taxed without representation and not being able to control their own resources, the colonists revolted. This eventually led to the American Revolution and independence.

**Why Did American Colonists Oppose British Mercantilism?**

Britain used mercantilism to boost its own interests during the mid-1600s. But it was almost always at war with its rivals to keep its trade and colonial interests in place. This required a regular stream of revenue, which England received through a series of taxes imposed on the colonists. These laws required that taxes be paid by every colonist on items like sugar, molasses, tax, and printed materials. The colonists, on the other hand, were enraged that they were forced to pay taxes without having a voice in the British government. They were also angry that the British government was the one in charge of how their resources and goods were used and distributed. This discord is what led to the American Revolution.

**The Bottom Line**

British mercantilism flourished during the middle of the 17th century at a time when England was flexing its muscle in the New World. The idea behind this economic policy was that the colonies existed for the benefit of the Empire, providing a stream of revenue and much-needed resources.

But all this came at a cost. England's need to enforce its trade regulations and place in the world led to the slave trade and human rights violations in America. England would ultimately pay the price, though, after frustrated colonists who were unhappy about the lack of control on their own soil revolted against heavy taxation.

**American Revolution Mercantilism**

Defenders of mercantilism argued that the economic system created stronger economies by marrying the concerns of colonies with those of their founding countries. In theory, when colonists create their own products and obtain others in the trade from their founding nation, they remain independent from the influence of hostile nations. Meanwhile, founding countries benefit from receiving large amounts of raw material from the colonists, necessary for a productive manufacturing sector.

Critics of the economic philosophy believed the restriction on international trade increased expenses, because all imports, regardless of product origin, had to be shipped by British ships from Great Britain. This radically spiked the costs of goods for the colonists, who believed the disadvantages of this system outweighed the benefits of affiliating with Great Britain.



After a costly war with France, the British Empire, hungry to replenish revenue, raised taxes on colonists, who rebelled by boycotting British products, consequently slashing imports by a full one-third. This was followed by the Boston Tea Party in 1773, where Boston colonists disguised themselves as Indians, raided three British ships, and threw the contents of several hundred chests of tea into the harbor, to protest British taxes on tea and the monopoly granted to the East India Company. To reinforce its mercantilist control, Great Britain pushed harder against the colonies, ultimately resulting in the Revolutionary War.

### **Merchants and Mercantilism**

By the early 16th century, European financial theorists understood the importance of the merchant class in generating wealth. Cities and countries with goods to sell thrived in the late middle ages.

Consequently, many believed the state should franchise out its leading merchants to create exclusive government-controlled monopolies and cartels, where governments used regulations, subsidies, and (if needed) military force to protect these monopolistic corporations from domestic and foreign competition.

Citizens could invest money in mercantilist corporations, in exchange for ownership and limited liability in their royal charters. These citizens were granted “shares” of the company profit, which were, in essence, the first traded corporate stocks.

The most famous and powerful mercantilist corporations were the British and Dutch East India companies. For more than 250 years, the British East India Company maintained the exclusive, royally granted the right to conduct trade between Britain, India, and China with its trade routes protected by the Royal Navy.

Mercantilism is considered by some scholars to be a precursor to capitalism since it rationalized economic activity such as profits and losses.

### **Mercantilism vs. Imperialism**

Where mercantilist governments manipulate a nation’s economy to create favorable trade balances, imperialism uses a combination of military force and mass immigration to foist mercantilism on less-developed regions, in campaigns to make inhabitants follow the dominant countries’ laws. One of the most powerful examples of the relationship between mercantilism and imperialism is Britain’s establishment of the American colonies.

### **Free Trade vs. Mercantilism**

Free trade provides several advantages over mercantilism for individuals, businesses, and nations. In a free trade system, individuals benefit from a greater choice of affordable goods, while mercantilism restricts imports and reduces the choices available to consumers. Fewer imports mean less competition and higher prices.

While mercantilist countries were almost constantly engaged in warfare, battling over resources, nations operating under a free-trade system can prosper by engaging in mutually beneficial trade relations.

In his seminal book “**The Wealth of Nations**,” legendary economist Adam Smith argued that free trade enabled businesses to specialize in producing goods they manufacture most efficiently, leading to higher productivity and greater economic growth.

## NOTES



Today, mercantilism is deemed outdated. However, barriers to trade still exist to protect locally entrenched industries. For example, post-World War II, the United States adopted a protectionist trade policy toward Japan and negotiated voluntary export restrictions with the Japanese government, which limited Japanese exports to the United States.

## 5.6 ROYAL PROCLAMATION OF 1763

### What is the Royal Proclamation?

The Royal Proclamation is a document that set out guidelines for European settlement of Aboriginal territories in what is now North America. The Royal Proclamation was initially issued by King George III in 1763 to officially claim British territory in North America after Britain won the Seven Years War. In the Royal Proclamation, ownership over North America is issued to King George. However, the Royal Proclamation explicitly states that Aboriginal title has existed and continues to exist, and that all land would be considered Aboriginal land until ceded by treaty. The Proclamation forbade settlers from claiming land from the Aboriginal occupants, unless it has been first bought by the Crown and then sold to the settlers. The Royal Proclamation further sets out that only the Crown can buy land from First Nations.

Most Indigenous and legal scholars recognize the Royal Proclamation as an important first step toward the recognition of existing Aboriginal rights and title, including the right to self-determination. In this regard, the Royal Proclamation is sometimes called “the Indian Magna Carta.” The Royal Proclamation set a foundation for the process of establishing treaties.

For example, treaty-making typically involved presence of both parties — the First Nation and the government, for there to be some form of consent between the two, and for the First Nation to be compensated for any lands or resources taken. However, the Royal Proclamation was designed and written by British colonists without Aboriginal input, and clearly establishes a monopoly over Aboriginal lands by the British Crown.

### Is the Royal Proclamation still valid?

Some argue that the Royal Proclamation is still valid in Canada, since no law has overruled it.<sup>1</sup> The Royal Proclamation is enshrined in Section 25 of the Constitution Act; this section of the Charter of Rights and Freedoms guarantees that nothing can terminate or diminish the Aboriginal rights outlined in the Proclamation. The Royal Proclamation also applied to the United States; however, American independence from Great Britain after the Revolutionary War rendered it no longer applicable. The United States, however, eventually created its own similar law in the Indian Intercourse Acts.

Despite arguments that the Proclamation is still valid, Aboriginal peoples continually have had to prove their existing title to the land through legal disputes. In British Columbia in particular, this issue has been of prime concern amongst Aboriginal groups. The vast majority of the province has never been ceded by its Aboriginal peoples, resulting in the argument that non-Aboriginal settlement in B.C. is on stolen land.

The Province of British Columbia has maintained that the Royal Proclamation does not apply to B.C. since it had not yet been settled by the British when the Proclamation

was issued in 1763.<sup>2</sup> This perspective is greatly disputed amongst government officials, academics, and the public, some who claim that the Proclamation would have applied to B.C. when British sovereignty was established in the province.

### What does the Royal Proclamation say?

The following is an excerpt from the Royal Proclamation of 1763 that deals specifically with Aboriginal peoples:

And whereas it is just and reasonable, and essential to our Interest, and the Security of our Colonies, that the several Nations or Tribes of Indians with whom We are connected, and who live under our Protection, should not be molested or disturbed in the Possession of such Parts of Our Dominions and Territories as, not having been ceded to or purchased by Us, are reserved to them, or any of them, as their Hunting Grounds — We do therefore, with the Advice of our Privy Council, declare it to be our Royal Will and Pleasure, that no Governor or Commander in Chief in any of our Colonies of Quebec, East Florida. or West Florida, do presume, upon any Presence whatever, to grant Warrants of Survey, or pass any Patents for Lands beyond the Bounds of their respective Governments. as described in their Commissions: as also that no Governor or Commander in Chief in any of our other Colonies or Plantations in America do presume for the present, and until our further Pleasure be known, to grant Warrants of Survey, or pass Patents for any Lands beyond the Heads or Sources of any of the Rivers which fall into the Atlantic Ocean from the West and North West, or upon any Lands whatever, which, not having been ceded to or purchased by Us as aforesaid, are reserved to the said Indians, or any of them.

And We do further declare it to be Our Royal Will and Pleasure, for the present as aforesaid, to reserve under our Sovereignty, Protection, and Dominion, for the use of the said Indians, all the Lands and Territories not included within the Limits of Our said Three new Governments, or within the Limits of the Territory granted to the Hudson's Bay Company, as also all the Lands and Territories lying to the Westward of the Sources of the Rivers which fall into the Sea from the West and North West as aforesaid.

And We do hereby strictly forbid, on Pain of our Displeasure, all our loving Subjects from making any Purchases or Settlements whatever, or taking Possession of any of the Lands above reserved, without our especial leave and License for that Purpose first obtained.

And We do further strictly enjoin and require all Persons whatever who have either willfully or inadvertently seated themselves upon any Lands within the Countries above described. or upon any other Lands which, not having been ceded to or purchased by Us, are still reserved to the said Indians as aforesaid, forthwith to remove themselves from such Settlements.

And whereas great Frauds and Abuses have been committed in purchasing Lands of the Indians, to the great Prejudice of our Interests. and to the great Dissatisfaction of the said Indians: In order, therefore, to prevent such Irregularities for the future, and to the end that the Indians may be convinced of our Justice and determined Resolution to remove all reasonable Cause of Discontent, We do, with the Advice of our Privy Council strictly enjoin and require, that no private Person do presume to make any purchase from the said



## NOTES



Indians of any Lands reserved to the said Indians, within those parts of our Colonies where We have thought proper to allow Settlement.

But that, if at any Time any of the Said Indians should be inclined to dispose of the said Lands, the same shall be Purchased only for Us, in our Name, at some public Meeting or Assembly of the said Indians, to be held for that Purpose by the Governor or Commander in Chief of our Colony respectively within which they shall lie: and in case they shall lie within the limits of any Proprietary Government, they shall be purchased only for the Use and in the name of such Proprietaries, conformable to such Directions and Instructions as We or they shall think proper to give for that Purpose.

And we do, by the Advice of our Privy Council, declare and enjoin, that the Trade with the said Indians shall be free and open to all our Subjects whatever, provided that every Person who may incline to Trade with the said Indians do take out a License for carrying on such Trade from the Governor or Commander in Chief of any of our Colonies respectively where such Person shall reside, and also give Security to observe such Regulations as We shall at any Time think fit, by ourselves or by our Commissaries to be appointed for this Purpose, to direct and appoint for the Benefit of the said Trade.

And we do hereby authorize, enjoin, and require the Governors and Commanders in Chief of all our Colonies respectively, as well those under Our immediate Government as those under the Government and Direction of Proprietaries, to grant such Licenses without Fee or Reward, taking especial Care to insert therein a Condition, that such License shall be void, and the Security forfeited in case the Person to whom the same is granted shall refuse or neglect to observe such Regulations as We shall think proper to prescribe as aforesaid.

And we do further expressly conjoin and require all Officers whatever, as well Military as those Employed in the Management and Direction of Indian Affairs, within the Territories reserved as aforesaid for the use of the said Indians, to seize and apprehend all Persons whatever, who standing charged with Treason, Misprisions of Treason, Murders, or other Felonies or Misdemeanors, shall fly from Justice and take Refuge in the said Territory, and to send them under a proper guard to the Colony where the Crime was committed, of which they stand accused, in order to take their Trial for the same. Given at our Court at St. James's the 7th Day of October 1763, in the Third Year of our Reign. GOD SAVE THE KING

Basically, on February 10, 1763, representatives from various American Indian tribes, as well as British, French, and Spanish leaders, met to negotiate the Treaty of Paris, which ended the French and Indian War (1754-1763). As outlined in the treaty, France gave up their lands in North America and handed them over to the British, including American Indian lands in the Ohio Country.

Following the signing of the treaty, American Indian tribes living in the Great Lakes region immediately rose up against the British for fear that they would settle their lands and push them west. In response to their growing frustration, many tribes congregated under the leadership of them.

During a campaign referred to as Pontiac's Rebellion, American Indians of the Ohio Country and Great Lakes region fought to push colonial settlers off Native lands into the

regions east of the Appalachian Mountains. The British monarchy decided to address the conflict by developing legislation that would subdue the fighting. On October 7, 1763, the British Board of Trade under approval of King George III issued the Proclamation of 1763.

This Proclamation established a variety of limiting legislature in regards to interaction with the American Indians, boundaries for territories, and governmental responsibility. The Proclamation Line, a component of the Proclamation itself, established the geographical limitations of colonial settlement. Any land that resided west of the Appalachian Mountains, from the southern area of the Hudson Bay to the region north of Florida were to be preserved for American Indian territories. The Proclamation prohibited colonists from settling west of the Appalachian Mountains, and those who settled the region previously, were required to relocate east of the colonial divide.



**This photograph gives an aerial view of the site on which Fort Gower was built in 1774. The fort was built by soldiers returning from Lord Dunmore's War, a conflict that arose with area American Indians after colonists continued to disobey the Proclamation.**

Since these lands were gained by Great Britain by defeating France in the French and Indian War, the British monarchy controlled all former French territories, including American Indian lands. However, to reduce friction, the American Indian lands were to be controlled by American Indian law and cultural policy with no interference from the colonial government. Colonists were also barred from having any interaction with the people who resided within the American Indian lands; trading between the two groups was no longer permitted.

With the restriction of colonists solely to the inner, eastern coastlines the colonial government would now have an easier time to successfully execute and regulate taxing burdens on the citizenry; a noted strategy by the government to ease their way out of wartime debt. Overall, the Proclamation of 1763 disbanded colonial ambition to expand into the westward frontier.

The Proclamation of 1763 also founded four new colonies that were obtained in the aftermath of the French and Indian War; Quebec, West Florida, East Florida, and Grenada. Boundaries were set to define the stretch of each colony while also establishing local governments to manage the different regions.

NOTES





## NOTES



Colonists were unnerved by this Proclamation because it inhibited their desire to expand their settlements, concluding that due to Great Britain's victory there was an unspoken right to the lands now allocated for American Indian reservations. The Proclamation did not prevent colonists from continuing their pursuit of new land, as many disregarded the provisions and continued their journey toward westward settlements. American Indians were displeased with the colonists' blatant violation of the Proclamation and conflict continued.

Finally, the Proclamation also heightened the colonists' dissatisfaction with British rule. They did not appreciate the restriction of their travels or the trade limitations as outlined in the Proclamation. Eventually, paired with the various economic acts that the British government would come to pass to eliminate their growing debt, the Proclamation fueled tensions between the British monarchy and the colonists, thus leading to the development of the American Revolution.

### 5.7 ROLE OF ENLIGHTENMENT THINKERS

The **Enlightenment**, also known as the Age of Reason, was an intellectual and cultural movement in the eighteenth century that emphasized reason over superstition and science over blind faith. Using the power of the press, Enlightenment thinkers like **John Locke**, **Isaac Newton**, and **Voltaire** questioned accepted knowledge and spread new ideas about openness, investigation, and religious tolerance throughout Europe and the Americas. Many consider the Enlightenment a major turning point in Western civilization, an age of light replacing an age of darkness.

Several ideas dominated Enlightenment thought, including rationalism, empiricism, progressivism, and cosmopolitanism.

- **Rationalism** is the idea that humans are capable of using their faculty of reason to gain knowledge. This was a sharp turn away from the prevailing idea that people needed to rely on scripture or church authorities for knowledge.
- **Empiricism** promotes the idea that knowledge comes from experience and observation of the world.
- **Progressivism** is the belief that through their powers of reason and observation, humans can make unlimited, linear progress over time; this belief was especially important as a response to the carnage and upheaval of the English Civil Wars in the 17th century.
- Finally, **cosmopolitanism** reflected Enlightenment thinkers' view of themselves as actively engaged citizens of the world as opposed to provincial and close-minded individuals. In all, Enlightenment thinkers endeavoured to be ruled by reason, not prejudice.

Some of the leaders of the American Revolution were influenced by Enlightenment ideas which are, freedom of speech, equality, freedom of press, and religious tolerance. American colonists did not have these rights, in result, they rebelled against England for independence. In the Declaration of Independence, Thomas Jefferson wrote about America's natural rights to "life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness." These ideas came



from the Enlightenment, the ideals led towards the American Revolution soon after (Fisk). “The American Revolution must be considered as an anticolonial war for independence, not only a war of liberation from overseas rule but a war for freedom. The American Revolution was a movement to fulfill aspirations to acquire more property” (Morris)

Montesquieu believed that everything was made up of laws or rules that never changed. He wrote the book *The Spirit of the Laws*, which greatly covers the importance of separation of power in balancing the control of the government. This separation of powers was exemplified in



England’s three branches, legislative, executive, and judicial. With these three branches were separated, England made sure that everybody did not have any absolute power.

This meant that citizens of the country had a say in the actions of the government, therefore giving them much more power and freedom in the government. *The Spirit of the Laws* was translated into English, therefore, the American Colonists could read and incorporate its Enlightenment ideals, such as a balance of power that provided greater liberty to individuals. American Colonists wanted freedom and believed that England should not be able to control them overseas (Fisk).

Jean-Jacques Rousseau was one of the most influential thinkers during the time period of the Enlightenment. In 1762 Rousseau published *The Social Contract*, It became one of the most influential works of abstract political thought. This book is about how a government could exist in a way that it protects society and citizens. Rousseau quoted in his book “Man was/is born free; and everywhere he is in chains.” This philosopher was a great influence to America. These ideas were essential for the American Revolution (Delany).

John Locke was one of the most important and influential philosophers in the history of the world. He devoted a lot of his time into writing about philosophy and political thought. The founding fathers of the American Revolution drew heavily on his ideals.

John Locke argued “The power of any king or government is derived from people who contract to obey their rules in exchange for law and security. Individuals have a natural right to hold property and this can never be taken from them without their own consent. If a ruler infringes the terms of the contract that empowers him or seizes property without consent, the people can resist and depose him” (John Locke).

These arguments are things that American Colonists wanted to have but couldn’t under the control of England. Therefore, American Colonists wanted independence from England.

Thomas Hobbes is known for his political thought. His vision of the world is amazingly original. His main concern in the world is how individuals can live together with peace and not think of conflict (Williams). He rejects free will of determinism, in which freedom is treated as having the ability to do what an individual desire (Oregon State). He believes that people should obey a group or person that is in power, rather than a state of nature (Williams). “Individuals in a state of nature, that is, a state without a civil government,” he

## NOTES



said. The way out of this desperate state is to establish social contract, and have the state in peace and order (Oregon State). The American Colonists ended up turning to Hobbes's work to justify the passage of the U.S constitution.

Soon after America won the war from Great Britain, Thomas Jefferson wrote the Declaration of Independence. The Declaration of Independence stated that America had won the revolution from Great Britain, and that they had gained their independence. They now had freedom to become their own nation. This just shows that the Enlightenment ideals had a huge impact on America.

The Enlightenment ideals were the main influences for American Colonies to become their own nation. Montesquieu, Locke, and Hobbes (philosophers) ideas and thoughts on life were a big impact. Montesquieu mainly influenced the separation of powers, Locke mainly influenced natural rights, Hobbes mainly influenced individuals obeying one in power, and Rousseau influenced the social contract. The United States of America turned to all of the philosophers, and in the end, Enlightenment ideas were the main influences for American Colonies to become their own nation.

### **Ben Franklin, symbol of the Enlightenment**

The *Freemasons* were members of a fraternal society that advocated Enlightenment principles of inquiry and tolerance. Freemasonry originated in London coffeehouses in the early 18th century, and Masonic lodges—local units—soon spread throughout Europe and the British colonies. One prominent Freemason, **Benjamin Franklin**, stands as the embodiment of the Enlightenment in British America.

Born in Boston in 1706 to a large Puritan family, Franklin loved to read, although he found little beyond religious publications in his father's house. In 1718 he was apprenticed to his brother to work in a print shop, where he learned how to be a good writer by copying the style he found in the *Spectator*, which his brother printed. At the age of 17, the independent-minded Franklin ran away, eventually ending up in Quaker Philadelphia. There he began publishing the *Pennsylvania Gazette* in the late 1720s. In 1732 he started his annual publication *Poor Richard: An Almanack*, in which he gave readers much practical advice, such as "Early to bed, early to rise, makes a man healthy, wealthy, and wise."

In this 1748 portrait by Robert Feke, a 40-year-old Franklin wears a stylish British wig, as befitted a proud and loyal member of the British Empire. Robert Feke, portrait of Benjamin Franklin, 1748. Image credit: *Figure 3* in "Great Awakening and Enlightenment" by OpenStax College.

Franklin subscribed to **deism**, an Enlightenment-era belief in a God who created but has no continuing involvement in the world and the events within it. Deists also advanced the belief that personal morality—an individual's moral compass, leading to good works and actions—is more important than strict church doctrines. Franklin's deism guided his many philanthropic projects. In 1731, he established a reading library that became the Library Company of Philadelphia. In 1743, he founded the American Philosophical Society to encourage the spirit of inquiry. In 1749, he provided the foundation for the University of Pennsylvania, and in 1751, he helped found Pennsylvania Hospital.

His career as a printer made Franklin wealthy and well-respected. When he retired in 1748, he devoted himself to politics and scientific experiments. His most famous work, on electricity, exemplified Enlightenment principles. Franklin observed that lightning strikes tended to hit metal objects and reasoned that he could therefore direct lightning through the placement of metal objects during an electrical storm. He used this knowledge to advocate the use of lightning rods: metal poles connected to wires directing lightning's electrical charge into the ground, thus saving wooden homes in cities like Philadelphia from catastrophic fires. He published his findings in 1751 in *Experiments and Observations on Electricity*.

## 5.8 NO REPRESENTATION IN BRITISH PARLIAMENT

Following the repeal of the Stamp Act, Parliament tried to tax the colonies in 1767 by raising import duties, which became known as the Townshend duties, on certain goods. The colonists continued to insist that they could not be taxed by the British Parliament without proper representation, even indirectly by customs duties.

### Boston Tea Party

The measures also met with opposition from merchants at home, and the government repealed them in 1770 – except for the one on tea, which the Prime Minister Lord North insisted remain as an assertion of Parliament's right to tax the colonists.

On 16 December 1773 a group of protesters in Boston boarded a ship and dumped £10,000 worth of tea in the harbor, an event immortalized in the United States as the Boston Tea Party.

### Intolerable Acts

In angry response, Parliament passed in 1774 a series of punitive measures, known in America as the Intolerable Acts, which closed Boston harbor and strengthened the power of the royal governor over the rebellious Massachusetts legislative assembly.

The Quebec Act greatly extended the territory of the former French colony of Quebec, and recognized the Catholic Church there while giving the royal governor increased powers. These were all controversial measures, and the Quebec Act in particular was criticized in both Britain and the American colonies as an indication of the growing despotic character of the British government.

### War of Independence



The crisis of 1774 soon tipped over into armed confrontation between British troops and American colonists at Lexington and Concord in Massachusetts on 19 April 1775. Eventually it led to war, after representatives of the colonies meeting in the first Continental Congress in Philadelphia formally declared their independence from Britain on 4 July 1776.

## NOTES



Following a protracted war, Britain formally recognized the independence of the thirteen colonies as the United States of America in the treaty of 1783. The only parts of its former North American possessions which remained were the colonies of Nova Scotia, Quebec and Newfoundland – none of which had joined the rebellion and which had received many loyalists fleeing the war-torn colonies.

The Stamp Act Congress met on this day in New York in 1765, a meeting that led nine Colonies to declare the English Crown had no right to tax Americans who lacked representation in British Parliament.

The Crown and British Parliament didn't exactly agree with that idea, and within 10 years, the sides would be at war over some of the concepts endorsed by the 27 delegates in three documents sent by ship to England.

The turmoil started earlier in 1765, when Parliament approved a little-noticed measure in Britain called the Stamp Act. On March 22, 1765, Parliament required colonists to pay taxes on every page of printed paper they used. The tax also included fees for playing cards and dice. The proceeds from the Act would "further defray... the expenses of defending, protecting, and securing" the Colonies from attacks; it was a measure to make the Colonies pay costs for hosting British troops on the continent.

The new tax amounted to a sales tax for the colonies, which didn't sit well with many residents who considered themselves quite removed from such measures. The protests were based on a legal principle that the colonial legislatures only had the power to tax residents who had representatives in those legislatures. And even though some colonies had official agents to Parliament, like Benjamin Franklin, no colonies had sitting representatives in the British Parliament.

In May 1765, Virginia's Patrick Henry wrote the Virginia Resolves, which clearly laid out the "taxation without representation" argument. The protests against the Stamp Act also were particularly strong in Massachusetts. That summer, Massachusetts called for a meeting of all the colonies – a Stamp Act Congress – to be held in New York in October 1765. Committees of Correspondence were also formed in the colonies to protest the Act.

On October 9, 1765, representatives from nine of the eighteen colonies showed up at New York City's Federal Hall. The legislatures in Virginia and Georgia didn't allow representatives to go to a meeting that some felt went against British constitutional law.

The 27 delegates included several men who would later sign the Declaration of Independence and the Constitution, or play a role fighting for, or against, American independence. John Dickinson, William Samuel Johnson, and John Rutledge would have roles at the Constitutional Convention in 1787; Thomas McKean, Robert Livingston, Philip Livingston, Caesar Rodney, and John Morton were other prominent delegates.

But there was also conflict between two representatives from Massachusetts. James Otis, a firebrand lawyer, had popularized the phrase "taxation without representation is tyranny" in a series of public arguments. However, Timothy Ruggles, a moderate former Massachusetts House speaker, was chosen as Congress President, perceived by some delegates as a move intended to undermine the efficacy of the Congress.



In 1764, Otis wrote in “Rights of the British Colonies Asserted and Proved” that “the very act of taxing, exercised over those who are not represented, appears to me to be depriving them of one of their most essential rights, as freemen; and if continued, seems to be in effect an entire disfranchisement of every civil right. “The Stamp Act Congress met for 18 days. On October 19, the delegates approved the Declaration of Rights and Grievances, which stated the joint position of the delegates for other colonists to read.

Resolutions three, four and five made clear that while the delegates repeatedly stressed their loyalty to the Crown, the issue of taxes was at the forefront. “That it is inseparably essential to the freedom of a people, and the undoubted right of Englishmen, that no taxes be imposed on them, but with their own consent, given personally, or by their representatives. That the people of these colonies are not, and from their local circumstances cannot be, represented in the House of Commons in Great-Britain.

That the only representatives of the people of these colonies, are persons chosen therein by themselves, and that no taxes ever have been, or can be constitutionally imposed on them, but by their respective legislatures,” read the passage.

Another resolution complained about admiralty courts conducting direct trials. “Trial by jury is the inherent and invaluable right of every British subject in these colonies,” it read. The Stamp Act Congress then ended on a controversial note, as the delegates drafted three petitions to send to the King, House of Lords and House of Commons. Ruggles opposed the petitions and left without signing them.

The petitions were ignored when they arrived in Britain, but boycotts and financial pressure exerted by the colonists led to the Stamp Act’s repeal the next year. Parliament then passed the Declaratory Act, which stated its right in principle to tax the colonies as it saw fit. At that point, momentum had begun within the colonies for more economic independence, and many wanted guarantees from the Crown to protect colonists’ natural rights.

## 5.9 INTOLERABLE ACTS OF 1774

In 1774, Great Britain decided to use brute force to deal with the rebellious American colonies, particularly the colony of Massachusetts. Following the blatant insubordination of the Boston Tea Party in 1773, Great Britain aimed to use a heavy hand on the rebellious colony of Massachusetts. In 1774 Parliament passed four acts that they described as the Coercive Acts but quickly became known in America as the Intolerable Acts because they perceived as being so cruel and severe.



Lithograph of “The Destruction of Tea at Boston Harbor” by Nathaniel Currier published in 1846.

NOTES 

Since the end of the French and Indian War, Great Britain had sought to find a way to get the American colonies to pay for the cost of the expensive war. After repeatedly passing laws such as the Stamp Act, the Townshend Acts, and the Tea Act, the colonists had protested, disobeyed, or boycotted to avoid paying the taxes. When a group of Bostonians destroyed hundreds of crates of British tea on December 16, 1773, rather than pay taxes on them, Britain reacted by passing these Coercive Acts.

The first act passed was the Boston Port Act which closed the port of Boston. Britain determined that the business of the city would be stopped entirely until the people of Boston paid for the tea that had been destroyed. This act not only caused fear and panic among many of the city's merchants, it punished the entire city for the actions of the radicals who destroyed the tea. The move also flexed the power of Great Britain, demonstrating their ability to shut down an entire city's port with their navy.

Next, they passed the Massachusetts Government Act which essentially revoked the charter of the royal colony and placed them under the direct control of Great Britain. The British would now exercise complete control over the colony while they limited the number of town meetings that could be held in the colony, effectively removing their capability of self-rule and self-government.

The Administration of Justice Act removed the ability of the colonists to hold trials of British officials in the colonies. Despite the fact that in 1770, the British soldiers who committed the "Boston Massacre" were given a fair trial and acquitted of the charges of murder, this showed the British still did not trust the colonists in administering justice. By having British soldiers sent back to England for trial, many patriots saw this as a way for British officials and soldiers to avoid justice.



Henry Pelham's (Left) 1770 engraving of *The Fruits of Arbitrary Power, or The Bloody Massacre*. Paul Revere's (Right) copy colored by Christian Remick and printed by Benjamin Edes.

Finally, a Quartering Act allowed royal governors, rather than colonial legislatures, to find homes and buildings to quarter or house British soldiers. This applied to all the colonies and only further enraged colonists by having what appeared to be foreign soldiers billeted in American cities.

The Crown had hoped these strict and punitive acts would be used as a punishment for the colony of Massachusetts and as a warning and threat to the other American colonies as well. The hope was that other colonies would soon submit to British authority and resume their place as subordinates to Parliament and the Crown out of fear of similar reprisals.

However, these measures backfired on the British. Other colonies recoiled in horror at what they witnessed. After seeing the power Great Britain leveled on Massachusetts, other colonies quickly became sympathetic with their fellow colonists and began to wonder how much longer it would be before the same type of actions would be done to their own cities or colonies. The other American colonies soon sent aid and supplies to the beleaguered people of Boston.

On top of the fear these acts caused in colonies throughout America, they also forced the colonists to begin asking more important questions. These questions included: where had Great Britain received its authority? And to what degree did they have the right to use such force on the colonies? The word tyranny was used to describe the actions of Parliament and the Crown. Men like George Washington in Virginia would write, "Shall we supinely sit, and see one province after another fall a sacrifice to despotism?"

Throughout the American colonies, in the summer of 1774, days of fasting and prayer were held for the people of Boston. Pamphlets, treatises, and resolves were published across America demonizing the Intolerable Acts and asserting the rights of American colonies to self-government. These harsh acts only seemed to make the colonists more resistant to British rule.



“The able doctor, or America swallowing the bitter draught,” 1774. This illustration depicts the British forcing a Native American woman (a symbol of the American colonies) to drink tea.





In many of the American colonies, citizens created extra-legal Committees of Correspondence that operated as unofficial governments of people opposed to the laws being passed by the Parliament and royal governors. The colonies became fearful that the British may pass more punitive laws on their own colonies. They decided to form a Continental Congress where representatives from all the American colonies could gather and discuss how they should collectively respond to the Intolerable Acts.

The First Continental Congress convened on September 5, 1774. Men from twelve American colonies (Georgia did not send anyone to the First Continental Congress) gathered in Philadelphia to determine a response. After weeks of discussions, the delegates decided to take a cautious approach and simply boycott British goods and send a petition to King George III begging that the Intolerable Acts be repealed. However, the petition would receive no reply from King George III.

A few months later blood would be spilled outside Boston at Lexington and Concord. The battles there would be the first shots of a bloody war that would last eight years and cost thousands of lives and result in the independence of the United States of America. Clearly the passage of the Intolerable Acts was a key moment in the lead up to this war. The Intolerable Acts were meant to force the rebellious colonies back into place, but the opposite happened and only further fueled the flames of rebellion in North America. What started out as protests over taxes and authority led to the self-realization of Americans that they were not subject to British control, but were indeed, free and independent.



## 5.10 THE PHILADELPHIA CONGRESS

The Continental Congress was the governing body by which the American colonial governments coordinated their resistance to British rule during the first two years of the American Revolution. The Congress balanced the interests of the different colonies and also established itself as the official colonial liaison to Great Britain. As the war progressed, the Congress became the effective national government of the country, and, as such, conducted diplomacy on behalf of the new United States.

### The Continental Congress

In 1774, the British Parliament passed a series of laws collectively known as the Intolerable Acts, with the intent to suppress unrest in colonial Boston by closing the port and placing it under martial law. In response, colonial protestors led by a group called the Sons of Liberty issued a call for a boycott. Merchant communities were reluctant to participate in such a boycott unless there were mutually agreed upon terms and a means to enforce the boycott's provisions. Spurred by local pressure groups, colonial legislatures empowered delegates to attend a Continental Congress which would set terms for a boycott. The colony of Connecticut was the first to respond.



The Congress first met in Philadelphia on September 5, 1774, with delegates from each of the 13 colonies except Georgia. On October 20, the Congress adopted the Articles of Association, which stated that if the Intolerable Acts were not repealed by December 1, 1774, a boycott of British goods would begin in the colonies. The Articles also outlined plans for an embargo on exports if the Intolerable Acts were not repealed before September 10, 1775.

On October 21, the delegates approved separate statements for the people of Great Britain and the North American colonies, explaining the colonial position, and on October 26 a similar address was approved for the people of Quebec.

Furthermore, on October 26, the delegates drafted a formal petition outlining the colonists' grievances for British King George III. Many delegates were skeptical about changing the king's attitude towards the colonies, but believed that every opportunity should be exhausted to de-escalate the conflict before taking more radical action. They did not draft such a letter to the British Parliament as the colonists viewed the Parliament as the aggressor behind the recent Intolerable Acts. Lastly, not fully expecting the standoff in Massachusetts to explode into full-scale war, the Congress agreed to reconvene in Philadelphia on May 10, 1775.

By the time Congress met again, war was already underway, and thus the delegates to the Second Continental Congress formed the Continental Army and dispatched George Washington to Massachusetts as its commander. Meanwhile, Congress drafted the Olive Branch Petition, which attempted to suggest means of resolving disputes between the colonies and Great Britain. Congress sent the petition to King George III on July 8, but he refused to receive it.

As British authority crumbled in the colonies, the Continental Congress effectively took over as the de facto national government, thereby exceeding the initial authority granted to it by the individual colonial governments. However, the local groups that had formed to enforce the colonial boycott continued to support the Congress. The Second Congress continued to meet until March 1, 1781, when the Articles of Confederation that established a new national government for the United States took effect.

As the de facto national government, the Continental Congress assumed the role of negotiating diplomatic agreements with foreign nations. The British Parliament banned trade with the colonies and authorized the seizure of colonial vessels on December 23. These actions served to further erode the positions of anti-independence moderates in Congress and bolster those of pro-independence leaders. On April 6, 1776, Congress responded to Parliament's actions by opening American ports to all foreign ships except British vessels. Reports from American agent Arthur Lee in London also served to support the revolutionary cause. Lee's reports suggested that France was interested in assisting the colonies in their fight against Great Britain.

With a peaceful resolution increasingly unlikely in 1775, Congress began to explore other diplomatic channels and dispatched congressional delegate Silas Deane to France in April of 1776.

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Deane succeeded in securing informal French support by May. By then, Congress was increasingly conducting international diplomacy and had drafted the Model Treaty with which it hoped to seek alliances with Spain and France. On July 4, 1776 the Congress took the important step of formally declaring the colonies' independence from Great Britain. In September, Congress adopted the Model Treaty, and then sent commissioners to France to negotiate a formal alliance. They entered into a formal alliance with France in 1778. Congress eventually sent diplomats to other European powers to encourage support for the American cause and to secure loans for the money-strapped war effort.

Congress and the British government made further attempts to reconcile, but negotiations failed when Congress refused to revoke the Declaration of Independence, both in a meeting on September 11, 1776, with British Admiral Richard Howe, and when a peace delegation from Parliament arrived in Philadelphia in 1778. Instead, Congress spelled out terms for peace on August 14, 1779, which demanded British withdrawal, American independence, and navigation rights on the Mississippi River. The next month Congress appointed John Adams to negotiate such terms with England, but British officials were evasive.

Formal peace negotiations would have to wait until after the Confederation Congress took over the reins of government on March 1, 1781, following American victories at Yorktown that resulted in British willingness to end the war.

### 5.11 CHAPTER SUMMARY

The North American theater of the primarily European Seven Years' War was known as the French And Indian War. It was fought between Britain and France from 1754 to 1763 for colonial dominance in North America. British officials tried to rally public opinion for the war at the Albany Congress in 1754 but mustered only halfhearted support throughout the colonies. Nevertheless, American colonists dutifully fought alongside British soldiers, while the French allied themselves with several Native American tribes (hence the name "French and Indian War"). This war ended after the British captured most of France's major cities and forts in Canada and the Ohio Valley.

The powerful Ottawa chief Pontiac, who had no intention of allowing land-hungry whites to steal more tribal lands, united many of the tribes in the volatile Ohio Valley and led a series of raids on British forts and American settlements. British forces eventually squashed Pontiac's Rebellion. As a conciliatory gesture toward the Native Americans, Parliament issued the Proclamation Of 1763, forbidding American colonists to settle on Native American territory unless native rights to the land had first been obtained by purchase or treaty.

The French and Indian War also motivated Parliament to end the age of Salutary Neglect. Prime Minister George Grenville began enforcing the ancient Navigation Acts in 1764, passed the Sugar Act to tax sugar, and passed the Currency Act to remove paper currencies (many from the French and Indian War period) from circulation. A year later, he passed the Stamp Act, which placed a tax on printed materials, and the Quartering Act, which required Americans to house and feed British troops.

The Sugar Act was the first fully enforced tax levied in America solely for the purpose of raising revenue. Americans throughout the thirteen colonies cried out against "Taxation



Without Representation” and made informal nonimportation agreements of certain British goods in protest. Several colonial leaders convened the Stamp Act Congress in New York to petition Parliament and King George III to repeal the tax. In 1766, Parliament bowed to public pressure and repealed the Stamp Act. But it also quietly passed the Declaratory Act, which stipulated that Parliament reserved the right to tax the colonies anytime it chose.

In 1767, Parliament passed the Townshend Acts, which levied another series of taxes on lead, paints, and tea known as the Townshend Duties. In the same series of acts, Britain passed the Suspension Act, which suspended the New York assembly for not enforcing the Quartering Act. To prevent violent protests, Massachusetts Governor Thomas Hutchinson requested assistance from the British army, and in 1768, four thousand redcoats landed in the city to help maintain order. Nevertheless, on March 5, 1770, an angry mob clashed with several British troops. Five colonists died, and news of the Boston Massacre quickly spread throughout the colonies.

In 1773, Parliament passed the Tea Act, granting the financially troubled British East India Company a trade monopoly on the tea exported to the American colonies. In many American cities, tea agents resigned or canceled orders, and merchants refused consignments in response to the unpopular act. Governor Hutchinson of Massachusetts, determined to uphold the law, ordered that three ships arriving in Boston harbor should be allowed to deposit their cargoes and that appropriate payments should be made for the goods. On the night of December 16, 1773, while the ships lingered in the harbor, sixty men boarded the ships, disguised as Native Americans, and dumped the entire shipment of tea into the harbor. That event is now famously known as the Boston Tea Party.

In January 1774, Parliament passed the Coercive Acts, also known as the Intolerable Acts, which shut down Boston Harbor until the British East India Company had been fully reimbursed for the tea destroyed in the Boston Tea Party. Americans throughout the colonies sent food and supplies to Boston via land to prevent death from hunger and cold in the bitter New England winter. Parliament also passed the Quebec Act at the same time, which granted more rights to French Canadian Catholics and extended French Canadian territory south to the western borders of New York and Pennsylvania.

To protest the Intolerable Acts, prominent colonials gathered in Philadelphia at the First Continental Congress in autumn of 1774. They once again petitioned Parliament, King George III, and the British people to repeal the acts and restore friendly relations. For additional motivation, they also decided to institute a Boycott, or ban, of all British goods in the colonies.

On April 19, 1775, part of the British occupation force in Boston marched to the nearby town of Concord, Massachusetts, to seize a colonial militia arsenal. Militiamen of Lexington and Concord intercepted them and attacked. The first shot—the so-called “shot heard round the world” made famous by poet Ralph Waldo Emerson—was one of many that hounded the British and forced them to retreat to Boston. Thousands of militiamen from nearby colonies flocked to Boston to assist.

In the meantime, leaders convened the Second Continental Congress to discuss options. In one final attempt for peaceful reconciliation, the Olive Branch Petition, they professed

NOTES 

their love and loyalty to King George III and begged him to address their grievances. The king rejected the petition and formally declared that the colonies were in a state of rebellion.

The Second Continental Congress chose George Washington, a southerner, to command the militiamen besieging Boston in the north. They also appropriated money for a small navy and for transforming the undisciplined militias into the professional Continental Army. Encouraged by a strong colonial campaign in which the British scored only narrow victories (such as at Bunker Hill), many colonists began to advocate total independence as opposed to having full rights within the British Empire.

The next year, the congressmen voted on July 2, 1776, to declare their independence. Thomas Jefferson, a young lawyer from Virginia, drafted the Declaration of Independence. The United States was born.

## 5.12 REVIEW QUESTIONS

### SHORT ANSWER TYPE QUESTIONS

1. Explain the purpose of a colonial stamp tax, how it would be implemented and which people or groups it would affect.
2. Explain the purpose of the Tea Act of 1773. Which Americans were most affected by this act and how did they respond?
3. Was colonial America a democratic society?
4. What do you understand by Continental Congress? Explain its role in American Revolution.
5. What Is Mercantilism? Why Did American Colonists Oppose British Mercantilism?

### LONG ANSWER TYPE QUESTIONS

1. What was meant by the term 'salutary neglect'? Explain how this policy worked in real terms, both for Britain and the Americans.
2. What was the purpose of the British Royal Proclamation of 1763? Which American colonists were affected by this measure and how did they respond?
3. Focusing on the British government and the problems it faced in 1764, explained why its ministers considered introducing a stamp tax in colonial America.
4. Was the Boston Tea Party a protest against British taxation, British trade regulations, or something else?
5. The French and Indian War is sometimes described as "a war for control of America". To what extent was this true? What were the outcomes of this conflict?

## 5.13 MULTIPLE CHOICE QUESTIONS

1. The American war of independence took place between \_\_\_\_\_?
  - a. 1773 to 1781
  - b. 1774 to 1782

- c. 1775 to 1783
  - d. 1776 to 1784
2. **What was the Seven Years' War called in the American colonies?**
- a. King Philip's War
  - b. War of 1812
  - c. Pontiac's Rebellion
  - d. The French and Indian War
3. **Which piece of legislation was not a consequence of the French and Indian War?**
- a. The Proclamation of 1763
  - b. The Sugar Act
  - c. The Stamp Act
  - d. The Coercive Act
4. **When Parliament repealed the Stamp Act in 1766, it simultaneously passed?**
- a. The Declaratory Act
  - b. The Quartering Act
  - c. The Currency Act
  - d. The Townshend Act
5. **The Coercive, or Intolerable, Acts were passed in response to**
- a. Boston Tea Party
  - b. The Boston Massacre
  - c. The Stamp Act Riots
  - d. The Battle of Lexington and Concord
6. **Why did American colonists hate the Quebec Act?**
- a. It permitted Canadians to settle on New England lands
  - b. It extended Quebec lands and granted more rights to French Catholics
  - c. It took shipping contracts from Bostonian shippers and granted them to Quebecois shipping companies
  - d. All of the above
7. **All of the following were consequences of the Stamp Act except**
- a. Americans protested and even rioted in cities and towns throughout the colonies
  - b. Tax collectors were hanged in effigy and tarred and feathered
  - c. Delegates met at the Stamp Act Congress to prepare for war
  - d. Americans stopped importing certain goods from Britain
8. **Why did Americans hate the Sugar Act and the Stamp Act?**
- a. They were the first revenue taxes Parliament had ever levied on the colonists
  - b. Those who failed to pay the new taxes would be tried by vice-admiralty courts
  - c. They were based on the theory of virtual representation
  - d. All of the above



## NOTES



9. **What did Parliament's Proclamation of 1763 do?**
  - a. Forbade those living in newly acquired French Canada to settle south of the Great Lakes
  - b. Granted the American colonists free settlement rights in the Ohio Valley
  - c. Forbade American colonists to settle west of the Appalachian Mountains
  - d. Created a Stamp Tax on all legal documents, licenses, and paper goods
  
10. **The Boston Tea Party took place after**
  - a. The governor of Massachusetts refused to allow tea ships to leave the harbor before unloading their cargoes
  - b. The Dutch East India Company refused to ship tea to the American colonies
  - c. British officials increased the price of tea by passing the Townshend Acts
  - d. The Continental Association boycotted tea

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# ANSWER KEY

## UNIT I

QUESTION	ANSWER	QUESTION	ANSWER
1	a.	6	a.
2	a.	7	a.
3	a.	8	d.
4	d.	9	a.
5	b.	10	a.

## UNIT II

QUESTION	ANSWER	QUESTION	ANSWER
1	b.	6	c.
2	c.	7	b.
3	b.	8	a.
4	a.	9	a.
5	b.	10	c.

## UNIT III

QUESTION	ANSWER	QUESTION	ANSWER
1	a.	6	b.
2	a.	7	b.
3	c.	8	a.
4	b.	9	c.
5	d.	10	a.

## UNIT IV

QUESTION	ANSWER	QUESTION	ANSWER
1	b.	6	b.
2	b.	7	b.
3	a.	8	c.
4	a.	9	b.
5	d.	10	c.

## UNIT V

QUESTION	ANSWER	QUESTION	ANSWER
1	c.	6	b.
2	d.	7	c.
3	d.	8	d.
4	a.	9	c.
5	a.	10	a.



# NOTE

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