Toward a World Economy

Europe's entry into the Atlantic and Pacific created an international exchange of goods, created a new world-wide economy including the Americas, and paved the way for the establishment of colonies.

The ability of the West to dominate the seas allowed Western merchants to displace others from the world trade system. The Eastern particularly the so called Indian trade until the end of 15th Century was under the control of Islamic merchants.

Later at the end of the 16th Century the earliest of the colonizers, Spain and Portugal, declined in the face of later competition from England, France, and Holland.

The creation of a world economy largely dominated by the West was a major shift in history.

Latin America, Africa, the southern colonies of the American coast, and some other regions were drawn into a system that condemned them to an inferior, dependent status.

After 1700’s, the West underwent a series of dramatic transformations in politics, intellectual development, and industrialization. The latter in the form of a so called “revolution” altered basic social patterns, enhanced Europe's position in the world, and marked the path to be taken by other civilizations.

“Water to the mill”

The answer to the question “where comes the water to the mill” (“değirmenin suyu nereden geliyor?” is a Turkish saying) that is the origin of the wealth of the West, lies mostly in the Atlantic slave trade.

Until 1630, the slave trade remained in the hands of the Portuguese. The Dutch and British began to export slaves to plantation colonies in the Americas after 1637. Both Europeans and indigenous peoples were active participants in the commerce, because it was possible to realize major profits.

With the development of plantation agriculture in the Americas, slaves became the primary component of the coercive labor system.

Between 1450 and 1850, about 12 million Africans were shipped to the plantations of the Americas. Perhaps as many as four million more Africans were killed in enslaving wars prior to shipment.

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The volume of slaves shipped increased from the sixteenth century to a zenith in the eighteenth century. By 1800, about three million slaves resided in the Americas. At its end in the nineteenth century, the slave trade still shipped more than one million slaves.

High slave mortality in the plantation environment required constant replenishment of workers.

Slavery was part of the triangular trade, in which European manufactured goods were shipped to Africa for slaves sent to the plantation colonies from which sugar and cotton were exported to Europe.

In Africa, participation in the slave trade often reduced local economies to dependence on European manufactures. In this peculiar fashion, Africa was linked to the global trade system.

The Disruptions caused by “Industrialized” Life

Industrialization promoted movement from the country to the city. Family life was disrupted in the process.

Workers found themselves packed into slums and subjected to harsh labor conditions. Workers responded to new conditions, in some cases with outright resistance, but failed to slow the pace of technological change.

For the middle class, women retreated from the labor force to take up duties in the domestic household. Attitudes toward children involved greater concern for education and a sense of childhood.

A source of social instability was the dramatic population increase that set in after 1730, a result of improved nutrition and a lower rate of infant mortality. However unlike previous epochs, the population increase of the eighteenth century produced more positive responses.

Upper-class families attempted to secure their positions, and the social hierarchy became more rigid. Business families attempted to increase their margins of profit, sometimes by the addition of more technology.

At the lowest level, the poor were driven to seek new means of employment and the higher demand for work decreased the wages to a mere subsistence level.

Population growth stimulated a surge in production of textiles and and other goods of daily usage. This process in history is called proto-industrialization accompanying changes in social patterns in response to new economic conditions.

Towards the “Revolution”

During the improving stage of the market relations in European economies, the dominant mode was simple trade rather than production.

However, a manufacturing industry was also growing up around the logic of mercantilism. The arguments of the political economists of the period were similar to contemporary arguments. In order to have a favorable balance of trade it is more profitable to produce and sell goods with higher capital input and technology while importing cheap raw materials and agricultural goods.

The logic behind the new policy proposals was the growing conscience of domestic interests of a rising manufacturing bourgeoisie.

In a manufacturing economy, productive forces like capital and labor have to be employed in a way to constantly increase the productivity in order to increase the profits. This maximizing trend needs protection against external competition and needs a labor freely obtainable in the market.

Accordingly, this transition to an industrial economy needed more people freed from traditional bonds and obligations in the feudal domains in order to decrease the cost of labor.

We observe the preliminary signs of this trend in the 18th Century England. The English Parliament, unlike the monarchies of Europe, became more under the control of the merchant and capitalist classes.

Here we may remember the famous economist Adam Smith's *The Wealth of Nations*' proposition that, “the only legitimate goal of national government and human activity is the steady increase in the overall wealth of the nation”.

The key to wealth is surplus, and surplus is increased by producing more with less cost, then we arrive to the increasing drive for technological improvements and innovations. This nature of capitalism also explains the opposition of the bourgeoisie to feudal relations.

“Sheep are eating men”: Enclosures

During the 17th and 18th Centuries, developments and inventions in science and technology applied increasingly to agriculture and manufactures.

Advances in farming and animal breeding methods increased productivity in the supply of raw materials, like wool, for the needs of the industry.

The term “Enclosure” is used to explain the process of appropriation of former common lands (lands which provided free access and use to the peasants) by the landlords to breed sheep for their wool.

Enclosures increased the number of larger and more productive and efficient capitalist farms but, reduced the peasants either to the status of farm laborers or more often displaced them from their lands. (Read the box: “Sheep are eating men”)

“Sheep are eating men”

“When, therefore, we look at the world with the eyes of More (Thomas More) we are looking from the widest windows of that time; looking over an English landscape seen for the first time very equally, in the level light of the sun at morning.

For what he saw was England of the Renascence; England passing from the mediaeval to the modern. Thus he looked forth, and saw many things and said many things, they were all worthy and many witty; but he noted one thing which is at once a horrible fancy and a homely and practical fact.

He who looked over that landscape said: “Sheep are eating men.”

This singular summary of the great epoch of our emancipation and enlightenment is not the fact usually put first in such very curt historical accounts of it”

During the whole 18th century growing number of peasants were obliged to migrate to towns and contributed the increase of cheap labor reserve for the manufacturers.

Urbanization accompanied the industrialization of societies, and the proportion of populations living in cities grew as societies were transformed. At the end of the 18th century, throughout the world the overwhelming majority of all populations lived outside of cities.

In Great Britain, the proportion of the population living in urban areas was 25 percent in 1831, became more than 50 percent in 1851, and had reached 77 percent by 1901.

Industry shouldered by children!
The term “Industrial Revolution” signifies accelerated developments of the technology and their applications to the Industry of England. Supporting an unprecedented increase in industrial production, this revolution reached its peaks, at the end of the 18th century and mid 19th century.

Although by some authors the term “revolution” is considered to be exaggerated, it is true that between 1750's and 1850's the quality of goods produced increased enormously and machine power began to replace the human power for the first time in the history.

Workshops turned into factories, artisans to entrepreneurs and laborers to an alienated working class: the industrial proletariat. Output and distribution, passed the limits of local markets and the yields of a mass production began to be directed towards export markets.

Briefly, industrial “revolution” was not a sudden incident but a transformation through time resulting with technical, economic, social, political and ideological alterations.

If looked from another aspect, Industrial Revolution also would mean misery of the working people, including women and small children, laboring from early morning until night. In 1833 the English Government passed a Factory Act to improve conditions for children working in factories. Young children were working very long hours in workplaces where conditions were often terrible. The basic act was as follows:

- No child workers under 9 years of age
- Employers must have a medical or age certificate for child workers
- Children between the ages of 9-13 to work no more than 9 hours a day
- Children between 13-18 to work no more than 12 hours a day
- Children are not to work at night
- Two hours schooling each day for children

Four factory inspectors appointed to enforce the law throughout the whole of the country. However, the passing of this Act did not mean that overnight the mistreatment of children stopped (Reader 1 and 2).

The “Revolution” besides creating unsupportable working conditions was also the alteration of all urban and rural areas, the human and physical environment for the creation of industrial areas and workers’ ghettos. (Reader 3)

Industrial revolution also goes together with the resistance of worker in the form of machine breaking, which will be known as “Luddite Movements”, rise of working class organizations, trade unions and finally “Socialism” as an ideology and movement.

New industrial techniques mostly originating in England during the early 19th Century spread rapidly in Northwestern Europe, France and the U.S.A. and during the second half of the 19th century to Germany, Italy and Austria.

Interestingly, these newly industrialized countries, particularly the U.S.A. as compared to England gained a better momentum towards the end of the century. This was due to the application of the most recent and efficient technologies without the transformation cost of outdated units. That is, countries industrializing later reached higher rates of development, while previously advanced countries due to the cost of replacing the old plants became relatively slower in the race of modernization.

http://www.nationalarchives.gov.uk/museum/item.asp?itemId=38
The key development of the Industrial Revolution was the application of machine power to replace men and animals. Favorable supplies of natural resources and the spur of population growth helped to produce the first Industrial Revolution in Britain.

Industrialization built on the commercial advantages Europe enjoyed in the world trade network and the developments of the scientific revolution.

The initial inventions, such as James Watt's steam engine, that prompted the Industrial Revolution occurred in Britain. Each invention spawned new technological developments in related fields.

James Watt's steam engine

Transportation and communication innovations allowed products, people, and information to be moved more rapidly. Improved agricultural production fed the masses of workers who moved to the cities.

Industrialization involved a shift in the organization of labor and the emergence of the factory system with its specialization of tasks and greater discipline. Industrialization also led to the creation of larger firms with greater access to capital and more advanced marketing techniques.

Britain's industrialization attracted imitators in the United States, Belgium, France, and Germany. The French Revolution promoted industrialization by sweeping away laws that restricted innovation.

Why England pioneered the Industrial Revolution?

England of the 18th century by having the following particularities had more chance in fulfilling the above conditions.

Geographical situation of England was an advantage with regards to sea transport and this helped the growth of British overseas empire to expand its market.

England's "feudal class" and the "gentry" (landowners without feudal titles) had favorable and competitive attitude towards economic change and capital accumulation.

Some authors (for example, Max Weber, in his The Protestant Ethic and the Spirit of Capitalism) explain this aspect by the success of Protestant belief and ethics in England.

Hence, throughout its history, political and institutional framework to facilitate the above-mentioned aspects had also developed in England.

On the other hand, England had, in its territories, the necessary raw materials like coal and iron ore. England's overseas superiority also helped to a better access and control of raw materials and a cheap labor besides the slaves in the overseas territories.

High population growth and "enclosure" movements transforming peasantry to "wage competing laborers" also reinforced this advantage.

Moreover, England's manufactured exports since the beginnings of the industrial revolution had been wool, cotton and hardware. If compared, for example to France's silk and other luxury goods, England's goods had a steady demand and a larger access to other markets.

The brief outline below explains the necessary conditions of a leap forward such as the "Industrial Revolution":

1. Sufficient and accelerated capital accumulation.
2. Availability and sufficient size of domestic and foreign market.
3. Access and control of raw materials
4. Free and cheap labor.
5. A political and institutional framework facilitating innovation.

England, as compared to the other countries was in a more advantageous state for the above mentioned preconditions.

During the 17th and 18th Centuries England had begun to monopolize overseas trade in such a way that all its wars resulted with the acquisition of a new overseas territory.

Besides leading the North American, the South American and, most importantly, the Indian trades, England was also continuing to gain ground in the Mediterranean region.

Lower prices besides better quality made possible by industrialized production increased the demand for English goods in foreign markets. English goods price and quality advantage had also caused the decline of local industries of common goods in the Ottoman Empire as in other countries.

Remember the Turkish saying "Asılacaşan İngiliz sicimiyile asıl" ("Better to have English cord if you are to be hanged") is a dramatic confession of quality that uninterrupted finishing causes less suffering.

England's first entrance to the Ottoman market

The Ottoman Empire managed to maintain its vigor until the late seventeenth century. At that time the empire, which was overextended, began to retreat from its most distant borders in Europe and the Middle East.

Once the Ottoman Empire began to contract, its administrative structure, which had always depended on military expansion, began to deteriorate and corrupt. (Readers 4 and 5)

Technological and cultural conservatism continued to cause the Ottoman Empire to disregard important changes in Europe.
The Ottomans became progressively weaker in comparison to their Western rivals. (For a criticism of Ottoman policy of technology see Reader 6)

As a remedy to the declining revenues certain measures like favorable trade agreements to attract Western traders to deal through Ottoman ports was taken. In Turkish history writing these trade agreements are categorically called “Capitulations”

In that sense we must remember that the relationship between Turkey and the United Kingdom began with the establishment of diplomatic relations in the 16th century.

The first person accredited to the Ottoman Court as the representative of Queen Elizabeth I was William Harborne, who set out from London and arrived in Istanbul on Oct. 28, 1578. Harborne carried out his duties successfully and was able to establish trade on the bases of national identity between the two countries, thus doing away with Venice as the intermediary.

A trade agreement between the Ottoman Empire and England was signed in 1580. and a “Turkey Company” was set up in London by English merchants there.

In 1581 the Turkey Company was formed, and in 1592 it merged with the Venice Company (founded in 1583) to form the Levant Company.

“Appétit vient en mangeant”
(French saying “the appetite is sharpened by eating”, and in Turkish “işyan yediğçe açılır”)

Sustained increase of industrial production and competition needed expanding markets for the providing of raw materials and selling finished products.

All of the above advantages of England also motivated and furthered new developments in many areas.

Revolutionary developments were observed in transportation and communication technologies. Better means of transformation made distant places a part of enlarging and integrating market.

As expansion of the market was the natural outcome of the capitalist system new political and strategic measures also had to be adopted. The English diplomatic and military policies were formulatated according to the needs of the economy. The dominant ideology found its ground in the rise of a new economic doctrine: “liberalism. The political economy of the period recommended and enforced “free market” policies on a global basis. One of the most spectacular examples of this is the Anglo-Turkish trade agreement of 1838. (For a “liberal” argument on the benefits of the free market see Reader 7)

Transportation and communication

Developments in transportation were important aspects of the global processes of industrialization. Railroads made bulk transportation cheaper and easier, and railroad construction played an important role in industrialization.

The first railroads were built in Great Britain in the first quarter of the 19th century, and the first railroad was built in France in 1828. By 1850, rail networks had been established across western Europe and in the eastern United States.

The Berlin–Baghdad Railroad was an important scheme for the expansion of German economic influence in the Ottoman Empire.

Canals were also important in the transportation systems of emerging industrial societies; in fact, the construction of two major canals transformed the patterns of global maritime movements.

The Suez Canal, linking the Mediterranean Sea and the Red Sea (and ultimately the Indian Ocean) was completed in 1869 and reduced the need for west-east shipping to go around the African continent. It changed military and commercial shipping patterns and made Egypt a major global strategic location.

The Panama Canal was opened in 1914 and transformed strategic and commercial shipping in the Western Hemisphere. It joined the Atlantic and Pacific shipping routes in Central America, eliminating the need to go around South America (or through the Arctic regions).

Production technology

The technological innovations accompanied simultaneously the social and economic changes, and this may be considered as a reciprocal process.

The driving force of the Industrial revolution was the textile industry and particularly the cotton products. Cotton industry was not considerable through much of the 17th century but exploded one century later.

Most cotton was produced in British colonies namely America and India. Because it was a labor-intensive agriculture, it fueled the traffic in African slaves to the American plantations.

The cotton produced in America imported to the homeland for the use of textile industry, and the finished product was marketed in Europe and in other countries.

At the beginning, having the technological superiority of production, England had almost the monopoly of cotton textiles. This position altered when America became independent and entered into the market as a competitor.

From our history we can also observe this competition which ended by the victory of America, so why since 1830’s, the ordinary cotton textile is named “Amerikan bezli” in Turkey. (Reader 8)
The first innovation in cotton manufacture was the flying shuttle, developed by John Kay in 1733, and was one of the key developments in weaving that helped fuel the Industrial Revolution.

The flying shuttle enabled the weaver to propel the shuttle through a wider strip of cloth with a single hand, and allowed the other hand to perform the combing to compact the cloth. This speeded the process and thus increased production.

James Hargreaves, a carpenter, developed the spinning jenny, which greatly speeded up the process of weaving cotton threads into cloth. Patented in 1767, the spinning jenny was a series of simple machines rather than a single machine, and it spun sixteen threads of cotton simultaneously. (Picture below)

Later a Scotsman named James Watt added a separate cooling chamber to the machine in 1763; this cooling chamber condensed the steam so the cylinder itself didn't have to be cooled.

Patented in 1769, Watt's steam engine had the efficiency to be applied to all kinds of industries and began to change the face of English manufacture.

The nineteenth century saw the exporting of the Industrial Revolution to Europe and the explosion of factory-based, technology driven manufactures began to be the norm.

An overview of the 19th Century

The idea of "progress" of the Enlightenment that continuing growth and improvement being the destiny of human and natural life further consolidated during the 19th Century.

Charles Darwin's theory of evolution (Origin of Species, 1859) was taken as the confirmation that progress was the natural direction of life, and also valid in the analysis of social evolution. Herbert Spencer (1820 –1903) an English philosopher and liberal political theorist is considered as the father of Social Darwinism, a school of thought that applied the evolutionist theory of survival of the fittest (a phrase coined by Spencer) to human societies.

In economic theory liberals like David Ricardo (1772-1823) John Stuart Mill (1806-73) defended that free, unregulated competition would bring continuous economic expansion and establish the universal justice.
On the other hand, Socialist theories arising from the injustices and inequalities caused by the industrialization, also based their ideas on human perfectibility and progress, found its adherents among the working classes.

The new class of industrial workers responded by organizing trade unions, first legalized in England in 1824. As a result of their efforts, acts to reduce child labor and regulate conditions were passed in 1833.

From the cultural point of view, "Realism" in painting as well as literature appealed to a new mass audience with social or historical aspects of narrative. With serious religious, moral, or social messages often drawn from ordinary life, the drawings of Impressionists rejected the formalism, sentimentality in favor of a spontaneous, un-detailed rendering of the world.

Realism in novels presented the full panorama of social classes and personalities, while retaining sentimentality and moral judgment (Dickens, 1812-70; Eliot, 1819-80; Tolstoy, 1828-1910; Balzac, 1790-1850) are the most popular examples.

And “reality” of our side:

The Ottoman Empire began to collapse in the face of Balkan nationalisms and European imperialist incursions in North Africa and the Near East. Russia accomplished its expansion taking Turkestan, all the Caucasus, and Chinese areas in the East. The new policy aimed to obtain a passage to the Mediterranean Sea. As a part of this strategy, Russia began to sponsoring and provoking Balkan Slavs and Anatolian communities against the Turks.

An Impressionist forerunner: Monet’s “Soleil Levant”
SOME ECONOMIC INDICATORS
Before and during the “Industrial Revolution”

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Number of Patents
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SOME IMPORTANT DATES ON TECHNOLOGY

1712 The Newcomen steam engine is used to pump water from a coal mine.
1733 John Kay invents the flying shuttle in textile machines.
1769 Arkwright patents the water frame (weaving machine working with water power)
1776 James Watt operates better version of Newcomen Steam Engine
1785 Edmund Cartwright patents a power loom-weaving machine- with steam power
1800 First electric battery invented by Volta.
1807 Robert Fulton’s steamboat Clermont, goes into service on the Hudson River.
1830 George Stephenson’s locomotive, The Rocket, operates between Liverpool and Manchester.
1836 Samuel Morse invents the telegraph.
1840 Samuel Cunard starts the regular transatlantic passenger service by steamships.
1842 Steam power in a factory in the Ottoman Empire. The Feshane in Defterdar, Istanbul. The use of the modern technology will also be operational in Beykoz deri in 1843, Basmahane, Bakirköy in 1850.
1859 Commercial oil well is drilled and starts to produce in Pennsylvania.
1855 Telegraph line connecting Istanbul and Edirne inaugurated.
1860 School for telegraph technicians opened in Istanbul.
1866 The Siemens brothers, Germany develop the open-hearth process of steel making.
1866 First transatlantic cable for telegraph communication is laid.
1867 First railroad transportation in Turkey, Izmir-Aydin line.
1867 Alexander Graham Bell invented the telephone.
1879 Thomas A. Edison invented the light bulb.
1892 Rudolf Diesel patented the diesel engine.
1899 Guglielmo Marconi transmitted the first wireless message.
revol ution  A word signifying transformation and non-reversible break between an older system and a new one. Radical change in government, usually accomplished through violence, that may also result in changes to the economic system, social structure, and cultural values. The ancient Greeks viewed revolution as the undesirable result of societal breakdown; a strong value system, firmly adhered to, was thought to protect against it. With the advent of Renaissance humanism, there arose the belief that radical changes of government are sometimes necessary and good, and the idea of revolution took on more positive connotations. Besides its use in politics, the term also found uses like Agricultural Revolution, Commercial Revolution, Cultural Revolution.

coe  rcive labor  Also called peonage is a system of involuntary servitude based on the indebtedness of the laborer (the peon) to his creditor. It was prevalent in Spanish America, especially in Mexico, Guatemala, Ecuador, and Peru. The system arose because labor was needed to support the agricultural, industrial, mining, and public-works activities of the conquerors and settlers in the Americas. To force natives to work, the plantations got them into debt by giving advances on wages and by requiring the purchase of necessities from company-owned stores. As the natives fell into debt and lost their own land, they were reduced to peonage and forced to work for the same employer until his debts and the debts of his ancestors were paid, a virtual impossibility. He became virtually a serf, but without the serf's customary rights. From:
http://www.questia.com/PM.qst?a=o&d=101263953

A d a m S m i t h (1723 –1790) was a Scottish political economist and moral philosopher. His most popular work *An Inquiry into the Nature and Causes of the Wealth of Nations* was one of the earliest attempts to study the historical development of industry and commerce in Europe. That work helped to create the modern academic discipline of economics and provided one of the best-known intellectual rationales for free trade and capitalism.

One of the main points of The Wealth of Nations is that the free market, while appearing chaotic and unrestrained, is actually guided to produce the right amount and variety of goods by a so-called "invisible hand". If a product shortage occurs, for instance, its price rises, creating a profit margin that creates an incentive for others to enter production, eventually curing the shortage. If too many producers enter the market, the increased competition among manufacturers and increased supply would lower the price of the product to its production cost, the "natural price". Even as profits are zeroed out at the "natural price," there would be incentives to produce goods and services, as all costs of production, including compensation for the owner's labour, are also built into the price of the goods. If prices dipped below a zero profit, producers would drop out of the market; if they were above a zero profit, producers would enter the market.

Smith believed that while human motives are often selfish and greedy, the competition in the free market would tend to benefit society as a whole by keeping prices low, while still building in an incentive for a wide variety of goods and services.

His theory, now referred to as "laissez-faire", which means "let them do", influenced government legislation in later years, especially during the 19th century. (However, it must be remembered that Smith advocated for a Government that was active in sectors other than the economy: he advocated for public education of poor adults; for institutional systems that were not profitable for private industries; for a judiciary; and for a standing army.

One of his most famous and oft-quoted passages in The Wealth of Nations is:

"It is not from the benevolence of the butcher, the brewer, or the baker that we expect our dinner, but from their regard to their own interest. We address ourselves, not to their humanity but to their self-love, and never talk to them of our own necessities but of their advantages."

enclosure  (or inclosure, which in Turkish Social sciences terminology is used as “çitleme”) is the process of subdivision of common land for individual ownership. Historically, enclosure is primarily associated with the subdivision of land in England from the 12th to 19th centuries.

Sir Thomas More, in his 1516 work Utopia suggests that the practice of enclosure is responsible for some of the social problems affecting England at the time, like increase in stealing:

“But I do not think that this necessity of stealing arises only from hence; there is another cause of it, more peculiar to England. ’What is that?’ said the Cardinal: ’The increase of pasture,’ said I, ’by which your sheep, which are naturally mild, and easily kept in order, may be said now to devour men and unpeople, not only villages, but towns; for wherever it is found that the sheep of any soil yield a softer and richer wool than ordinary, there the nobility and gentry, and even those holy men, the abbots not contented with the old rents which their farms yielded, nor thinking it enough that they, living at their ease, do no good to the public, resolve to do it hurt instead of good. They stop the course of agriculture, destroying houses and towns, reserving only the churches, and enclose grounds that they may lodge their sheep in them.”

In the words of Karl Marx “enclosure” is “The parliamentary form of the robbery is that of Acts for enclosures of Commons, in other words, decrees by which the landlords grant themselves the people’s land as private property, decrees of expropriation of the people “Das Kapital (Capital), Vol. 1, Ch. 27
**Luddite movements** A social movement of English workers in the early 1800s who protested – often by destroying textile machines – against the changes produced by the Industrial Revolution that they felt threatened their jobs. The movement – which began in 1811 – was named after a probably mythical leader, Ned Ludd. Since then, the term *Luddite* has been used to describe anyone opposed to technological progress and technological change.

**liberalism** philosophy or movement that has as its aim the development of individual freedom. Because the concepts of liberty or freedom change in different historical periods the specific programs of liberalism also change. The final aim of liberalism, however, remains fixed, as does its characteristic belief not only in essential human goodness but also in human rationality.

Liberalism assumes, having a rational intellect, have the ability to recognize problems and solve them and thus can achieve systematic improvement in the human condition.

Often opposed to liberalism is the doctrine of conservatism, which, simply stated, supports the maintenance of the status quo. Liberalism, which seeks what it considers to be improvement or progress, necessarily desires to change the existing order.

The first philosopher to offer a complete liberal doctrine of individual freedom was the Englishman John Locke (1689). From this period on the doctrines of classical liberalism were evolved.

Classical liberalism stressed not only human rationality but the importance of individual property rights, natural rights, the need for constitutional limitations on government, and, especially, freedom of the individual from any kind of external restraint. Classical liberalism drew upon the ideals of the Enlightenment and the doctrines of liberty supported in the American and French revolutions. The Enlightenment, also known as the Age of Reason, was characterized by a belief in the perfection of the natural order and a belief that natural laws should govern society. Logically it was reasoned that if the natural order produces perfection, then society should operate freely without interference from government.

The writings of such men as Adam Smith, David Ricardo, Jeremy Bentham, and John Stuart Mill mark the height of such thinking. From: [http://www.questia.com/PM.qst?a=o&d=101255286](http://www.questia.com/PM.qst?a=o&d=101255286)

**political economy** was the original term for the study of production, the acts of buying and selling, and their relationships to laws, customs and government.

It developed in 18th century as the study of the economies of states (also known as polities, hence the word “political” in “political economy”).

In contradistinction to the theory of the Physiocrats, in which land was seen as the source of all wealth, political economists proposed the labour theory of value (first introduced by John Locke, developed by Adam Smith and later Karl Marx), according to which labour is the real source of value. Political economists also attracted attention to the accelerating development of technology, whose role in economic and social relationships grew ever more important.

In the late 19th century, the term “political economy” was generally superseded by the term *economics*, which was used by those seeking to place the study of economy on a mathematical and axiomatic basis, rather than studying the structural relationships within production and consumption.

In the present, political economy refers to a variety of different, but related, approaches to studying economic behavior, which range from combining economics with other fields, to using different fundamental assumptions which challenge those of orthodox economics:

Political economy is most commonly used to refer to interdisciplinary studies that draw on economics, law and political science in order to understand how political institutions and the political environment influence market behavior.

Within political science, the term refers to modern liberal, realist, Marxian, and constructivist theories concerning the relationship between economic and political power among states. This is also of concern to students of economic history and institutional economics. From: [http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Political_economy](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Political_economy)

**realism** In literature and arts, an approach that attempts to describe life without idealization or romantic subjectivity. Realists have been chiefly concerned with the commonplaces of everyday life amonst the middle and lower classes, where character is a product of social factors and environment is the integral element in the dramatic complications.

**impressionism** was a 19th century art movement that began as a loose association of Paris-based artists who began publicly exhibiting their art in the 1860s. The name of the movement is derived from Claude Monet's *Impression, soleil levant*.

The influence of impressionist thought spread beyond the art world, leading to impressionist music and impressionist literature.

Characteristics of impressionist painting include visible brushstrokes, light colors, open composition, emphasis on light in its changing qualities (often accentuating the effects of the passage of time), ordinary subject matter, and unusual visual angles.
Readers

Reader 1

“Abuse of child labor”


Passages from testimony of a young worker to a Parliamentary Committee in, 1832

Where do you live? At Leeds
Are your father and mother living? No; they are dead
What time did you begin to work at a mill? When I was six years old
What sort of a mill? A woolen mill
What were the hours of work? We used to start at five and work till nine at night.
What time had you for your dinner? Half an hour
What time for breakfast and drinking? A quarter of an hour at each end of the day
What wages had you? Two shillings and sixpence
How were you kept up to your work during the latter part of they day? The over looker used to come with a strap and give us a rap or two, or if they caught us asleep they would give us a pinch of snuff till we sneezed; they would give us a slap with a strap if we did not mind our work
Where did they strike you with it? Generally in the small of the back and over the head
Did they strike the young children as well as the older ones? Yes
And the females as well as the males? Yes
State the effect upon your health and limbs of those long hours of labor? It produced a weakness in my knees; I was made crooked with standing the long hours.
Just show the gentlemen your limbs (The witness exhibited to the committee his limbs, which appeared exceedingly crooked).
How old were you when your limbs began to fail you? About eight years and a half
Did you any brother or sister working at the mill?. Yes, I had two sisters and a brother.
Have those long hours of labor had any effect upon the rest of your family? Yes, upon one of my sisters.
Is she crippled? She is nearly as bad as I am.
Were the children unhappy at the state in which they were? Yes, they were.
Have you seen them crying at their work? Yes.
Had you time to go to a day school or a night school during this labor? No.
Can you write? No, not at all.
Had you to work by gaslight? Yes.
What effect do you think that has upon the eyes? It nearly made me blind; I was forced to go into the infirmary and the doctors said they did not expect they could cure me.
What do you do now? I sell potatoes.

Reader 2

Social Aspects of the English Industrial Revolution

Statements of witnesses before the Ashley Mines Investigation Commission.
Parliamentary Papers, 1842

I am Sarah Gooder, I am 8 years old. I'm a coal carrier in the Gawber Mine. It does not tire me, but I have to trap without a light and I'm scared. I go at four and sometimes half past three in the morning, and come out at five and half past in the evening. I never go to sleep. Sometimes I sing when I've light, but not in the dark; I dare not sing then. I don't like being in the pit. I am very sleepy when I go in the morning. I go to Sunday-school and learn to read. They teach me to pray. I have heard tell of Jesus many a time. I don't know why he came on earth, I don't know why he died, but he had stones for his head to rest on.

I am Isabella Read, 12 years old, coal-bearer. I am brought with sister and brother; it is very sore work; cannot say how many rakes or journeys I make from the pit's bottom to wall face and back. I carry out about one hundred and thirty pounds of coal on my back, but have to stoop so much and creep through water, which is up to the calves of my legs. I do not like the work, nor do the other girls, but they are made to like it.

I am Mary Barrett, I am 14 years old. I have worked down in the pit five years. Father is working next pit. I have 12 brothers and sisters--all of them but one live at home. They weave, and wind, and hurry, and one is a counter. One of them can read; none of the rest can read or write. They never went to day-school, but three of them go to Sunday-school. I carry for my brother John, and come down at seven o'clock. I go up at six, sometimes seven. I do not like working in the pit, but I am obliged to get a living. I work always
I am Patience Kershaw, I am 17 years old. My father has been dead about a year. My mother is living and has ten children, five lads and five lassies; the oldest is thirty, the youngest is four. All my sisters have been coal carriers but three went to the mill. Alice went because her legs swelled from carrying in cold water. I never went to school. I go to Sunday-school, but cannot read or write. I go to the pit at five o'clock in the morning and come out at five in the evening. I get my breakfast of porridge and milk first. I take my dinner with me, a loaf, and eat it as I go. I do not stop or rest any time for that purpose. I get nothing else until I get home, and then have potatoes and meat, not meat every day, though.

The bald place upon my head is made by pushing the coal cart. I push the cart a mile and more under ground and back; they weigh over three hundred pounds; I push 11 a day. I wear a belt and chain at the workings to get the cart out. The men that I carry for are naked except their caps. They pull off all their clothes. I see them at work when I go up. Sometimes they beat me, if I am not quick enough, with their hands. They strike me upon my back. The boys take liberties with me; sometimes they pull me about. I am the only girl in the pit. They are about 20 boys and 15 men. All the men are naked.

Manchester, in South-east Lancashire rapidly rose from obscurity to become the premier center of cotton manufacture in England. This was largely due to geography. Its famously damp climate was better for cotton manufacture than the drier climate of the older eastern English cloth manufacture centers. It was close to the Atlantic port of Liverpool (and was eventually connect by one of the earliest rail tracks, as well as an Ocean ship capable canal - although thirty miles inland, it was long a major port). It was also close to power sources - first the water power of the Pennine mountain chain, and later the coal mines of central Lancashire. As a result, Manchester became perhaps the first modern industrial city. Friedrich Engels' father was a German manufacturer and Engels worked as his agent in his father's Manchester factory. As a result he combined both real experience of the city, with a strong social conscience. The result was his The Condition of the Working-Class in England in 1844.

The town itself is peculiarly built, so that a person may live in it for years, and go in and out daily without coming into contact with a working-people's quarter or even with workers, that is, so long as he confines himself to his business or to pleasure walks. This arises chiefly from the fact, that by unconscious tacit agreement, as well as with outspoken conscious determination, the working people's quarters are sharply separated from the sections of the city reserved for the middle-class; . . .

Manchester, whose former inhabitants have removed with their descendants into better built districts, and have left the houses, which were not good enough for them, to a population strongly mixed with Irish blood. Here one is in an almost undisguised working-men's quarter, for even the shops and beer houses hardly take the trouble to exhibit a trifling degree of cleanliness. But all this is nothing in comparison with the courts and lanes which lie behind, to which access can be gained only through covered passages, in which no two human beings can pass at the same time. Of the irregular cramming together of dwellings in ways which defy all rational plan, of the tangle in which they are crowded literally one upon the other, it is impossible to convey an idea. And it is not the buildings surviving from the old times of Manchester which are to blame for this; the confusion has only recently reached its height when every scrap of space left by the old way of building has been filled up and patched over until not a foot of land is left to be further occupied.

Right and left a multitude of covered passages lead from the main street into numerous courts, and he who turns in thither gets into a filth and disgusting grime, the equal of which is not to be found - especially in the courts which lead down to the Irk, and which contain unqualifiedly the most horrible dwellings which I have yet beheld. In one of these courts there stands directly at the entrance, at the end of the covered passage, a privy without a door, so dirty that the inhabitants can pass into and out of the court only by passing through foul pools of stagnant urine and excrement.

Below it on the river there are several tanneries which fill the whole neighborhood with the stench of animal putrefaction. Below Ducie Bridge the only entrance to most of the houses is by means of narrow, dirty stairs and over heaps of refuse and filth. . . . the passer-by sees several ruined walls and heaps of debris with some newer houses. The view from this bridge, mercifully concealed from mortals of small stature by a parapet as high as a man, is characteristic for the whole district. At the bottom flows, or rather stagnates, the Irk, a narrow, coal-black, foul-smelling stream, full of debris and refuse, which it deposits on the shallower right bank.
Such is the Old Town of Manchester, and on re-reading my description, I am forced to admit that instead of being exaggerated, it is far from black enough to convey a true impression of the filth, ruin, and uninhabitableness, the defiance of all considerations of cleanliness, ventilation, and health which characterize the construction of this single district, containing at least twenty to thirty thousand inhabitants. And such a district exists in the heart of the second city of England, the first manufacturing city of the world.

If any one wishes to see in how little space a human being can move, how little air - and such air! - he can breathe, how little of civilization he may share and yet live, it is only necessary to travel hither. True, this is the Old Town, and the people of Manchester emphasize the fact whenever any one mentions to them the frightful condition of this Hell upon Earth; but what does that prove? Everything which here arouses horror and indignation is of recent origin, belongs to the industrial epoch.


**Reader 4**

**An Ottoman manager**

_Taken from: “By an American” (J.E de Kay)(1833) Sketches of Turkey in 1831 and 1832, Harper_

Fine writing-paper was formerly fabricated at this place, but when we visited it they were engaged in manufacturing merely cartridge-paper for the use of the troops. The process appeared to be very rude; the materials are cotton and hemp, and from the specimens we saw, little judgment seems to be exercised in their selection. In the court in front of the building sat the director of the establishment, complacently smoking his pipe under the cool shade of a tree and evidently too magnificent and dignified a personage to attend to the details of the concern. These very great men, of whom there is always one, and sometimes more, attached to every public establishment in Turkey are a serious evil. Entirely unacquainted with the business over which they are appointed to preside, they do harm whenever they attempt to meddle; but this fortunately is of rare occurrence. In any case, however, they eat the bread of idleness, and consumer great part of the profits of the establishment. We were introduced to the director, and invited to partake of coffee and a pipe. To his inquiries whether we made paper in America, we replied by showing him a small piece which accidentally happened to be about us. He surveyed it in all directions, touched it with his tongue, held it up to the light, and finished by exclaiming, “Mashallah! we never shall make as good paper as this in Turkey”. Putting this down to the score of national politeness, we inquired in turn some particulars respecting the manufactory under his charge. He informed us that twenty workmen were usually employed, and that they could turn out about eight reams per day. He also stated that there were several other paper-factories about. Constantinople, but could give no positive information as to their precise locality. Repeated inquiries were subsequently made of various individuals, but we never could ascertain whether they really existed except in the brain of our informant. The difficulty of procuring statistical details in Turkey is proverbial. From the Franks, one can obtain no information to be relied upon; the rajahs are either unable or unwilling to communicate; and the Turks, independent of the difficulties of the language, seem to regard such inquiries as idle and frivolous.

**Reader 5**

**Ottoman state bureaucracy** _Taken from: Charles Issawi (1980) The Economic History of Turkey: 1800-1914, The University of Chicago Press, pp. 311-312._

**SELECTION 14, COMPLAINTS OF COTTON GINNERS, 1868TE, Box 105**

The Asia Minor Cotton Company Limited
9 Orange Court Liverpool, 15 September 1868

To the Cotton Supply Association, Manchester,

Having a considerable stake in Turkey & having at the outset of the American War invested large sums for the purpose of developing the cotton growing resources of that country, we have read with special interest the portion of the report just issued by the Cotton Supply Association referring to that country, & we can cordially reciprocate the regret expressed of the “Ottoman Empire not having made such progress as a cotton growing country as there seemed reason to anticipate” (5:14). We must however join issue with the Association as to the causes which have produced this disheartening result, & instead of attributing the failure to the apathy and want of perseverance on the part of the people, we would throw the whole blame upon the Imperial Government, the sincerity of whose earnestness our experience gives us every right to question; the Central authority is sufficiently powerful in the provinces where cotton is grown to make its ordinances respected, it is therefore undignified to throw the blame upon the local officials.

When the American War broke out no country was so well prepared to take advantage of the circumstances. In all the centres of trade there was a body of merchants both foreign and native with influential European connections ready and willing to invest capital to assist cultivators and to introduce machinery into the country.
On the faith of the great promises of special protection from the Government many merchants invested largely in various undertakings, & of such the Asia Minor Cotton Company was the most extensive & what has been our experience for the past 5 years? Instead of being allowed free scope legitimately to employ our energies and capital we find petty impediments placed in our way on every side.

Once the Government offered encouragement to the introduction of cotton cleaning machinery by the remission of the import duty, we could not anticipate difficulties would be placed in our way of its erection but in many instances after we had got our machinery up the country, we were stopped putting it up for want of authority from Constantinople, much time was lost in consequence. When these obstacles had been overcome and our machinery in motion other impediments constantly crop up, one season a tax collector insists upon levying double weighing tax upon cotton brought to our factories, is supported by the local authorities, seizes our books and thrusts our manager into prison; twelve months' time and about 400 is expended in removing the attempted impositions.

In two of the districts (Kirkaach & Serres) where we have ginning establishments, lignite coal found in the neighbourhood, has been used for fuel and no other fuel is procurable it was lying unknown & never used until our factories were established at Kirkaach; when we first opened the factory a charge per quintal was fixed by the local authorities and paid by us without demur for three years. But last year it was notified this tax would be increased fivefold equivalent to 20/- per ton, nearly the price of Newcastle coal delivered in Smyrna. At Serres until the spring of this year we have been using the coal with the knowledge and consent of the government, paying the owner of the soil a very handsome price; all at once when our factory is full of unpinned cotton the government stops the supply, & our operations for the remainder of the season are at an end: not only do we lose our trade in consequence but we also have to pay an indemnity to the owners of the unpinned cotton for not carrying out our engagements. ..... We have for the past four months been applying for authority to supply ourselves with these coals under the usual regulations, but little progress has yet been made; should this not be granted in time (with a large prospective cotton crop) our factories will remain standing for the next season.

If the Ottoman Government are really sincere in their desire to encourage & give facilities to those engaged in enterprises connected with cotton, one edict from Constantinople embodying strongly such sentiments couched in unmistakable language could put an end to these petty annoyances on the part of local officials which tend so much to dishearten & discourage further effort. Nathal Buckley, Chairman

Reader 6
Foreigners in Turkish manufactures

Taken from: "By an American" (J.E de Kay)(1833) Sketches of Turkey in 1831 and 1832, Harper

With regard to the introduction of foreigners into his manufacturing establishments, the sultan appears to act upon a wrong principle, if he wishes, which he undoubtedly does, to instruct his subjects in the various processes requiring scientific or manual skill. He should hold out inducements to foreigners to instruct a certain number of his subjects; and it would materially advance his views if, instead of giving them salaries which undergo no change, he should bestow an additional recompense in proportion to the quantity of goods manufactured. In consequence of not having adopted some plan like this, the parties have been mutually dissatisfied with each other. Many useful projects have fallen to the ground, and even when the contract is rigidly observed, no beneficial result has accrued to the empire.

As an instance in point, I may mention the case of another foreigner, a Mr. Kellie, who manages the two steamboats in the service of the sultan. He has been nearly five years in Turkey, and yet when I left Constantinople, there was not in the whole empire a single Turk who was competent to start or to stop a steam-engine. His salary is sufficiently large, no extra exertions are required, and of course it would be perhaps too much to expect of him to give such instruction as would at some future day enable the Turks to dispense with his services. This case is alluded to as illustrating the defects of the system, and has no reference to the merits of the individual in question.

A part of this large building is to be used as a woollen manufactory. We understood that it was intended to fabricate coarse cloths for the use of the army; several German workmen are already employed, and many others are daily expected from France. The reader will in these slight notices distinctly perceive that nearly all the modern improvements introduced into Turkey have sole and exclusive reference to the military establishment. In a government like that of Turkey, which is supported by the sword, and borders upon a nation which is only watching a favourable moment to dismember the empire, she must of necessity be continually on her guard, and maintain necessarily a warlike attitude; and although these ameliorations have no immediate reference to the condition or the wants of the people, yet in the end they cannot fail to be extensively benefited.
England's manufactures and the turkish peasant

Taken from David Urquhart (1833) Turkey and Its Resources, Saunders and Otley

It is not in looking on the miracles of machinery, or the accumulation of wealth at home, that a just idea can be formed of the greatness of England, or of the influence she exercises on the fate of millions of men with whom she has no visible connection. Take some remote village of Turkey, and trace there the effects of England's machinery. This village grows corn and tobacco and cotton; it has vines and flocks; it has enough of the necessaries of life for subsistence, and cotton, and wool, and hides, for clothing; and grows no more except the portion required by government, which, if the population is Turkish, is very small. This village, then, employs one half, say, of its labour in agriculture, and one half in manufacturing its cotton into cloths, its wall into carpets, its hides into zarouchia, while fields lie uncultivated around it. It is removed from the road, not to be subject to the passage of troops, and so placed as to be hidden from the observation of travelers. Its inhabitants have no inducement to accumulate wealth, or to gain information; they are led to form no new desires, to feel no wants by intercourse or traffic with the surrounding country, because they find weaving their own cotton cheaper and less laborious than raising an additional supply of corn to exchange for the cotton cloth of their neighbours, who have no better machinery or greater expertise than themselves. But reduce prices so as to make it their interest to purchase—present the goods and the means of exchange, the whole scene instantly changes; communications are opened, connections established, desires created, energies raised, and progress commences. Commerce naturally, in every case, has this effect, but how important is that effect, where the objects of it are the clothing of the mass of the nation? The manufacture of cotton is the principal in-door occupation of the greater portion of the East—of above sixty millions of men, with whom our future commerce will probably be carried on through the scales of the Levant—of men who are applying their labour to manufacture the cotton, and wool, and silk, that clothe them, while their fields lie uncultivated—under a climate producing all those articles which at present give the highest remuneration for labour. Throughout these vast and varied regions, these resources have lain dormant, as in the Turkish village; because hitherto the first object of necessity was not furnished to them cheap enough to induce them to forego its manufacture, and turn their attention to cultivation. How important, then, is it to establish the fact, that our cottons are at a sufficiently low price to induce them to forego to home manufacture! It is superfluous to follow out the vast consequences thence to be deduced; but it may not be un instructive to remark, that perhaps a few pence diminution of price and charges in a pound sterling, may open or close the door of the market of a village, and for the same reason of a quarter of the globe, to our manufactures.

The village which was insulated before, now seeks to connect itself with the lines of communication with the principal marts; cultivation extends, wealth accumulates, instruction follows, desire for new objects increases, produce is raised, England's looms have called this prosperity into existence, but she herself imposes restrictions on the only return the Turkish peasant can make, and therefore cripples his ability to purchase. From the year 1827 to 1830, our exports have increased from 531,704 to 1,139,616;* but there is no corresponding increase in our returns.

Readers

"Amerikan Bezi"

Taken from: "By an American" (J.E de Kay)(1833) Sketches of Turkey in 1831 and 1832, Harper

Sunday. A Jew peddler is shouting under my window, with a villainous nasal twang, and in a mongrel Turko-Hispano dialect, "Amelikani pagno," or American cotton. The reputation of our domestic manufactures, I was aware, had extended over our own vast southern continent; but I was not prepared to find that it had penetrated the regions of the grand seignior. They are in great request here; but it was difficult to ascertain the quantity annually consumed. The article termed sheetings usually sells at ten cents per yard, all charges paid. Our chief trade with Turkey consists in what are termed colonial produce; to wit, sugar, coffee, and run; but there is great room for the introduction of our home manufactures. Cheap furniture of all kinds, such as are shipped to South America, would find a ready sale here; cut-nails would also, after a certain period, be a valuable article of commerce. The credit of our cotton stuffs is much impaired by the immense quantities of a counterfeit article with which the English manufacturers have deluged the market; they are put up precisely like our own, and bear the stamp of some well-known American establishment.

Our imports are opium and other drugs, raw and manufactured silks, and latterly considerable quantities of wool. The amount of opium annually raised in Turkey is estimated at 252,000 lbs.; of this, 1500 cases or bags of 140 lbs. each are purchased by government, and about 300 bags more are smuggled. It is unfortunate for the true interests of Turkey that her silk is also a government monopoly, which, of course, renders it a precarious article of commerce.* The quantity annually taken off by us we have no means of ascertaining, but we learn that it is upon the increase. Wool is becoming an article of great importance; and when more attention is paid to the sorting and cleaning, the demand will doubtless increase. Shipments of this article have become very extensive to the United States within the present year. The port of Constantinople is exceedingly safe for shipping, and the charges are very low, not exceeding forty or fifty dollars for a vessel of 200 tons. The greatest draw back upon its trade is caused by the delays incident to passing the Hellespont and Bosphorus: these might be obviated by a line of tug steamboats, managed by individuals or the government.
QUESTIONS FOR DISCUSSION

- How the alterations in the rural areas of England might help the start of the industrial revolution.
- Why the enlarging of the market becomes inevitable with the industrial revolution.
- Why industrial revolution also provoked the revolutionizing of transports and communications.
- Why countries which pass their industrial revolutions at a later time become more advantageous.
- Why Liberalism become the dominant economic doctrine in the early phases of the industrial revolution.
- How you can explain the laborers conditions when you look at the index of average labor wages in England. May it help us to explain the rise of labor organizations after 1810.
- What kind of a correlation may exist with the number of patent obtained in England (Table) and the pace of Industrial Revolution during the 19th century.
- When you look at Readers 1, 2, and 3 you have a lively image of the conditions of child workers and of the working peoples living conditions in general. What kind of social and psychological alterations you might expect as a result of such working conditions.
  a. How can you relate this with the expansion and dominion of English goods in the world market?
  b. How these conditions might justify the earlier Luddite and later organized labor movements of the 19th century.
- In the reader “An Ottoman Manager” do you observe certain similarities with today’s administration of state enterprises?
- In “Ottoman State Bureaucracy” reader how the content of the letter reflects the disorganization and the lack of confidence of the Ottoman Bureaucracy?
- In the reader “Foreigners in Turkish manufactures”
  a. Why according to the author, employment of foreigners is not useful to Turkey?
  b. Why, the first attempts to industrialize in Turkey was operated by the state and for army needs?
- Referring to the reading titled “England’s manufactures and the Turkish peasant”:
  a. What would be the impacts of the industrial revolution on the economic life of the Turkish peasant according to the author.
  b. In what sense the author criticizes the trade policy of England.
- Refer to the reader “Amerikan Bezi”:
  a. Why “Amerikan Bezi” might have an appeal for the Turkish consumer?
  b. Why the author complains about the England’s competition? How this competition might effect the local Turkish manufactures?