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Chapter 1 : World History for Us All: The Scholarship of World History

The aim of this volume is to explore international flows of metals and monies, especially silver, in the period from the mid-th century to The impact of economic and technological factors on mining output is a second important theme. Discussion begins with the late-medieval Central European.

In lieu of an abstract, here is a brief excerpt of the content: Jack Flynn, Dennis O. The role of precious metals whether in the form of money or specie in the fixing of prices and the appearance of inflation or deflation, as opposed to such factors as population change and technological improvements, was bitterly debated in the economic history of the 16th and 17th centuries. This debate has been somewhat muted since, although some economic historians have persevered with the thankless [End Page] task of establishing from defective sources what metals there were, how they were minted and how they circulated in Europe and the rest of the world. This volume of essays, the product of a session at the twelfth International Economic History Congress in 1982, confines itself largely to the critical preliminary task of establishing as far as is possible what metals and moneys there were in this period. The editors have, however, a wider agenda of which this is only a part, that of totally reinterpreting the globalisation of trade in the period and offering an alternative explanation of the growth of a world economy to that of Emanuel Wallerstein who focussed on what he sees as the core Atlantic states. A number of the essays provide a necessary jolt for those like me with an incurable Europe-centred viewpoint, by focussing on the Ottoman Empire, India, Japan and China. The most important is that by Richard von Glahn, which effectively provides a short introduction to his book *Fountain of Fortune: Money and Monetary Policy in China*, - Sushil Chaudury adds to this reassessment by demonstrating that it was the Asian merchants who imported most silver to Bengal, not the Europeans. Sevket Pamuk, who has recently published a history of money in the Ottoman empire, has compressed the essential features of that history and government policy into a few critical pages that clarify not only the nature of that Empire but also its links to global developments. Fisher shows, in the eighteenth century Latin American production was rising dramatically. Munro provides the figures to prove what a number of people have long contended, that the south German sources of bullion, extracted with improved technology that still amazes visitors to the historic mines, outweighed the importance of bullion from the new world for Europe until well after 1700. While acknowledging the problematic nature of the monetary consequences of gold and silver production throughout the globe, the essays supply a series of [End Page] invaluable tables of output and minting in Europe and the world, quantitative estimates of the trade and shipping from and to different parts of the globe. The overall significance of the individual studies is not immediately apparent in the book itself. These careful, cautious and separate arguments, however, really serve to underpin a much more revolutionary assertion of an alternative explanation of long term change which is developed in other books. The value of such a reassessment to all aspects of the history of individual countries and its effects on historians studying governmental, social and cultural aspects of their history cannot be overestimated. In a period of globalisation some historians at least are reassembling the pieces of the puzzle to create quite a different shape. You are not currently authenticated. View freely available titles:

Chapter 2 : Ottoman decline thesis - Wikipedia

The aim of this volume is to explore international flows of metals and monies, especially silver, in the period from the midth century to

Origins of the Decline Thesis[edit] Sultan Suleiman I , whose reign was seen as constituting a golden age. In the Ottoman Empire[edit] The idea of decline first emerged among the Ottomans themselves. Nasihatname literature was primarily concerned with order and disorder in state and society; it conceptualized the ruler as the embodiment of justice, whose duty it was to ensure that his subjects would receive that justice. This was often expressed through the concept of the Circle of Justice Ottoman Turkish: In this conception, the provision of justice by the ruler to his subjects would allow those subjects to prosper, strengthening the ruler in turn. These writers viewed the changes which the empire had undergone as an inherently negative corruption of an idealized Suleimanic past. However, it is now recognized that rather than simply describing objective reality, they were often utilizing the genre of decline to voice their own personal complaints. Islam as an all-encompassing civilizational category often came to be portrayed as the polar opposite of the West, whereby Western societies valued freedom, rationality, and progress while Islam valued servility, superstition, and stagnation. Gibb and Harold Bowen, and Bernard Lewis , who adhered to a civilizational conception of Islamic decline while modifying it with the new sociological paradigm of Modernization Theory. The most prominent writer on Ottoman decline was the historian Bernard Lewis , [22] who argued that the Ottoman Empire experienced all-encompassing decline affecting government, society and civilization. He laid out his views in the article, "Some Reflections on the Decline of the Ottoman Empire," [23] which developed into the mainstream opinion of Orientalist scholars of the mid-twentieth century. However, the article is now highly criticized and no longer considered accurate by modern historians. The first ten sultans of the Ottoman Empire from Osman I to Suleiman the Magnificent were of excellent personal quality, while those who came after Suleiman were without exception "incompetents, degenerates, and misfits," a result of the Kafes system of succession, whereby dynastic princes no longer gained experience in provincial government before coming to the throne. Faulty leadership at the top led to decay in all branches of government: The Ottoman military lost its strength and began to experience defeats on the battlefield. They ceased to keep up with the advances of European military science, and consequently suffered territorial losses. As the Ottoman state and society was geared towards constant expansion, their sudden failure to achieve new conquests left the empire unable to adapt to its new relationship with Europe. Economically, the empire was undermined by the discovery of the New World and the subsequent shift in the economic balance between the Mediterranean and Atlantic Europe, as well as the voyages of discovery which brought Europeans to India, and led to a decline in the volume of trade passing through Ottoman ports. In addition, the Price Revolution led to the destabilization of Ottoman coinage and a severe fiscal crisis, which proved disastrous when paired with the rapidly rising costs of warfare. As the cavalry army of the Ottomans became obsolete, the Timar System of land tenure which had sustained it fell into obsolescence, while the corrupt bureaucracy was unable to replace it with a functional alternative. Instead, tax-farming was introduced, leading to corruption and oppression of the peasantry, and agricultural decline. Ottoman economic and military backwardness was extenuated by their closed-mindedness and unwillingness to adopt European innovations, as well as an increasing disdain for practical science. Ultimately, the Ottoman Empire "reverted to a medieval state, with a medieval mentality and a medieval economy" but with the added burden of a bureaucracy and a standing army which no medieval state had ever had to bear. The decline thesis was rooted in the nineteenth- and early twentieth-century conception of distinct "civilizations" as units of historical analysis, and thus explained Ottoman weakness with reference not only to its geopolitics but also defined it in social, economic, cultural, and moral terms. This all-encompassing notion of the decline of Ottoman and more widely, Islamic civilization became the framework within which Ottoman history from the sixteenth century onward was understood. The changing

nature and adaptability of Ottoman state and society; 2. According to Linda Darling, "because we know that eventually the Ottomans became a weaker power and finally disappeared, every earlier difficulty they experienced becomes a "seed of decline," and Ottoman successes and sources of strength vanish from the record. According to Jane Hathaway, this focus on the "golden age" had a distorting effect on its history: Furthermore, "complaint about the times" was in fact a literary trope in Ottoman society, and also existed during the period of the so-called "golden age" of Suleiman the Magnificent. Thus, these works should not be taken as evidence of actual Ottoman decline. On the contrary, Ottoman Valide Sultans, princesses, and concubines were successfully able to fortify dynastic rule during periods of instability, and played an important role in dynastic legitimization. Supposedly, the once-feared Janissary Corps became corrupted as they increasingly earned privileges for themselves, gaining the right to marry, sire children, and enroll those children into the corps. Rather than maintaining strict military discipline, they began to take up professions as merchants and shopkeepers in order to supplement their income, thus losing their military edge. However, it is now understood that janissary participation in the economy was not limited to the post-Suleimanic period. Janissaries were engaging in commerce as early as the fifteenth century, without any apparent impact on their military discipline. The breakdown of the Timar System is now seen not as a result of incompetent administration, but as a conscious policy meant to help the empire adapt to the increasingly monetized economy of the late sixteenth century. Thus, far from being a symptom of decline, this was part of a process of military and fiscal modernization. They maintained full self-sufficiency in gunpowder production until the late eighteenth century, and with rare and brief exceptions were continually able to produce enough cannon and muskets to supply their whole armed forces as well as surplus stockpiles. Modernization theory held that the underdeveloped world was impoverished because its failure to follow Europe in advancing along a series of distinct stages of development based on the model provided above all by France and Britain, which were assumed to be uniformly applicable to all societies. Historians seeking to identify the factors which prevented the Ottomans from achieving "modernization" turned to the stereotypes which formed the basis of the decline thesis: However, this economic downturn was not unique to the Ottomans, but was shared by European states as all struggled with the diverse pressures of inflation, demographic shifts, and the escalating costs of warfare. The establishment by European merchants of new maritime trade routes to India around the Cape of Good Hope, bypassing Ottoman territories, had a far less significant impact on the Ottoman economy than had once been assumed. While earlier scholarship depicted the Portuguese as having established a near-monopoly on the movement of luxury goods, particularly spices, to Europe, in fact the Portuguese were only one of many actors competing in the Indian Ocean commercial arena. Even in the late sixteenth century, Asian merchants utilizing the traditional Red Sea trade routes through Ottoman territory transported four times as many spices as those of Portuguese merchants, [75] and until the early eighteenth century more silver specie continued to be imported into India via the traditional Middle Eastern routes than through the European-dominated Cape route. The assessment methods in use under Sultan Suleiman were well-suited to ensuring proper distribution of revenues to the army of feudal cavalry that then made up the bulk of Ottoman forces. However, by the turn of the century, the need for cash to raise armies of musket-wielding infantry led the central government to reform its system of land tenure, and to expand the practice of tax farming, which was also a common method of revenue-raising in contemporary Europe. In fact, the seventeenth century was a period of significant expansion in the Ottoman bureaucracy, not contraction or decline. In the words of Linda Darling, "Ascribing seventeenth-century Ottoman budgetary deficits to the decline of the empire leaves unexplained the cessation of these deficits in the eighteenth century. While the Ottomans struggled with a severe economic and fiscal downturn, so too did their European contemporaries. This period is frequently referred to as that of The General Crisis of the Seventeenth Century, [89] and thus the difficulties faced by the Ottoman Empire have been reframed not as unique to them, but as part of a general trend impacting the entire European and Mediterranean region. Coping with these enormous challenges and finding the appropriate responses through a sea of socio-economic and political changes is, in fact, the story of seventeenth- and eighteenth-century

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Ottoman history. A remarkable adaptation to new realities, rather than decline and disintegration, was its main feature; it reflects the resourcefulness, pragmatism and flexibility in thought and action of the Ottoman military-administrative elite, rather than their ineptitude or incompetence. It has also established the comparability of the Ottoman empire to other - mainly European - societies and polities, and concomitantly revised the existing scheme of periodization. Historians of the Ottoman Empire have rejected the narrative of decline in favor of one of crisis and adaptation:

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Chapter 3 : Global Connections and Monetary History, : Professor Arturo Giraldez :

Global Connections and Monetary History (review) Sybil M. Jack Parergon, Volume 22, Number 1, January , pp. (Review) Published by Australian and New Zealand Association of Medieval and Early.

This essay reviews briefly the scholarly field of world history and its application to teaching. A bibliography for further reading is also included. Approaches to the Past In the past century and a half, historians have adopted exacting standards of research and inquiry. The laying down of professional rules for gathering, analyzing, and interpreting evidence has benefited world history as a modern field of scholarship. Universal history closely joined the study of the human past to religion and philosophy, specifically the search for general historical laws or patterns that might reveal the total meaning and direction of the human venture, past and future. Heavily burdened with what we now see as questionable theories of knowledge, universal history no longer has many advocates. McNeill made a key contribution in , when he published *The Rise of the West: A History of the Human Community*. McNeill was influenced by Toynbee, but his sweeping narrative rested on solid professional methods. The scope of historical research has expanded over the past century from political, diplomatic, intellectual, and institutional history to embrace many new approaches. These include social, cultural, gender, and environmental history. This broadening of the historical discipline is a reflection of the entry of many more women, minorities, and people of working-class background into the academic professions. It also reflects new trends in society, notably the increasing immigration into the United States of people from Latin America, Asia, and Africa. These trends have reshaped the ways in which we see and understand the past. They have led the historical profession to accept the idea that the whole world and all its peoples, not just Europeans, Americans, and male governing groups, should be open to historical inquiry. Sweeping changes in the discipline of history have also included an expansion of the range of appropriate scales of research—scales of both time and space. Until quite recently, nations have been the primary frame in which most histories were written. But the end of colonialism and awareness of the growing economic and cultural interconnectedness of peoples have set off a kind of intellectual Copernican revolution in the way we think about the world. That is, historians have begun to imagine geographical frames beyond the nation-state and the civilization. Specifically, they have been exploring the modern and pre-modern histories of Africa, Asia, Native America, and Oceania, which were previously neglected. The setting of world history is ultimately the earth and not just parts of it viewed one after another. The dismantling in the s and s of the European, American, and Japanese colonial empires, together with the inescapable fact of globalization, have led to an expansion in the temporal scale in which history is written. More generally, trends in the natural sciences have dramatically reinforced the expansion of time scales. As cosmology, geology, evolutionary biology, evolutionary psychology, and genetics have concerned themselves more and more with explaining past developments, it has become possible to link human history to the history of the universe as a whole. An *Introduction to Big History* Berkeley: University of California Press, From a Big History perspective the fact that 95 per cent of human history occurred prior to the rise of civilization prompts the questions: Why did an industrial revolution occur less than years ago? Why did world population start to rocket upward at about the same time? The *New World History* World history for Us All draws upon research in comparative, cross-cultural, and world-scale history since the s. World historians have had an important role in encouraging teachers and students to examine important topics from a wider angle. The study of trade in the pre world, for example, has opened a window into the ways in which the societies of Afroeurasia were linked together via the silk road, the spice trade of the Indian Ocean, and the trans-Saharan gold routes. Many books have been written in recent decades to provide teachers and students with ways of tracing the links between cultures and civilizations across Eurasia. Bovill, is still a reliable overview. Here are three subject areas where a world history perspective has mattered. Slavery and Its Abolition. A generation ago, most historians in the US studied slavery in a US context. Little was known in this country about the history of slavery elsewhere in the

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Americas, let alone the history of slavery in Africa and the rest of the world. Because of the scholarship of the last thirty years or so, we know a great deal more about slavery and slave trade in Africa than we did a few decades ago. These studies help us understand what a huge impact anti-slavery movements and ideas had on the politics of the nineteenth century world. Dale Tomich, *Through the Prism of Slavery*, which examines nineteenth century French and Spanish Caribbean slavery, is a thought-provoking recent addition. The study of the post-Civil War Reconstruction period has become an important area for comparative work. Scott titled *Beyond Slavery*. It looks at Cuba, East Africa, and Louisiana. *History of the World Economy*. A second major focus of world history research has been the history of the world economy. For a long time, historians were impressed with the centrality of Europe in the emergence of the modern world. One statement of this approach is Eric L. Jones, *The European Miracle*, 2nd edition. Research on the Indian ocean economy prior to the sixteenth century by scholars such as K. More recently still, historians have re-examined the role of the Chinese economy in the pre world perspective. Works such as Dennis O. This book is an imaginative effort to rethink the origins of the world economy from the point of view of China. A third topic where we can readily see the advantages of a global perspective is the history of human interactions with the biosphere. Environmental history is concerned with population growth, climatic change, infectious disease, natural disasters, and the impact of changing technologies. In *World History for Us All* we draw on recent scholarship in environmental history, especially works with a global perspective. Brian Fagan has written extensively on large-scale environmental change, including *The Long Summer: How Climate Changed Civilization*. McNeill has contributed an eye-opening history of contemporary environmental change in *Something New under the Sun*: These are but three topics where the impact of a world history perspective can be seen. As you explore *World History for Us All*, you will readily identify dozens of others. World history is an exciting teaching field shaped by research at the cutting edge. *The World System A. The Making of New World Slavery. The Overthrow of Colonial Slavery. The Golden Trade of the Moors.* Markus Weiner Publishers, *An Introduction to Big History. A Short History of Humanity. Biological and Cultural Consequences of Cross-Cultural Trade in World History. The Rise and Fall of the Plantation Complex. Guns, Germs, and Steel. The New World History: Global connections and monetary history, Louisiana State UP, Rethinking the "Rise of the West" and the Industrial Revolution. The Meaning of Freedom: Race, Labor and Politics in Jamaica.* Johns Hopkins UP, University of North Carolina Press, *The European Miracle, 2nd ed. A History of Slavery in Africa. Slavery and African Life. Historians Create a Global Past. The Origins of the Modern World: Something New under the Sun: The Rise of the West: University of Chicago Press, Africa and Africans in the Making of the Atlantic World. Through the Prism of Slavery.* Rowman and Littlefield,

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This essay studies human engagement with water in all its forms by looking at transformative moments in human perception of waterscapes, most particularly regarding seas, rivers, estuaries and.

Chapter 6 : Project MUSE - Global Connections and Monetary History (review)

The aim of this volume is to explore international flows of metals and monies, especially silver, in the period from the mid century to The impact of economic and technological factors on mining output is a second important theme.

Chapter 7 : Global Connections and Monetary History, 1st Edition (Hardback) - Routledge

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The role of precious metals (whether in the form of money or specie) in the fixing of prices and the appearance of inflation or deflation, as opposed to such factors as population change and technological improvements, was bitterly debated in the economic history of the 15th and 16th centuries.