

MASTER OF ARTS IN HISTORY

SEMESTER-II

HIS-1.5: TWENTIETH CENTURY OF WORLD (1945-2000)

BLOCK: 1,2,3,4

AUTHOR Dr. Prasant Kumar Nayak



ଦୂର ଓ ଅନ୍ଲାଇନ ଶିକ୍ଷା କେନ୍ଦ୍ର, ଉତ୍କଳ ବିଶ୍ୱବିଦ୍ୟାଳୟ CENTRE FOR DISTANCE AND ONLINE EDUCATION UTKAL UNIVERSITY



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HIS-1.5 TWENTIETH CENTURY OF WORLD (1945-2000) Brief Contents

Block No.	Block	Unit No.	Units
	Post World War II	1	UNO: Formation, Objectives, Structure
	World.	2	Human Rights
1		3	The Achievements and Failures of UNO
		4	Role of UNO in the crisis of Kashmir, Congo, Cyprus
			and Korea

Block No.	Block	Unit No.	Units
2	Rise of bi-polar world	5	The Cold war: Background, Super Power Rivalry (1945- 1980), Berlin Crisis, Cuban Crisis, Suez Crisis, Afghan Crisis
		6	Problem of disarmaments: Disarmament Conference (1948-1972), Salt-I, 1972, Salt-II, 1979, START
		7	The United States and Western Europe: Revival of Western Europe, Marshall Plan, Truman doctrine, and implications
		8	De Gauiles France and Rift in NATO.

Block No.	Block	Unit No.	Units
110.		9	Political and Economic Relations, The Warsaw Pact and
3	Last Phase of	,	its Objectives, Soviet Union and Yugoslavia, Soviet
	Cold War-I		Intervention in Hungary, 1956 and Czechoslovia, 1968,
			Gaobachev Era- Glasnost and Perestroika.
		10	Disintegration of Socialist Bloc and End of cold War:
			Change from bipolar to uni-polar world system
		11	Globalization- its economic and political
			implications
		12	Regional Security and Alliances: The Concept of
			Regional Security, CENTO, SEATO, ASEAN,
			SAARC

Block	Block	Unit	Units
No.		No.	
4		13	Arab Israel Conflicts (1947-1978), The Palestine Problem and PLO, The Iranian Revolution, 1978-1979.
	Asia in World Order	14	India in World Affairs: Indo-Pak Relations, Sino- Indian Relations, Indo-US Relations, Indo-Soviet Relations, India and Nonalignment
		15	South-east Asia in World Affairs: The Bandung Conference, 1955, Vietnam War
		16	Kampuchia Problem, SinoVietnam conflict, 1979.

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HIS-1.5

Twentieth Century of World (1945-2000)

Content

Block/Unit Block-1: POST WORLD WAR II WORLD

Unit-03 The Achievements and Failures of UNO.

Unit-04 Role of UNO in the crisis of Kashmir, Congo, Cyprus and Korea

Block-2: RISE OF BI-POLAR WORLD

Unit-05 The Cold war: Background, Super Power Rivalry (1945-1980),
Berlin Crisis, Cuban Crisis, Suez Crisis, Afghan Crisis.
Unit-06 Problem of disarmaments: Disarmament
Conference (1948-1972), Salt-I, 1972, Salt-II, 1979, START
Unit-07 The United States and Western Europe:
Revival of Western Europe, Marshall Plan, Truman doctrine, and implications
Unit-08 De Gauiles France and Rift in NATO.

Block-3: LAST PHASE OF COLD WAR-I

Unit-09 Political and Economic Relations, The Warsaw Pact and its Objectives, Soviet Union and Yugoslavia, Soviet
Intervention in Hungary, 1956 and Czechoslovia, 1968, Gaobachev
Era- Glasnost and Perestroika.
Unit-10 Disintegration of Socialist Bloc and End of cold War:

Change from bipolar to uni-polar world system,

Unit-11 Globalization- its economic and political implications.

Unit-12 Regional Security and Alliances: The Concept of Regional Security, CENTO, SEATO, ASEAN, SAARC

Block-4: ASIA IN WORLD ORDER

Unit-13	Arab Israel Conflicts (1947-1978), The Palestine Problem and PLO,
	The Iranian Revolution, 1978-1979.
Unit-14	India in World Affairs: Indo-Pak Relations, Sino-Indian Relations,
	Indo-US Relations, Indo-Soviet Relations, India and Nonalignment.
Unit-15	South-east Asia in World Affairs:
	The Bandung Conference, 1955, Vietnam War
Unit-16	Kampuchia Problem, SinoVietnam conflict, 1979.

Block-1: POST WORLD WAR II WORLD

Unit-01 UNO: Formation, Objectives, Structure
Unit-02 Human Rights.
Unit-03 The Achievements and Failures of UNO.
Unit-04 Role of UNO in the crisis of Kashmir, Congo, Cyprus and Korea.

<u>UNIT-1:</u> <u>UNO: FORMATION, OBJECTIVES, STRUCTURE</u>

Structure

- 1.1 Learning Objectives
- 1.2 Introduction
- 1.3 The Formation of UNO
- 1.4 Objectives
- 1.5 Structure of UNO
- 1.6 Summary
- 1.7 Key Terms
- 1.8 Self Assessment Questions
- 1.9 Further Readings

1.1 Learning Objective

After studying this unit the learners will be able to

- About the formation and functions of the UNO, a world body dedicated to the cause human peace and security
- Its objectives and its different branches; about UNO's role in safeguarding human rights throughout the world
- About its role in dealing with the vital issues of international politics like the Kashmir crisis, Congo crisis, Cyprus crisis and the Korean crisis arose
- Soon after the World War II was over; and how far this world body of international peace and security was successful in restoring peace and justice in the world from 1945 to 2000.

1.2 Introduction

The trauma of the World War I was still fresh in human minds. The horrors and worthless destruction of the war reached high. Estimation of human as well as property loss was beyond the reach of human brain. Post war efforts to forge alliances among belligerent nations to save the world from the scourge of further war could be betrayed. Mutual distrust, aggressive nationalism and imbalanced power structure drove the world towards a logical front. The World War II was the ultimate reality. For the second time the intensity of the war, the use of new types of destructive weapons, the vast scale of casualties and destruction of property made the nations believe in the efficacy of truth and not on power struggle. The whole world now was anxious to scan the utility of establishing a well organized and more powerful world organization on the line of the League of Nations, of course, with a bigger dimension to infuse new hopes and confidence in the teeming millions for everlasting peace and security. The United Nations Organisation (UNO) was but the natural corollary to all such hopes.

1.3 The Formation of UNO

It is the nineteenth century world politics which facilitated the great realization of establishing an international organization dedicated to the cause of peace. The Congress System, Hague System, Peace Movement and Proliferation of the Universal Organizations created a climate for formation of a League of Nations. As the horrors and worthless destruction of the war reached high, there arose confirming notion among the allied powers that to save the succeeding generation from the scourge of cataclysmic world war, some sort of international organization should be established for the preservation of international peace and cooperation. And the United Nations of Organization (UNO) was created by meetings, declarations and conferences after the holocaust of the World War II.

The tempo came in the Opera House of San Francisco where the fifty nations agglomerated, agreed and signed the UN Charter.

The League of Nations almost became ineffective by 1938. Due to the aggressive activities of Japan, Italy and Germany and the indifferent attitude of the other big powers the league became completely a defunct body. With a view to maintaining balance of power, the big powers again divested to the Pre-War policy of alliances and regional pacts.

The World War II broke out in 1939. For the second time the intensity of the war, the use of new types of destructive weapons, the vast scale of casualties and destruction of property had made the people all over the world anxious for peace and security and they felt the necessity of establishing a well organized and more powerful world organization. Some people had thought of the revival of the League of Nations. But most of the statesmen of the world resolved to form such an organization which would be able to infuse new hopes and confidence in the teeming millions for everlasting peace and security. The United Nations was born out of such anxiety and determination. Few years before the end of the World War II efforts had already begun for the establishment of an international organization in the name of United Nations. In June 1941 the representatives of Britain, Canada, New Zealand, Australia and South Africa proposed for the first time in the London Declaration the establishment of an international organization in place of regional pacts as the means of enduring permanent peace and security. President Roosevelt and the British Prime Minister Churchill issued a declaration known as the Atlantic Charter.

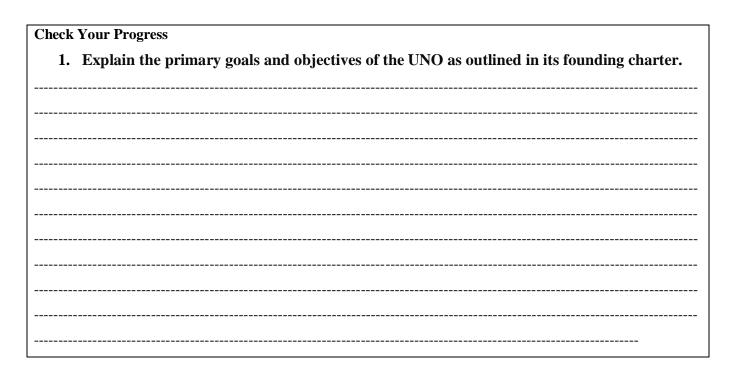
1.4 Objectives

The objectives of this UN Charter were to maintain international peace and security; to encourage international cooperation in the sphere of social, economic and cultural development of the world; to develop friendly relations among nations on the principle of equal rights and self-determination of pupils and to recognize the fundamental rights and status of all people. To achieve these purpose it was declared in the Charter that –

- (i) all the signatories to the Charter will recognize sovereignty and equality of all states big and small,
- (ii) they will peacefully settle all sorts of disputes instead of war or threats of war,
- (iii) they will help the UNO against secret treaties or violating treaties or engagements,
- (iv) in the case of determining the frontiers of a foreign country the signatories will not dishonour the opinion of the people of that state,
- (v) the people of each state will enjoy the right of drafting their constitution according to their own desire,
- (vi) in the sphere of trade and commerce and economy equal rights of all countries will be recognized,
- (vii) all the signatories will try to create a favourable condition for all nations so that after the fall of Nazi Germany they can devote themselves to the task of interval reconstruction in freedom from fear and want and
- (viii) all nations will equally try to preserve peace and security in the world by reducing armaments In

January 1942 representatives of 26 nations signed the United Nations Declaration at Washington which subscribed to the principles embodied in the Atlantic Charter. The signatories pledged to continue war against the enemy collectively and not to conclude separately any armistice with the enemy. In the Moscow Declaration of 1943, the Foreign ministers of Britain, USA, Russia and China confirmed the necessity of forming a general international organization based on the principle of the sovereign equality of all peace loving nations for the preservation of international peace and security. The Moscow Communiqué declared for the first time that "the signatories recognized the necessity of establishing at the earliest practical date a general international organization, based on the principle of the sovereign equality of peace-loving states, and open to membership by all such states, large and small, for the maintenance of international peace and security". This Article laid down the foundation of the UNO. This was followed by the Teheran Declaration in December 1943 which welcomed all nations into a world family of Democratic Nations. The next collective stage in foundation laying was done in the Dumbarton Oaks Conference in February 1944.

At San Francisco it came under fire and the result of the agreement ultimately reached is embodied in Chapter XI-XIII of the Charter. The veto came under fire of criticism of the smaller powers led by Australia and New Zealand. It seemed that this question of veto would ultimately wreck the whole conference. Fortunately, a compromise was found and this compromise did not change even a word of the Yalta Formula. Finally after overcoming few more hurdles, the U.N. Charter was ready for signature and by October 24, 1945 this was attained. The name United Nations was fixed upon to stress the continuity of the wartime alliance and the first meeting of the General Assembly followed in London on January 10, 1946.



1.5 Structure

In the beginning, the membership of the UN was 50 which increased to 159 in February 1985 with the inclusion of Brunei. On September 17, 1991 the UN General Assembly admitted seven new members whose entry into the UN would have been unthinkable at the right of the cold war. The new members were North Korea, South Korea, Estonia, Latvia, Lithuania (Baltic States), Micronesia, and the Marshal Islands (Pacific Island

Nations). The admission of these 7 states marked the biggest single influx since 1960, when 17 countries were admitted to the world body. Six joined in 1962 and another six in 1975. The three Baltic republics joined the UN within days of their gaining independence from the USSR. North Korea opposed separate UN membership for the two Korean states on the ground that it would perpetrate their separation. In 1991, however, the atmosphere had changed and both got admitted smoothly.

The UN is to enjoy in the territory of each of its members such privileges and amenities as are necessary for the fulfillment of its purposes; it has been given a legal capacity under Article 104 and has its own emblem and flag. With the march of years the UN has been put under serious financial strain and its operations in the such crisis (1956) and in the Congo (1960-63), rendered the organization almost bankrupt. The United Nations is composed of six chief organs. They are

- (1) The General Assembly
- (2) The Security Council,
- (3) The Secretariat
- (4) The Trusteeship Council,
- (5) The Economic and Social Council, and

• The General Assembly

One of the principal organs of the UN is the General Assembly which consists of all the members of the UN. Each state sends five representatives but can cast only one vote. Each member may have advisor and experts as may be required. The Assembly meets in regular sessions and for each session one President and seven VicePresidents are elected. Special sessions could be convened at the request of the majority of the members or of the Security Council. Each member of the General Assembly has got one vote. The Assembly meets through seven main committees in which every member is represented by one delegate- Political; Security; Economic and Financial; Social, Humanitarian and Cultural; Trusteeship; Administrative and Budgetary; Legal and a Special Political Committee, a General Committee charged with the task of coordinating the proceedings of the Assembly, and a credentials committee which verifies the credentials of the delegates. The General Committee consists of 21 members- the President of the General Assembly, 13 Vice-Presidents and the Chairman of the 7 Main Committees. The Assembly has also two Standing Committees - an Advisory Committee on administration and budget and a committee on contributions. The Adhoc bodies could be set up when necessary to deal with specific questions- e.g. the Disarmament Commission, the Interim Committee of the General Assembly, the International Law Commission, the Peace Observation Commission etc. The Assembly is entitled to discuss any matter within the scope of the Charter. For decisions on important questions a two third majority is required and on other questions a simple majority of members present and voting. The Assembly also receives and considers reports from organizations of the UN including the Security Council. The Secretary General also makes our annual report to it on the working of the organization.

• The Security Council

The Security Council consists of 15 members, each of which has one representative and one vote. There are five permanent members (China, France, the Soviet Union, Britain and USA), and 10 non-permanent members elected for two-year term and by two thirds majority of the General Assembly. Retiring members are not eligible for immediate re-election. In electing non-permanent members, the Assembly pays due attention to

representation from various geographical regions and to the contribution of members to the fulfillment of the aims of the Charter. Any member of the UN, not a member of the Council, is invited to participate without vote in the discussion of questions specially affecting its interests. The Council bears the primary responsibility for the maintenance of peace and security; it is also responsible for the functions of the UN in trust territories classed as strategic areas. In the maintenance of international peace and security the Council can, in accordance with the special agreements to be concluded call for the armed forces, assistance and facilities for the member-states. It was to be assisted by a Military Staff Committee consisting of the Chiefs of Staff of the permanent members of the Council or their representatives. The Military Staff Committee, however, has not been established because of disagreement among major powers.

• The Secretariat

The Secretariat of the UN is instituted on the model of the League Secretariat. The U.N. Charter has attached special significance to the Secretariat. Chapter XV (Articles 97 to 101) of the UN Charter deals with the Secretariat composed of the Secretary-General the Chief Administrative Officer of the organization and an International Staff appointed by him under regulations established by the General Assembly. While the Covenant said nothing about the functions of the Secretariat, the Charter is more explicit. The constitutional basis of the secretariat is thus the same as of other organs. It may be called as the executive and administrative arm of the UN. The Secretariat prepares the ground for the meetings of deliberative organs (the General Assembly and the three Councils and carries out those decisions and policies "in the most efficient possible manner". Its importance lies in the fact that it is a continuing organ, a permanent body of career officials. It represents the permanent element in a constantly shifting society made up of conferences, Councils, boards and committees.

Representatives receive one ballot paper for each candidate, with the name of the candidate inscribed there on by the secretariat. Five ballot papers are marked "Permanent Member" and 10 "Non-Permanent Member". Members mark each ballot with a black pen provided by the Secretariat, putting a 'X' in one of the boxes marked Yes, No or Abstain. The vote begins with the first candidate on the list and continues until the Council has voted on all candidates. The President announces the total result of the voting on each candidate after counting.

• The Trusteeship Council

Article 86 of the Charter established a Trusteeship Council to look after the interests of the people in Trust territories. On the Council are all the UN members that hold the Trusteeships and as many other members elected for three-year terms by the General Assembly as may be necessary or ensure that the total number of members of the Trusteeship Council is equally divided between these members of the United Nations which administer Trust territories and those which do not. The powers of the Trusteeship Council as defined by Articles 87 and 88 are three-fold. Firstly, it submits questionnaires and accepts reports from administering authorities. Secondly, it accepts petitions, and thirdly, it provides for periodic visits to the respective Trust territories. Since it began its work the Trusteeship Council has successfully increased its right of supervision. This has been however, a gradual shifting from the original anti-colonialism to an acceptance of "a positive responsibility". The Assembly under whose authority the Council works is however, influenced by the AfroAsian states. U.S.A. has excluded UN Observers from this territory. The Trusteeship Council which is under the authority of the General Assembly is entrusted with greater authority in the supervision of administered territories than the permanent

mandates commission. This right did not exist under the League mandate system. The Trusteeship system is considerably broader in scope and gives the administration of these territories a much more expensive supervision than under the League.

• Economic and Social Council (ECOSOC)

The Economic and Social Council was conceived as co-coordinator of the activities of the several specialized agencies which are created to undertake economic and social welfare activities. The ECOSOC is itself a specialised agency. It has therefore a dual role to play. It has been placed under the supervision of the General Assembly to which it must submit draft conventions. It covers virtually the same sphere of activities which falls under the jurisdiction of the Economic and Financial Committee and the Social Committee of the Assembly. Thus instead of a policy framing body it has become a duplicate organization. The ECOSOC is made up of 18 members elected by the Assembly.

According to the Article 62 of the Charter "It may call in accordance with the rules prescribed by the United Nations, international conferences on matters falling. These commissions are mostly composed of experts. The studies and recommendations of the commissions are submitted to the General Assembly through the ECOSOC. Thirdly, there are regional commissions. The first of these the Economic Commission for Europe (ECE) was set up in 1947. In the same year the Economic Commission for Asia and the Far East (ECAFE) was established. In 1948 a third one, the Economic Commission for Latin America (ECLA) came into being. The ECOSOC coordinates the work of the specialized agencies. Article 63 states that the ECOSOC may coordinate the activities of the specialized agencies through consultation and recommendations. It obtains report from these agencies and communicates its observation on these reports to the General Assembly. With regard to ECOSOC's right of supervision and control over these specialized agencies the Charter shows a tender regard to the sovereignty of these organizations some of which antedate the UN.

• International Court of Justice (ICJ)

The International Court of Justice has been constituted on the model of the earlier world court. Practically all members of the UN are its members. Any non-member of the UN may join it on conditions to be set up by the General Assembly upon Security Council's recommendations. Each member of the UN undertakes to comply with the decision of the court in any case to which it is a party. If its judgment does not go to the satisfaction of a party to a dispute. Then the aggrieved party may appeal to the Security Council. The court has jurisdiction over all international legal disputes and the legal cases of the member states. The International Court is composed of 15 judges elected for a nine-year term. Judges retire in groups of five every three years. Reelection is permissible. The president casts his vote only in case of a tie. The jurisdiction of the court extends only to states which agree to submit to its decision. States may or may not accept the optional clause. If they do so they promise in general to submit certain types of cases to the court if an opposing state also agrees to the court's jurisdiction. Thirty-eight states agreed to accept this clause by 1958, but many had done so with reservation. The United States has consented to adhere to this clause but at the same time declared that it should be the sole judge about what matters it will submit. The standard agreements however, include dispute about treaty interpretations, application of international law, existence about facts that may lead to breach of an obligation and damages payable for a breach of obligation. In 1957 Egypt accepted the compulsory jurisdiction of the Court in all legal disputes that might arise out of the Canal Convention of 1888 or other treaty provisions regarding the Suez Canal. The court gave its ruling regarding the Right of Passage dispute between Portugal and India through Dadra and Nagar Haveli. The court gave Portugal right of sending civilians and goods but not military force or arms.

• Specialized Agencies

The UNO encouraged certain other specialised agencies to come up under its fold. They were:

• International Labour Organisation (ILO)

In 1946, the ILO was recognized as the UN specialized Agency responsible for international action in the field of improving labour conditions raising living standards and promoting economic and social stability. In the ILO each country sends four representatives; two of the government, one of labour and the other of the employers. Representatives from the same country may not agree on an issue and cast votes opposing or supporting a resolution. Thus the votes from same country may be divided. The ILO was established in 1919 and is inherited by the UN from the League. The Annual conferences of the ILO accept conventions to protect labour and send them to different governments for ratification. Since 1919 it has promoted more than 300 such conventions and recommendations and received nearly two thousand ratifications. The ILO also submits reports on different matters concerning labour. Important among its activities in 1959-60 was the establishment of an Institute of Labour at Geneva.

• International Bank for Reconstruction and Development (IBRD)

The IBRD popularly known as the World Bank was conceived at the Bretton Woods Conference in July, 1944 and began operations in June 1946. It provides funds and technical assistance to facilitate economic development of the developing nations. Its funds are derived from subscriptions from member countries, sales of its own securities, sales of part of its loans repayments and net earnings. It is primarily meant to be a lending agency to encourage productive investments. The bank is insufficiently financed. Its activities are influenced by political consideration and it has been affected by the cold war. Its first loans were geared toward the post-war reconstruction of Western Europe. Beginning in the mid-1950s, it played a major role in financing investments infrastructural projects in developing countries, including roads, hydroelectric dams, water and sewage facilities, maritime ports, and airports.

Below the king in the feudal pyramid was a tenant-in-chief (generally in the form of a baron or knight), who was a vassal of the king. Holding from the tenant-in-chief was a mesne tenant—generally a knight or baron who was sometimes a tenant-in-chief in their capacity as holder of other fiefs.

1.6 Summary

- The UN Conference on Environment and Development (UNCED) held at Rio de Janeiro, Brazil (June 3–14, 1992), generally known as the Earth Summit
- To reconcile worldwide economic development with protection of the environment is noteworthy in terms of protection of human rights.
- The Earth Summit was the largest gathering of world leaders in history, with 117 heads of state and representatives of 178 nations in all attending.
- By means of treaties and other documents signed at the conference, most of the world's nations nominally committed themselves to the pursuit of economic development in

ways that would protect the Earth's environment and nonrenewable resources.

1.7 Key Terms

- UN United Nations Secretariat
- UNICEF United Nations Children's Fund
- UNCTAD United Nations Conference on Trade and Development
- UNDP United Nations Development Programme
- UNEP United Nations Environment Programme
- UNFPA United Nations Population Fund
- UNRWA United Nations Relief and Works Agency for Palestine
- UNU United Nations University
- WFP World Food Programme
- UNHCR United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees
- UN-Habitat United Nations Human Settlements Programme
- OCHA Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs
- ITC International Trade Centre

1.8 Self Assessment Questions

- 1. What is the United Nations, and what is its primary purpose?
- 2. What are the main purposes of the United Nations Charter?]
- 3. Can you elaborate on the structure of the United Nations, including its main organs and specialized agencies, and explain how they work together to achieve common goals?
- 4. How many member states are currently part of the United Nations?
- 5. Can you elaborate on the structure of the United Nations, including its main organs and specialized agencies, and explain how they work together to achieve common goals?

1.9 Further Readings

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UNIT-02

HUMAN RIGHT

STRUC	TURE
2.1	Learning Objectives
2.2	Introduction
2.3	Background Scenario
2.4	Human Rights
2.5	UNO & Human Rights
2.6	Summary
2.7	Key Terms
2.8	Self Assessment Questions
2.9	Further Readings
2.1 Lear	ning Objectives
•	To know the main objective of human rights learning
•	To understand human rights education programs address issues of cultural
	relativism and universalism
•	Able to understand the core principles underlying human rights education
•	Human rights learning be tailored to different age groups and educational settings
2.2 Intro	

The Charter of the United Nations (1945) begins by reaffirming a "faith in fundamental human rights, in the dignity and worth of the human person, in the equal rights of men and women and of nations large and small." Though the UN was established fundamentally on the basis to restore international peace and security, it was charged with the duty of promoting higher standards of living, full employment, and conditions of economic and social progress and development; and universal respect for, and observance of human rights and fundamental freedom for all without distinction as to race, sex, language or religion (Article 45 of UN Charter). It is to be discussed what actually UN has achieved for human progress and development in the lathe of declaring the Human Rights and the UNESCO.

2.3 Background Scenario

To render justice to human rights and freedom, the UN appointed a Commission on Human Rights which drafted a Universal Declaration of Human Rights, as a "common standard of achievement for all peoples and all nations". And this declaration was approved by the third session of the General Assembly on December 10, 1948, the first part of which reaffirms the political and civil rights and freedoms embodied in the American Bill of Rights and others and the second part enumerates the newer economic, social and cultural rights and freedom which have come to be recognised as fundamental to men. It is a beacon light for all mankind living in the dungeon of an emaciated civilisation. For the first 20 years of its existence (1947–66), the

UN Commission on Human Rights concentrated its efforts on setting human rights standards, believing itself unauthorized to deal with human rights complaints. Together with other UN bodies such as the ILO, the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO), the UN Commission on the Status of Women, and the Commission on Crime Prevention and Criminal Justice, it has drafted standards and prepared a number of international human rights instruments. Among the most important of these have been the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (1966), and the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights together with its Optional Protocols (1966; 1989). Collectively known as the "International Bill of Human Rights," these three instruments serve as touchstones for interpreting the human rights provisions of the UN Charter. Also central in this regard have been the International Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination (CERD; 1965), the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW; 1979), the Convention against Torture and Other Cruel, Inhuman or Degrading Treatment or Punishment (1984), and the Convention on the Rights of the Child (1989), each of which elaborates on provisions of the International Bill of Human Rights

Check your Progress

1. Analyze the role of the UNO in promoting human rights, including the adoption and implementation of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights.

2.4 Human Rights

Human rights, encompassing fundamental freedoms and entitlements inherent to all individuals regardless of race, ethnicity, gender, religion, or any other status, serve as the cornerstone of a just and equitable society. Human rights education (HRE) emerges as a vital tool in cultivating awareness, understanding, and respect for these rights, thereby fostering empowerment, equality, and justice on a

global scale. At its core, human rights education seeks to instill a profound appreciation for the principles outlined in international human rights instruments such as the Universal Declaration of Human Rights (UDHR), the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights (ICCPR), and the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (ICESCR). These documents provide a framework for addressing a broad spectrum of rights, including civil, political, economic, social, and cultural rights, which are essential for the dignity and well-being of every individual.

One of the primary objectives of human rights education is to raise awareness about human rights violations occurring worldwide. By shedding light on instances of discrimination, marginalization, and injustice, HRE empowers individuals to recognize and challenge systemic inequalities within their communities and beyond. Through case studies, discussions, and interactive activities, HRE encourages critical thinking and empathy, enabling learners to develop a deeper understanding of the complexities surrounding human rights issues.

2.5 UNO & Human Rights

The commission continues to perform this standard-setting role. Beginning in 1967, however, it was specifically authorized to deal with violations of human rights, and since then it has set up elaborate mechanisms and procedures to investigate alleged human rights violations and otherwise monitor compliance by states with international Human Rights Law.

Thus, much of the work of the commission is now investigatory, evaluative, and advisory in character. Each year it establishes a working group to consider and make recommendations concerning alleged "gross violations" of human rights, reports of which are referred to it by its Sub-Commission on Prevention of Discrimination and Protection of Minorities (on the basis of both "communications" from individuals and groups and investigations by the Sub-Commission or one of its working groups). Also, on an ad hoc basis, the commission appoints Special Rapporteurs, Special Representatives, Special Committees, and other envoys to examine human rights situations—both country-oriented and thematic—and report back to it on the basis of trustworthy evidence. The UN Conference on Environment and Development (UNCED) held at Rio de Janeiro, Brazil (June 3-14, 1992), generally known as the Earth Summit, to reconcile worldwide economic development with protection of the environment is noteworthy in terms of protection of human rights. The Earth Summit was the largest gathering of world leaders in history, with 117 heads of state and representatives of 178 nations in all attending. By means of treaties and other documents signed at the conference, most of the world's nations nominally committed themselves to the pursuit of economic development in ways that would protect the Earth's environment and nonrenewable resources.

2.6 Summary

^{1.} Moreover, human rights education plays a pivotal role in promoting social cohesion and inclusivity.

- 2. By emphasizing the universality of human rights while respecting cultural diversity, HRE fosters a sense of belonging and solidarity among individuals from diverse backgrounds.
- 3. It provides a platform for dialogue and reconciliation, facilitating the resolution of conflicts and the promotion of tolerance and respect for difference.
- 4. In educational settings, integrating human rights education into curricula equips students with the knowledge, skills, and values necessary to become active participants in democratic processes and agents of change within their communities.
- 5. By emphasizing the principles of equality, justice, and accountability, HRE empowers young people to advocate for the rights of marginalized groups, challenge discriminatory practices, and contribute to the realization of a more just and equitable society.

2.7 Key Terms

- **Human rights** include the right to life and liberty, freedom from slavery and torture, freedom of opinion and expression.
- Accession- replaces the classic two-stage process of signing and ratifying a treaty that is already in effect.
- **Citizenship** a legal relationship between a person and a state, resulting in mutual rights and obligation or b) used to describe the general relationship.
- ESC Rights- ESC Economic, social and cultural rights. Generally understood to be those included in the ICESCR, although ESC rights are no longer.

2.8 Self Assessment Questions

- 1. Can you discuss the role of non-governmental organizations (NGOs) and civil society in promoting human rights education, and provide examples of effective grassroots initiatives in this field?
- 2. How does human rights education empower individuals to become active participants in democratic processes and advocate for social justice within their communities?
- 3. Who are the key stakeholders involved in human rights education, and what are their respective roles?
- 4. What are the core principles underlying human rights education?
- 5. How can human rights learning be tailored to different age groups and educational settings?

2.9 Further Readings

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<u>UNIT-03</u> <u>THE ACHIEVEMENTS AND FAILURES OF UNO</u>

3.1	Learning Objectives
3.2	Introduction
3.3	Failure of UNO
3.4	Achievements of UNO
3.5	Summary
3.6	Key Terms
3.7	Self Assessment Questions
3.8	Further Readings
3.1 Learnin	g Objectives
•	To understand how has the United Nations evolved since its establishment in
•	To understand how has the United Nations evolved since its establishment in 1945, and what key challenges has it faced in adapting to changing global
•	
•	1945, and what key challenges has it faced in adapting to changing global
	1945, and what key challenges has it faced in adapting to changing global dynamics.
	1945, and what key challenges has it faced in adapting to changing global dynamics.Learn some notable examples of its involvement in humanitarian crises around the world.
	1945, and what key challenges has it faced in adapting to changing global dynamics.Learn some notable examples of its involvement in humanitarian crises around the world.Understand the major achievements and shortcomings of the United Nations in
	1945, and what key challenges has it faced in adapting to changing global dynamics.Learn some notable examples of its involvement in humanitarian crises around the world.
	1945, and what key challenges has it faced in adapting to changing global dynamics.Learn some notable examples of its involvement in humanitarian crises around the world.Understand the major achievements and shortcomings of the United Nations in addressing global issues such as poverty, climate change, and sustainable development.
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settlement of disputes among the nations through mediation and peaceful means, conclusion of armistice among the warring nations, codification of international laws and their amendments, advancement of the human society etc. come within its purview. During the first decade of its creation the UN did not achieve much by intervening in the international disputes. Yet it cannot be denied that the UN has earned credit in the midst of adverse situation immediately after the Second World War. It was proved in case of the League of Nations that no international organisations could achieve success unless the members particularly the major members of an international organisation display an attitude of patience and cooperation.

This norm is no exception with the U.N. All important activities of the UN are being operated by the Security Council either independently or in collaboration with the General Assembly. The chief obstacle in the better functioning of the Security Council is its member's right of veto. At the beginning, Soviet Russia created obstacles in the way of smooth functioning of Security Council by exercising the right of veto indiscriminately. By 1954 Soviet Russia had exercised this right in 57 cases whereas during that period France had exercised this right only on two occasions. The UN played its major role in the solution of the crises of Kashmir Congo, Cyprus and Korea. Let us review the role of UNO in the following crisis.

3.3 Failure of UNO

The "Two-Nation Theory" of M. A. Jinnah, culminating in the partition of India was 'short, nasty and brutish'. Pakistan was a nation born in hurry, amidst crisis and carnage. However, M. A. Jinnah, the architect of Pakistan was betrayed of his dream. To him, it was only a moth-eaten Pakistan because it excluded Kashmir. But, M. A. Jinnah did not want to lose Kashmir out of Pakistan's hegemony. Kashmir was a prime economic prize. But on the other hand, the Independence Act of 1947 empowered the princely states to merge themselves at their own accords either with India or Pakistan. Hari Singh, the Maharaja of Kashmir, anticipated a civil war to break out between India and Pakistan if his state got merged with either of the countries.

Hence, he followed a conciliatory agreement with both. But towards the end of 1947, the chauvinistic attitude of Pakistan found its blatant manifestation in raging Kashmir. While the Maharaja could not decide whether to opt for India or Pakistan, his Kashmir was raided by the tribal raiders who were supported by the Pakistani soldiers. This fact has been corroborated by Sisir Gupta's book "Kashmir: A Study in Indo-Pak Relations". The strategy of the bellicose Pakistan was to force the Maharaja of Kashmir to join his hands with the former. The situation changed. The Maharaja, supported by Shaikh Abdullah, the leader of the National Conference, asked for Indian help. Since there was no constitutional tie, the Maharaja signed the 'Agreement of Accession' of Kashmir with India on October 26, 1947. But the Indian leadership committed there a folly by outlining a condition of plebiscite to be held after the restoration of peace.

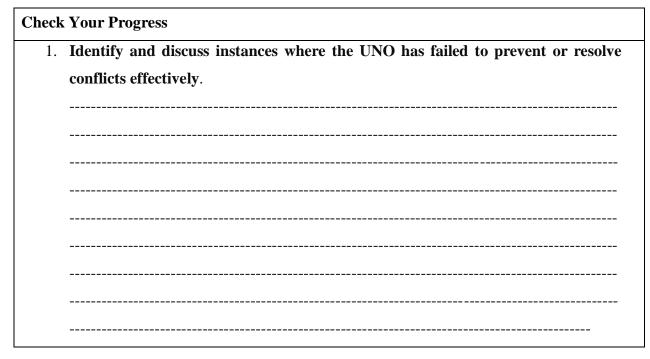
The inclusion of Kashmir with India rankled the air in Pakistan and the latter's Government declared that it was "a fraud perpetuated on the people of Kashmir by its cowardly ruler with the aggressive help of the Government of India". Furthermore, as Indians had promised to hold plebiscite, M. A. Jinnah took the claim of accession provisional. The issue of Kashmir, all of a sudden, became the cornerstone and keystone of Pakistan's foreign policy. The Pakistanis attacked on the borders and the Indian forces were sent to Srinagar. In November 1947 Lord Mountbatten, Viceroy of Independent India held a meeting with Jinnah to settle the issue of Kashmir, but failed. Again, on 8th December 1947, a meeting of the Joint Defence Council was held at Lahore in which J. L. Nehru and Lord Mountbatten participated, but the problem of Kashmir could not be solved. Finally, in January 1948 India took the case to the United Nations under the caption "Jammu and Kashmir Question" by P. Pillai, the Indian representative to UNO. He asked the Security Council to throw light on the Kashmir issue under Article 39 of the UN Charter and to tackle the some which was likely to endanger international peace and security.

The Security Council debated the issue and on 20th January 1948 passed a resolution in

which there was a provision of the constitution of commission of three UN members, one Indian, the other a Pakistani and third one of the UNO itself, to look into the issue. The commission was to investigate the facts, according to the article 34 of the Charter and to smooth away the difficulties. After some preliminary investigations, the commission appealed to the Governments of India and Pakistan to issue ceasefire orders and withdraw their troops. It also suggested a plebiscite to decide the future status of the state. According to the proposals of the Commission:- Pakistan was to withdraw its troops stationed in the state of

- Kashmir; Pending a final solution, the territory to be evacuated by the local authorities under the surveillance of the commission;
- On notification by the commission that Pakistan was complying with these terms, India was to begin the withdrawal of the bulk of her forces in stages to be agreed with the commission; and Pending the acceptance of the conditions for the final settlement, the Indian Government was to maintain within the lines existing at the moment of ceasefire, forces which were absolutely necessary to assist local authorities in the maintenance of law and order.
- However, though India accepted the proposals, Pakistan turned down. India felt that washing of dirty linen in public would embitter the nations and lower the prestige of both the nations.
- Moreover, India thought that the world public opinion would stand by her side and the Security Council would dispose the dispute in a fortnight's time. Pakistan took a fortnight to reply the charges. In document II, Pakistan leveled fantastic counter charges against India complaining that the latter was guilty of genocide and of making persistent efforts to undo the scheme of partition.
- She also alleged that India had not given military shares and cash balances to her and the same had been occupied by India by fraud. In the UNO, India's case was pleaded by Gopalaswami Ayyanger, assisted by M. C. Setalvad, Attorney General of India. However, the presentation of the case was tactless.
- The Indian representative instead of emphasizing Pakistani hand in the aggression, continued dilating on the Pakistani complicity and indulged in legal sophistry of differentiations between Pakistan and the invader and failed to secure the sympathy of the Security Council. Again reference to the plebiscite weakened the strong case, making it appear the accession was conditional.
- But so far as the Independence Act of 1947 was concerned that accession was quite upright since no provision of holding a plebiscite was there in it.
- The Indian representative failed to underline this point with weak argument. On the other

hand, Mohammed Zafrullah Khan, the representative of Pakistan to the UNO with his dynamic oratory advocated for the Pakistani cause and convinced the members of the Council that Kashmir issue was the direct outcome of the scheme of partition.



While India could not be clear that the Pakistanis were raiders, Zafrulla Khan could win the case. The Security Council appointed a Five member United Nation's Commission for India and Pakistan (UNCIP) consisting of the representatives of Argentina, Belgium, Columbia, Czechoslovakia and USA to suggest acceptable solution. It submitted its first report on 13th August 1948 which was accepted by India but rejected by Pakistan. It made fresh negotiations with the representatives of India and Pakistan and made fresh proposals on 11th December 1948. Both the countries accepted proposals of the commission.

In the meantime, the UNO changed the nomenclature of the resolution from the "Kashmir issue" to "India-Pakistan issue" to which Indian delegate opposed. On the midnight of 1st January 1949, both of them went to ceasefire. The UNCIP submitted three interim reports and in the third report it suggested that as the military situation had changed, the task of solving the entire issue be entrusted to one person who would act as a mediator instead of a commission. On recommendation of the commission, the Security Council appointed its President General McNaughton as mediator. He forwarded various proposals which could not make any breakthrough. On the 12th April 1950 the Security Council appointed Sir Owen Dixon of Australia to implement McNaughton's proposals for the demilitarization of the state, but he too failed. Dixon's proposals were not accepted. He submitted his report on15th September 1950 suggesting the partition of Kashmir rather than holding on overall plebiscite which was rejected. Towards 1950 it became a major crisis and ultimately the Kashmir crisis degenerated into a cold war. In the meantime, the NATO and CENTO had already come into

existence and the membership of Pakistan in the NATO and CENTO brought much military aids to Pakistan and Pakistan wanted to exploit the western help in the UNO.

The discussion of Kashmir issue was once again resumed in the Security Council on 21st February 1951 with the submission of a joint draft resolution by the U.K and USA which curtailed the freedom of the wishes of Kashmir regarding its future occasion and left it completely on the mercy of the Council. Pakistan agreed to accept while India considered it as "extraordinarily objectionable". Again the Security Council appointed Frank P. Graham, Senator from Northern Carolina as the UN representative for India and Pakistan who suggested a direct negotiation between India and Pakistan. From 1953 to 1956, various futile discussions were held, but nothing tangible came out because of USA's military aid to Pakistan. But the year 1956 made a definite watershed on the Kashmir issue. India made a categorical statement that it cannot stand to the acid testing of holding the plebiscite. Pakistan exploited that situation asking the UNO to ask India to withdraw from Kashmir. It was also a crucial time for India for it had disapproved the Soviet intervention of Hungary and because of its role of a peacemaker in Suez crisis and so it was alienated from USSR's and USA's sympathy respectively.

But on the wake of Bulgarian and Khrushchev's tours to India, India won the sympathy of USSR. While Pakistan firmed turned the international politics, for India there came Krishna Menon in 1957 who pleaded the case of India in the marathon session. Of course, the UNO was proposing to attempt to force upon India a highly unplayable resolution which sought the induction of UN force for holding plebiscite. The mischief was scotched by the Soviet veto. However, Krishna Menon made a strong plea and brought the UNO to the duck. The famous Four Power's resolution was tabled by Australia, Cuba, UK and USA in February 1957 in 768th meeting of UNO. It was opposed by USSR.

In case of Congo crisis, though the UNO succeeded to little extent, in the long run, it had to tread a long and tortuous path. As if, the crisis of Congo was of the greatest acid tests for the United Nations. Congo was under the colonial bondage of Belgium. Independence was granted to the Republic of Congo on June 30, 1960. Politically backward, economically perished and bankrupt and socially diffused, this nascent Republic was threatened with dangers. It was an infant Republic combining all the backward physiognomies of a typical African backward state. A month before the independence of Congo, elections were held to the Chamber of Representatives, the Lower House of the Congolese Parliament.

Elections for six provincial legislatures were held at the same time. Even before holding of the elections, violence had erupted in Congo and in the post- election era, the same trend continued. It was doubted that the Belgian Governor, Christopher Cornelis was intentionally creating disorder and fanning peace in the province of Katanga. Powerful Belgian business houses and Catholic Church interfered in the elections on the side of those personalities and political parties which were favourably inclined towards Belgium. However, after the elections, though no single party could secure the majority, the Congolese Nationalist Party led by Patrice Lumumba emerged as the strongest single party in the Chamber of Representatives. But from the province of Katanga, the Congo Kat party led by Moise Tshombe could not get a single seat in the parliament.

On 23rd June, 1960 ministry was formed under the new premier Lumumba and Joseph Kasavubu was appointed as President. But shortly civil disorder followed. Being dissatisfied on the trends of elections in his own area, Moise Tshombe, a puppet of foreign monopolies and 'self-styled' President of Katanga proclaimed "secession" of the rich mineral region of his province in contravention of the Congolese constitution. To make the matter worse, Albert Kalonji also declared himself as the king of the independent South Kasai state. Added to these, as soon as the independence was proclaimed and a national government formed under Lumumba, the Belgian government launched a series of provocations and the organised an armed intervention against the New Republic with support from its NATO allies. Thus, the nascent nation was tottering on the brink of fragmentation and the crisis of Congo became burning towards the end of June 1960 and the civil war threatened the entire nation. Hence, the highhandedness of Belgium, drastic attempts of Kalonji and Moise Tshombe who only proved to be lackey of foreign monopolies went a long way to sing the swan song of Congolese independence. On July 11, 1960 Lumumba appealed to the UNO for help and requested the Belgian government to withdraw her troops immediately which were blatantly turned down. The premier asked help from both American and Ghana governments but got no response in this regard. On July 13, 1960 the Soviet government condemned the imperialist aggression in Congo which was aimed at undermining Congo's sovereignty and trampling its independence.

3.4 Achievement of UNO

The USSR asserted that "any attempt to detach any province from the Republic of Congo is an unlawful and criminal act, dictated by the mercenary interests of a handful of finance and industrial magnates of the colonial powers". Thus, when the Soviet Russia unconditionally condemned aggression against the Republic of Congo, the Secretary General of the United Nations Mr. Dag Hammarskjold called an urgent session of the security Council on the same day on July 13, 1960, but it failed to take any decision. The Secretary General used for the first time his powers under Article 99 of the UN Charter " to bring to the attention of the Security Council any matter which in his opinion may threaten the maintenance of international peace and security". On July 14, 1960 the Council met once again and passed a resolution asking the Belgian government to withdraw all its troops and promised military help to Congo to maintain law and order. It also authorised the UN Secretary General in agreement with the Congolese government to do everything to provide Congo "with much military assistance as may be necessary". The Secretary General proceeded to organise a United Nations Operation in Congo (UNOC) under the field command of Dr. Ralph. The Secretary General visited Congo and Katanga, but he returned to use the troops of the United Nations to suppress the Katangan secession.

The UN Secretary General Dag Hammarskjold and the UN command on the Congo headed by Andrew W. Cordier of USA, ignored the Security Council's decision and helped the colonialists. Hammarskjold refused to cooperate with the lawful Congolese government in restoring the latter's authority in Katanga province. Rather, the UN command obstructed the struggle of the Congolese government against the insurgents. It took over the government Radio station, Leopoldville Air port was occupied and capital's means of communication with other regions were made open in contravention of the Security Council's resolution and sanctioned Congo's division for the puppet authorities of Katanga who had the backing of the Belgian and other colonialists. The USSR denigrated and debunked the Secretary General and deplored the attempts to depict the separatist actions of the foreign installed puppet regime of Tshombe which had usurped powers in Katanga by means of an uprising by imperialist interventionists against the lawful government of the Republic. On September 6, 1960, Lumumba told the foreign ambassadors in Congo that "from the very beginning Hammarskjold had been engaged in criminal subversion of the Security Council decisions of the Republic of Congo". In its statement of September 9, 1960 the Soviet Government qualified the actions of the UN command as in fact paralysing the normal functioning of the central Congolese government, as an attempt to replace some colonialists in Congo with others in the form of collective colonialism of the NATO states under the symbol of the Blue Flag of the UNO.

The Congolese Prime Minister Patrice Lumumba condemned the actions of the Secretary General and sent a memorandum to the Security Council urging it to recommend that the Secretary General and his associates in the Congo cease on direct or indirect interference in the Republic's internal affairs. The Security Council met several times to thrash out charges of unwarranted UN interference in internal Congolese affairs, but when all substantive resolutions were blocked by use of the veto, it was decided under the "Unite for Peace" resolution to hold an emergency special session of the General Assembly, only four days before the opening of the regular session. Finally, on September 20, a 17-power Afro-Asian resolution was adopted by 70 votes to none with 11 abstentions (Soviet bloc, France and South Africa) by which all previous Security Council resolutions were reaffirmed, an appeal was made for contributions to a United Nations Fund for the Congo (UNFC), all states were asked to channel all military assistance through the United Nations, and an African-Asian advisory committee was proposed to help the Congolese solve their political conflicts.

Along with the Congo crisis the UNO also played a significant role in bringing about a substantial solution in the Cyprus issue. Cyprus, a republic in eastern Mediterranean was annexed to Britain in 1914 by Turkey. Between the two world wars British rule was challenged by the partisans

of 'enosis' or 'Union with Greece' but was never seriously threatened. The population of Cyprus included 77% Greeks and 18% Turks. The Turkish minority was a spectator of Anglo-Greek conflict, sometimes worried and sometimes not. At the end of the Second World War the British estimate of the value of Cyprus rose as a result of the retreat from Palestine and the British position in Egypt. The British assumed therefore that they would and should stay in Cyprus.

The Greek Cypriots assumed the opposite. Discussions for a constitutional advance towards limited self-government were abortive. To the Greeks they were irrelevant. In 1946 the exiled Bishop of Kyrenia returned to the island and in 1950 he was elected to the throne of 'autocephalous church' of Cyprus, which had been vacant during the years 1937-47. He took the regional name of Makarios III, and he became at the same time the national leader of the Greek community. Makarios was thus both the head of one of the most venerable of the Churches within the orthodox communion and also the leader of a modern nationalist movement which had challenged the Turks for a century and a half and was now to fight both Turks and British on this last remaining battlefield. In 1950, a plebiscite organised by the church returned the inevitable response in favour of 'enosis' and the Greek Prime Minister General Nikolaos Plastiras, equally inevitably responded to it in a tone of mixed encouragement and moderation. About the Greekness of Cyprus no Greek bothered to think twice. Four Cypriots in five were Greek by race, tongue and religion, and called themselves Greek.

The Turkish section of the population was no less active to the Greekness of the island but it naturally drew opposite conclusions. The Turkish state also feared 'enosis' because Cyprus was only forty miles away from the southern Turkey. The Turkish Governments showed, however little inclination to intervene in Cypriot affairs until encouraged to do so by Britain. In 1954 Makarios went to Athens to try to get the Greek government to raise the Cypriot question at the UNO. The British Prime Minister, Sir Anthony Eden told that no discussion was possible; a junior British minister with a lamentable sense of history declared that Cyprus would never be fully independent; and the colonial secretary affronted the Greek government by advancing as an extra reason for the maintenance of British rule the argument that Greek was too unable to be allowed safely to extend its sway to Cyprus.

The Greek government then raised the question of self determination for Cyprus at the UN but half-heartedly and without pressing the case, which was shelved. The egotists, disappointed by this effort, reverted to the local scene and organised demonstrations which evoked an excessive British counter reaction including measures against school children. In 1955 Eden and his Foreign Secretary Harold Macmillan decided to fortify the British opposition in Cyprus by bringing the Turkish government officially into the matter. The Greek and Turkish governments were invited to a conference in London. The result was the collapse of the Greco-Turkish alliance. In Cyprus the governor and the archbishop met for the first time. At the end of the year the governor was replaced by Sir John Harding, a field-marshal and a former chief of the Imperial General staff. The Harding-

Makarios negotiations were proceeding early in 1956 towards a promising conclusion when the British government intervened and decreed the deportation of the archbishop to the Seychelles.

But Makarios was released in the following year, much to the annoyance of the Turks and without any compensating advantage since the archbishop refused to return to Cyprus and took up residence in Athens. The British attempt to quell the insurrection, in the meantime was equally unsuccessful. This revolt was led by Colonel Georgios Grivas of the Greek army, a Cypriot by birth. Grivas took the view that his compatriots had paid for self-determination with their blood and when he saw that the British view was different he set about shedding more blood. He decided according to his own account, to resort to violence in 1951. He launched his revolt in April 1955, survived a drive against him at the time of Makarios's deportation in March 1956 and immediately struck back. His main weapons were bush craft, discipline and terrorism. He provoked the British into retaliatory measures which failed. He defeated the policy which Harding had been sent to implement. Later in the year while Makarios was in the Seychelles and the Harding-Grivas duel was taking place, the first Greco-Turkish riots also occurred and the British government began, although unintentionally to transfer the initiative from London to Ankara and Athens. During 1956 Eden produced a plan by which Cyprus would be allowed self determination after ten years of self-government. The Turkish government rejected the plan. Later in the same year new constitutional proposals, elaborated by an eminent British judge, Lord Radcliffe, were submitted to the Turkish and Greek governments. The Radcliffe plan rejected selfdetermination and mentioned partition. It was this time rejected by the Greeks, while Turkey was emboldened to suggest that either half of Cyprus or the whole of it should be annexed to Turkey.

3.5 Summary

- 1. The three guarantors- Greece, Turkey and Britain met at Geneva. Turkey's attitude was threatening but realistic : either there must be a new constitution acceptable to Turkey or Cyprus would remain de facto partitioned.
- 2. The constitution proposed was a loose confederation not far short of independence. The talks were broken off. The Turks attacked again, occupied 40 percent of the island in two days and turned 200,000 Greeks into homeless refugees.
- 3. The American ambassador in Nicosia was murdered by Greeks. The British too were criticized violently in Cyprus and in Greece for not doing more as a guarantor to restore peace in Cyprus.
- 4. Makarios returned at the end of year, 1974. Cyprus was in effect partitioned but nobody was prepared to say so and its affairs were therefore back to inter-community talks, hampered by the emotions of war, charges and counter-charges of atrocities, the plight of refugees, economic disruption and the unreality of any attempt to restore the integrity and independence of Cyprus with a Turkish army in control of a large part of it.

5. Makarios, who died in 1977, was succeeded by Spyros Kyprianou. The UN had dispatched its peace-keeping force in Cyprus in 1974 to prevent fighting between the Greeks and the Turks.

3.6 Key Terms

- De facto discrimination / de facto equality: Latin for "in fact," used as "actually" to show where discrimination in reality but not as a matter of law.
- Affirmative action: action taken by government or private businesses to make up for past discrimination in, for example, education and work against
- This principle, as first emphasized in the Universal Declaration on Human Rights in 1948, has been reiterated in numerous international human rights
- Admissibility, The principles determining whether or not particular items of evidence may be received by the court.

3.7 Self Assessment Questions

- 1. How often does the United Nations General Assembly meet?
- 2. What is the role of the Secretary-General in the United Nations?
- 3. What is the Security Council, and how many permanent members does it have?
- 4. What is the United Nations' stance on the use of force in international relations?
- 5. Who are the key stakeholders involved in human rights education, and what are their respective roles?

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<u>UNIT-04</u> <u>ROLE OF UNO IN THE CRISIS OF KASHMIR, CONGO,</u> <u>CYPRUS AND KOREA</u>

STRUCTURE

- 4.1 Learning Objectives
- 4.2 Introduction
- 4.3 Role of UNO in the Kashmir Crisis
- 4.4 Role of UNO in Congo
- 4.5 Role of UNO in Cyprus
- 4.6 Role of UNO in Korea
- 4.7 Summary
- 4.8 Key Terms
- 4.9 Self Assessment Questions
- 4.10 Further Readings

4.1 Learning Objectives

- Describe the historical context that led to the establishment of the UNO.
- Analyze the role of key figures such as Franklin D. Roosevelt and Winston Churchill in the creation of the UNO.
- Analyze the role of the UNO in promoting human rights, including the adoption and implementation of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights.
- Analyze past efforts to reform the UNO, such as initiatives to reform the Security Council or streamline bureaucratic processes.

4.2 Introduction

The Greeks thoroughly alarmed, threatened to leave the western camp. In 1957 General Dismay, the Secretary-General of NATO, offered to mediate, but although the Turks were willing the Greeks were not. The Turks believed that a majority of the members of NATO were sympathetic to Turkey; the Greeks believed that their cause would prevail in the UN but not in NATO. There was deadlock internationally and continuing disorder and murder locally. The government of Harold Macmillan reviewed Eden's Cyprus policy and decided that Britain no longer needed to be sovereign in the whole of Cyprus. He realized that sovereign bases would do and the Greek and Turkish governments must be brought to accept independence for the rest of the island. For Turkey independence was acceptable since it automatically excluded enosis. Upon Greece independence might be forced, since Greece abominated partition and was afraid that in the absence of a settlement Greeks in Istanbul and other parts of Turkey would be stripped of their property and either killed or expelled.

4.3 Role of UNO in the Kashmir Crisis

In December 1957 Harding was replaced by Sir Hugh Foot who produced a new plan: self-government as a colony for a period followed by self-determination with the provision that enosis would need Turkish approval. The mention of enosis was too much for the Turks and demonstrations were organised in Ankara. The Foot plan disappeared. It was succeeded by the Macmillan plan which was a further step away from undiluted British rule. Macmillan proposed to introduce representatives of the Greek and Turkish governments alongside the British governor and to create a mixed cabinet and separate Greek Cypriot and Turkish Cypriot local administrations. The last provision was unacceptable both to Makarios and to the Greek Prime minister, Constantine Karamanlis. Their rejection of it led to fresh riots in Cyprus. The spreading communal hatred shocked and alarmed the Greek and Turkish governments into an accord. After exploratory contacts at the UN and NATO between their foreign ministers they conferred together in Zurich in February 1959 and announced that they had agreed that Cyprus should be independent. Britain would be accorded sovereign rights in certain areas which would be British military bases. The new state would have a Greek President, a Turkish Vice-President with a veto in certain matters, and a cabinet of seven Greeks and three Turks; this 7-3 proportion would be repeated right down the administrative ladder. The Greek and Turkish states would station small armies of 950 and 600 men respectively in Cyprus. The scheme was accepted with reluctance by Makarios, who declared it unworkable. He was threatened and on 1 March 1959 he returned to Cyprus. Grivas, infuriated by the politicians' betrayal of the cause of enosis, was set back to Athens. Instead of driving the British out and making Cyprus part of Greece, his campaign had ended with the British still in possession of sovereign bases and Cyprus still not part of the Greek Kingdom. Cyprus became independent in August 1960, a member of the UNO in September 1960 and a member of the Commonwealth in 1961. The issue of Cyprus first came before the UN in 1955 when Greece insisted that the island be transferred to her. Greece made every possible effort to place the question of Cyprus on the agenda of the General Assembly, but she did not succeed.

On the other hand, the Britishers made the plea that they were trying their best to afford to the people of the Cyprus the self-government. Ultimately the issue came before the session of the General Assembly and it adopted a resolution calling for continued negotiations. The island got independence in 1960, but in view of the complex character of the population of the island, a number of safeguards were introduced. Three states- Greece, Turkey and Britain were given specific responsibility for the maintenance of tranquility and internal peace. The USSR cordially welcomed the proclamation of the independence of Cyprus following a selfless struggle of the island's population against the British colonial rule. However, the Russians deployed over Cyprus forced acceptance of the Zurich agreement which substantially limited the Cyprus Government's rights by giving Britain, Greece and Turkey, some reserved right to interfere in the new republic's internal affairs. Towards the December 1963 the tensions between the Greek and the Turkish Cypriots burst out in the shape of riots which posed a serious threat to the world peace and created a confrontation between Greece and Turkey, the two NATO allies. Efforts were made to resolve the deadlock and in 1964, the representatives of Greece, Turkey, Cyprus and the United Kingdom met in London.

4.4 Role of UNO in Congo

But the conference could bring no viable solution. On March 4, 1964 at the request of Congo and United Kingdom, the Security Council took initiatives and recommended the resolution of establishing a peace-keeping force and appointing a mediator. However, mindful of the Congo experience the Council suggested that all the costs be met by the states. In April the UN Force in Congo (UNFICYP) was constituted under an Indian General Gianni and subsequently under his compatriot General Thimayya and after his death in 1966, this was led under the Finnish General A. E. Martola. This force gradually asserted control, but due to its limited members and limited authority, the UNFICYP was unable to stop the fighting or to disarm the irregular forces. Two UN mediators tried but failed, where upon the Turkish and Greek governments insisted on assuming the role but did very little about it. Year after year, and twice in each year, the mandate of the peacekeeping force was renewed by the UN who feared the consequences of saving money by removing it. Talks between the two communities were started and stopped more than once. A further complication developed in Cyprus when the General Grivas, leader of the Greek Cypriots returning to Nicosia in 1971 and his staunch advocacy of enosis brought him into the conflict with the President Makarios, who was regarded as a troublesome red priest combining the Presidential and archiepiscopal offices within his own hand. However, he was once again re-elected to the presidential office without opposition in 1973. In July 15, 1974, Makarios was attacked in his palace by the National Guard and action military junta. He escaped in a helicopter with British help and was flown to England. The insurgents proclaimed Nikos Samson as the next President, a choice as unwise as it was unsuitable as Samson had been a notorious gunman and had to resign at the end of a week. Consequently Turkey invaded Cyprus five days after the coup against Makarios. A ceasefire was imposed two days later and the next day the junta in Athens collapsed.

The three guarantors- Greece, Turkey and Britain met at Geneva. Turkey's attitude was threatening but realistic : either there must be a new constitution acceptable to Turkey or Cyprus would remain de facto partitioned. The constitution proposed was a loose confederation not far short of independence. The talks were broken off. The Turks attacked again, occupied 40 percent of the

island in two days and turned 200,000 Greeks into homeless refugees. The American ambassador in Nicosia was murdered by Greeks. The British too were criticized violently in Cyprus and in Greece for not doing more as a guarantor to restore peace in Cyprus. Makarios returned at the end of year, 1974. Cyprus was in effect partitioned but nobody was prepared to say so and its affairs were therefore back to inter-community talks, hampered by the emotions of war, charges and counter-charges of atrocities, the plight of refugees, economic disruption and the unreality of any attempt to restore the integrity and independence of Cyprus with a Turkish army in control of a large part of it. Makarios, who died in 1977, was succeeded by Spyros Kyprianou. The UN had dispatched its peace-keeping force in Cyprus in 1974 to prevent fighting between the Greeks and the Turks.

Check your Progress

1. Engage in debates and discussions regarding the role and effectiveness of the UNO in the international community.

4.5 Role of UNO in Cyprus

The force consisted of 2,348 troops and civilian police from Australia, Britain, Canada, Denmark, Finland, Ireland and Sweden. The UN committed itself to full support for sovereignty, independence, territorial integrity, unity and nonalignment of Cyprus. The 1979 General Assembly called for cessation of all foreign interference in its affairs. On November 20, 1979 it supported the ten-point agreement of May 19, 1979 concluded under the auspices of the UN Secretary General and demanded immediate implementation of UN resolutions. On November 15, 1983 the Turkish Cypriots declared their sector of the divided island independent (UDI) and rename it as " the Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus". Cyprus, as stated earlier, had been divided between Greek and Turkish sectors since, 1975. The Turkish troops had invaded and occupied the northern part of the island on July 20, 1974 after a Greek Cypriot coup that toppled the government of Makarios. On February 13, 1975, the Turkish Cypriot Federated state was proclaimed. But its new President,

Denktash had said that he would not seek international recognition of the entity. For ten years (1975-85) the two communities have held intermittent talks under the UN auspices to try to work out a settlement through a new constitution. On November 18, 1983 the UN Security Council condemned the Unilateral Declaration of Independence (UDI) and declared the self-styled Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus as "legally invalid" and called for its withdrawal.

While the Greeks welcomed the Security Council resolution, the Turks condemned it. On December 15, 1983 the Council extended the period of UNFICYP stationing upto June 15, 1984. Early in May 1984, Turkey and the so-called Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus exchanged ambassadors. The President of Cyprus, Spyros Kyprianou moved the Security Council again. On May 11, 1984 the Council in a resolution condemned all secessionist actions and declared the aforesaid exchanges of ambassadors as illegal and called for their immediate withdrawal. India took the stand that while the legitimate right of the Turkish Cypriots must be respected, the UDI and the exchange of ambassadors was unacceptable. The role of the UN in Cyprus has, therefore, been one of mediation between two warring communities. The trouble however, continued. Kyprianou lost his bid for a third term in 1988 to an independent candidate, George Vassiliou. He in turn lost by a narrow margin in 1993 to Clerides, a rightist, who was re-elected in 1998. At first Clerides showed no willingness to deal with the Turkish Cypriot leader Denktash, but the two eventually met in New York City under UN auspices. The government of the Republic of Cyprus (composed solely of Greek Cypriots) began applying for membership to the European Union (EU) in 1990, though its admittance was repeatedly blocked by Turkey and its supporters. In late 2002 the European Union (EU) offered Cyprus membership in its organization on the condition that reunification talks conclude by March 2003 (barring reunification, membership would go to the Greek Cypriot portion of the country only).

4.6 Role of UNO in Korea

While the world focused high hope on UNO, the UNO became a mere spectator and in various crises it played only limited role. It was in case of the Korean crisis that the UNO exhibited a lukewarm effort and recorded failures. Though the Korean crisis started as a cold war, it escalated into a hot war later on and for the first time to implement the idea of collective security, the UNO used its armed intervention which was paradoxically contrary to UNO Charter. For the first time after Second World War it showed the dimension of a cold war that undermined the prestige of UNO to a degree. The history of Korea is like the history of any small country which finds itself wedged between more powerful neighbours. Korea is a peninsula which stretches into the sea from the South eastern corner of Manchuria until it nearly reaches the southern most of Japan's principal islands. For a thousand years it was ruled by two dynasties separated by a brief Mongol conquest. It suffered Japanese and Manchu incursions in the 16th and 17th centuries but survived until the end of the 19th, by which time it had become a pawn in Sino-Japanese-Russian conflicts. Japan's victories in the war

with China in 1894-95 and with Russia in 1904-05 gave Japan a free hand in Korea which was annexed in 1910. It failed in 1919 to recover its independence although a provisional government was established under the Presidency of Syngman Rhee, a Korean who had acquired a doctorate in philosophy at Princeton. While the Second World War was going on, the question of the future of Korea was discussed and at the war-time Cairo Declaration of 1943, the USA, China and Great Britain represented respectively by Roosevelt, Chiang Kai-shek and Churchill agreed that Korea, in due course, should become independent.

When the USSR entered the war, it also accepted the aforesaid provision and her entry to war hastened the Japanese militarism. As for military convenience it was decided that USSR should accept the military defeat of Japan in Korean north of the 38th parallel and USA should accept the defeat of Japanese forces in Korean south of 38th parallel. However, the very line, which was drawn for military convenience became a dividing line for Korea, an anathema for their unity and thus were created two Koreas, north and south under the Soviet and United States occupation respectively. The unification of Korea became a problem and presence of the superpowers on two sides of Korea escalated the confrontation and cold war. When therefore the war came to an end in 1945 there was no dispute over the status of Korea, but at the moment of independence an accident deprived it of unity.

4.7 Summary

- The institution of the United Nations is a manifestation of human dreams having come true after centuries. The human folly led to the flop of the League of Nations and the result ensured in the devastation and annihilation following the outbreak of Second World War.
- The United Nations represents the collective determination of the mankind for a better world free from the scourge of war and fear. The UN, in short, is a mirror which reflects the reality of global politics at a given moment of history.
- The UN was then galvanised into launching a variety of peace-keeping operations, ranging from observance of forces' withdrawal in Iran, Iraq, Afghanistan, and Angola, to supervising elections in Namibia, western Sahara, Central America and elsewhere.
- It was also involved in acts which a few years ago were unthinkable national reconciliation in Cambodia, monitoring human rights in El Salvador, providing humanitarian assistance to Kurds, and unearthing nuclear weapons projects in Iraq

- UNRWA United Nations Relief and Works Agency for Palestine
- UNU United Nations University
- WFP World Food Programme
- UNHCR United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees
- UN-Habitat United Nations Human Settlements Programme
- OCHA Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs
- ITC International Trade Centre

4.9 Self Assessment Questions

- 1. Evaluate the potential impact of emerging trends and geopolitical shifts on the future role and relevance of the UNO.
- 2. Evaluate primary and secondary sources to form well-reasoned arguments about the achievements and failures of the UNO.
- 3. Identify and describe significant achievements of the UNO in maintaining international peace and security, such as peacekeeping missions.
- 4. Describe the historical context that led to the establishment of the UNO.

Block-2: RISE OF BI-POLAR WORLD

- Unit-05 The Cold war: Background, Super Power Rivalry (1945-1980),
- Berlin Crisis, Cuban Crisis, Suez Crisis, Afghan Crisis.
- Unit-06 Problem of disarmaments: Disarmament

Conference (1948-1972), Salt-I, 1972, Salt-II, 1979, START

Unit-07 The United States and Western Europe:

Revival of Western Europe, Marshall Plan, Truman doctrine, and implications

Unit-08 De Gauiles France and Rift in NATO.

<u>Unit-05</u>

THE COLD WAR: BACKGROUND, SUPER POWER RIVALRY (1945-1980), BERLIN CRISIS, CUBAN CRISIS,SUEZ CRISIS, AFGHAN CRISIS

STRUCTURE

- 5.1 Learning Objectives
- 5.2 Introduction
- 5.3 The Cold War: Background
- 5.4 Super Power Rivalry(1945-1980)
- 5.5 Berlin Crisis
- 5.6 Cuban Crisis
- 5.7 Suez Crisis
- 5.8 Afghan Crisis
- 5.9 Summary
- 5.10 Key Terms
- 5.11 Self Assessment Questions
- 5.12 Further Readings

5.1 Learning Objectives

- Able to understand the ideological differences between the United States and the Soviet Union that contributed to the onset of the Cold War.
- Identify major Cold War conflicts, including the Korean War, the Cuban Missile Crisis, and the Vietnam War.
- To study the root causes of these crises, such as colonialism, ethnic conflicts, and economic instability.
- To read the role of leaders such as Stalin, Truman, and Churchill in shaping Cold War policies.

5.2 Introduction

The USA, to avert the communist threat, could mastermind the formation of the military bloc like NATO which escalated into the arsenal of military powers of the Western Europe. France had been a major European land power and a major imperial power but had failed in the contest with England for sea power. In the 20th century the awful sacrifices of the World War I and the hardly less awful humiliation of the World War II, separated by incapacity to face up to the problems of the economic crisis or to Hitler's challenge to basic values brought France low in its own eyes until the exploits of the Resistance and the leadership of De Gaulle revived and personified the French spirit. De Gaulle's identification of himself with France and his constant use of the first person singular were precisely what was needed to restore it the glory it once claimed. De Gaulle followed a policy of increasing noncooperation towards NATO and NATO allies causing irritation within the NATO. Once his proposal for creation of a tripartite organization consisting of USA, UK and France to take joint decision on global problem was discarded, he started disengaging France from the NATO and its obligations

5.3 The Cold War: Background

The Cold War was an open yet restricted rivalry that developed after World War II between the United States and the Soviet Union and their respective allies. This Super Power Rivalry was waged on political, economic, and propaganda fronts and had only limited recourse to weapons. While the United States believed in the modern sense of capitalism and democracy, the Soviet Union believed in the communist ideology; and each started having a host of satellite nations opposing each other's ideology, thereby challenging the oneness and bringing into effect mutual jealousy and distrust. This continued for almost four decades once the World War II came to an end. It was the disintegration of the USSR in 1991 which brought this rivalry to its logical end. The four important crises like the Berlin Crisis, the Cuban Crisis, the Suez Crisis and the Afghan Crisis which could have pushed the then world to the vortex of another global war with a slightest lapse on the part of the UNO and the world statesmen, could be strategically dealt.

The Super Powers with their "veto power" were ready to show off their potentialities independently in all such crises keeping the UNO a mute spectator. But things did not move the way they desired. The super powers stood at the loggerheads and with their ideological cleavage, abominable rat-race for world hegemony and mutual distrust they became the dreaded opponents of each other which dawned the era of cold war in the post-Second World War period. The super power rivalry kept the world under the grip of the Cold War and every one, with awe-wrapped suspense waited the moment of the world politics. The devastation and destruction and the wholesale genocide caused by the World War II had a therapeutic effect on the world statesmen and it propelled them to form the UNO to avert the disastrous world of the war holocaust looming on the world's horizon.

The introduction of "star war weapons" escalated the arms race to an unprecedented degree. Therefore, ever since the abominable rat-race for escalation of the sophisticated weapons, the peace loving humanity strove hard with the endless efforts to eliminate war by 'Disarmament'. Thus, the disarmament was thought to be an inevitable corollary to stop the world plunge into the vortex of a third world war. The Western Europe in the post-Second World War era was prone to the Russian dominance. The Western European nations were badly hit by the war continued for six years (1939-45). Their economies got ruined and politics shattered. While they were under the constant threat of aggression from the Soviet Union to turn them communist, the USA developed almost a different kind of attitude towards them.

Their only escape from these dangers was the American aid to enable them to restore their shattered economies and an American guarantee of their continued independence and integrity in the shape of a semipermanent American occupation. For the purpose, the USA undertook some offensive measures to counteract the expansion of Soviet communism in the form of the Truman Doctrine of 1947 and Marshall Plan of 1948. The extensive genocide and destruction of the World War II was probably at one time thought to be the end of mutual distrust and arms race. The peace loving humanity hence dreamt of the vision of a globe devoid of military alliances and warfare. But it was proved myopic. Soon appeared a polarized world with the regional alliances and organizations on fray and dragged the world into the cockpit of the cold war, the NATO being one of them.

• Origin of the Cold War

The date of origin of cold war differs with the opinions of different writers. Some scholars like Desmond Domelly and Frederick L. Schuman in their respective books Struggle for the World and The Cold War: Retrospect and Prospect, place the origin as far back as the Bolshevik Revolution in 1917. Evan Luard, editor of The Cold War: A Reappraisal dates the origin of it back to 1945 while Paul Seabury in his book The Rise and Decline of the Cold War holds that to "date its origin is to suggest its central meanings". The majority of authors treat the emergence of cold war as a post- Second World War phenomenon.

• Basis of the Cold War

The Cold War was based on a number of assumptions. (1) It assumed that the real threat to the world peace was posed by the military strength of Soviet Union. It may be noted that Soviet Union's military strength was virtually destroyed during World War II. This assumption gave rise to the policy of strength which was responsible for the development of military theory of cold war on the basis of atomic bomb, hydrogen bomb, and nuclear warfare. (2) It assumes the inevitability of conflict between the socialist and capitalist states, which prompted the states of both the blocs to keep themselves in condition of constant preparedness for a final show down. It assumes that no cooperation is possible between states with different social systems. It assumes that the struggle between the West and the East is a struggle between freedom and tyranny.

• Causes of Cold War

The main factors which contributed to the rise of cold war were as follows: Firstly, Soviet Union tried to increase its influence in Eastern Europe in violation of the terms of Yalta Agreement. Thus, Soviet Union established Lublin Government in Poland in violation of her commitment that the exiled Polish Government at London and the Soviet influenced Lublin Government would be duly represented in the future government of Poland. It also tried to liquidate the democratic parties and noncommunist population of Poland. In the Balkans also Soviet Union tried to establish communist governments despite an understanding with Britain regarding their spheres of influence in the Balkans. All this aroused suspicion in the western powers and they decided to check further expansion of Soviet influence. Secondly, Soviet Union refused to withdraw its forces from Iran and instigated a rebellion in Northern Ireland. Soviet Union also compelled Iran to sign a treaty on 4 April, 1946 which recognised Soviet interest over oil resources of North Ireland for 25 years.

5.4Super Power Rivalry(1945-1980)

The emergence of a bipolar world and the beginning of the cold war both coincided. The cold war which is said to have started with the Berlin blockade by the Soviet Union became a constant theme in international relations. The next major crisis erupted with the beginning of Korean War in 1950. This is important because of the original conflict which continued between North Korea with a socialist ideology and

South Korea with a capitalist ideology. China and the United States took opposite sides in this conflict. The problem was finally sorted out with the help of the United Nations even though the Americans did not permit Communist China to assume its membership of the United Nations. The pre Revolutionary government of China under Chiang Kai-shek was recognized by America and her allies as a member of the UN.

The People's Republic of China was excluded. The important point to note is that a very bloody and wasteful war was finally brought to an end through the diplomatic efforts of not only the Five parties concerned directly or indirectly, that is, North Korea, South Korea, China , the United States and the Soviet Union, but also by the participation of neutral countries like India. The United States was directly involved merely because the Soviet Union had walked out of the World body before the conflict began in 1950. It was easy, therefore, for the Americans to dispatch a so-called UN force in Korea.

5.5 Berlin Crisis

The collaboration of USSR with the Allied powers sang the swansong of the Japanese militarism and Hitlerism Fascism. While the atom bombs were dropped in Hiroshima and Nagasaki, the world cherished the hope that it would get rid of the tentacles of war and imperialism once for all. But to the disillusionment of the peace loving humanity, the world emerged from the trauma of the World War II only to witness the venomous cold war and the vision for peace proved to be myopic. While on one hand, the Americans were the archadversaries of the Russians and were determined to thrash the communist expansion and spread their Pax-American concept either through the Truman Doctrine or the Marshall Plan, on the other hand, Russia stood as the torchbearer of Marxism, Leninism and with a motto of its principle which assumed the form of world communism. The super powers stood at the loggerheads and with their ideological cleavage, abominable ratrace for world hegemony and mutual distrust they became the dreaded opponents of each other which dawned

the era of cold war in the post-Second World War period.

The super power rivalry kept the world under the grip of the Cold War and every one, with awewrapped suspense waited the moment of the world politics. Whether it was the Berlin crisis, or Indo-China or Cuban missile crisis or Congo crisis or the Middle-East or Far East, there spread a vast blanket of cold war spearheaded by the super power rivalry. However, the germs of the cold war were incubated in the question of Berlin crisis which became a haunting nightmare for humanity due to the power rivalry and highhandedness of two super powers of the world politics. Neither of the super powers exhibited a compromising tendency in the post war era which intensified the tempo of crisis and confrontation, making it a perpetual scenario. In the Yalta conference of 1946, the Allied powers agreed to the idea of dividing Germany into four zones to be occupied and administered by USA, USSR, France and Britain respectively.

The commission was to follow a joint policy to the four zones of Germany. But it became apparently transparent that the unanimity of following a unanimous policy was a chimera. Soviet Union proposed the establishment of a four-power control over Ruhr, nationalization of all trust properties of Germany and introduction of foreign trade. These suggestions were not at all acceptable to Western powers and thus, the right became a foregone conclusion. In 1947 Britain, USA and France brought the political and economic integration of the Western Europe and it was at the same time, the Marshall Plan was pronounced which promised the economic help to the Western Europe.

5.5 The Cuban Crisis The

Cuban crisis was the crisis-point of the Cold War. It was the time when the world came nearest to annihilating itself. It was the closest the world ever came to nuclear war. The United States armed forces were at their highest state of readiness ever and Soviet field commanders in Cuba were prepared to use battlefield nuclear weapons to defend the island if it was invaded. Luckily, thanks to the bravery of two men, President John F. Kennedy and Premier Nikita Khrushchev, war was averted. Cuba, the "Pearl of the Antilles" and the largest island in Latin America, was a Spanish colony till it gained nominal independence after Spain was defeated by the USA in the Spanish-American war of 1897-98. It remained a virtual protectorate and an economic colony of the U.S.A. and was ruled over by brutal dictators till 1st January 1959, when the last of them, Fulgencio Batista, a protégé of USA was driven out of the island after a protracted and heroic struggle led by Fidel Castro. After establishing himself in power in 1959, Castro organized the administration and economy of the state on the communist lines and cultivated close relations with USSR.

This was very threatening to the USA because it was right next to America. In 1960, Castro made a trade agreement with Russia, whereby Cuba sent sugar to Russia, in return for oil, machines and money. This frightened the Americans more, and in 1960 they stopped trading with Cuba. In retaliation, Cuba nationalized all American-owned companies. In 1961 Fidel Castro declared that "The urban revolution has broken the chaos of imperialist oppression in Latin America and has led to the establishment of the first socialist state in the

American continent, marking a historic turning point and opening in this region a new phase of Revolutionary movement". This was in reality, in striking difference to USA's policy of "America for Americans" which had virtually adopted the policy of "Hands off" for Western powers and had placed the Latin America under the sway of "holder of big sticks".

In 1960, the USA cut the Cuban sugar purchase quota by 95 percent and placed an embargo on the sale of the industrial equipment and other items to Cuba. This put Cuba in extremely difficult position. Diplomatic and trade relations with Soviet could help them to withstand the USA's economic pressure. Having promised in May 1960 to defend Cuba with Soviet arms, the Soviet premier Nikita Khrushchev assumed that the United States would take no steps to prevent the installation of Soviet medium- and intermediate-range ballistic missiles in Cuba. Such missiles could hit much of the eastern United States within a few minutes if launched from Cuba. On April 17, 1961 Cuba was practically attacked by armed interventionists, who were given cover by the US warships and aircrafts. However, it failed, but the US President Kennedy's administration never wanted to make Cuba a U.S.S.R'S satellite.

5.6 The Suez Crisis

In 1954 Nasser compelled Britain to conclude an agreement relating to the evolution of the Suez Canal. But ill feelings between the two grew very strong. Meanwhile, the Baghdad Pact was signed. Nasser looked upon his pact as a sort of western challenge to the Egyptian leadership in the Middle East. At the same time, Egypt had the fear of Israel. Under such circumstances Nasser procured armaments from Czechoslovakia and Soviet Russia. Consequently, the British and the US interests in the Middle East were threatened. The negotiations which the United States had with Egypt over the construction of the Aswan Dam closed down abruptly. The material progress of Egypt depended largely upon the Aswan Dam. But in the face of the Anglo-French opposition Egypt gave up her hope of securing foreign loans.

On September 23, 1956, Britain and France urged to the Security Council which discussed the matter in nine meetings on October 13, 1956. It adopted six principles to which Egypt agreed as the base of negotiations. Passage and shipping through this canal should be free and open,

- Subject to no political and technical discrimination; Egypt's sovereignty should be respected;
- Operation of canal should be insulated from politics of all countries;
- Egypt's users were to fix polls and charges by arrangements;
- Fair proportion of the bill was to be set aside for the development of the canal;

and disputes between old Suez Company and Egypt should be settled by negotiation or arbitration.

Tedious and prolonged negotiations followed the next months. All ended in fiasco, foundering on the rock of Egypt's unwillingness to agree to any form of international administration of the canal. Britain and France pushed ahead with the military preparation but the first military action was launched by Israel. As Israel forces started heading towards the canal, the British and France gave an ultimatum to Israel and Egypt to cease fighting within twelve hours and withdraw all troops within ten miles radius of the canal. The Anglo - French

forces were to occupy Port Said, Ismailia and Suez temporarily. Egypt rejected the ultimatum and the Anglo-French air attacks on military targets began on October 31, 1956 as a prelude to landings. Meanwhile, the ceasefire resolutions in the UN Security Council were deadlocked.

The General Assembly acting under the "uniting for peace" resolution, met at a special emergency session from November 1 to 10, 1956. It called for a ceasefire. The idea of an "emergency force", United Nations Emergency Force (UNEF) was proposed by Lester Pearson of Canada as it quickly became conspicuous that the US was not willing to back the Anglo-French action. Meanwhile Soviets were preparing to send volunteers to aid Egypt, and talking of bombing and ravaging London and Paris by rocket-missiles. On November 5 and 6, British and French forces landed at Port Said and Port Fuad and began occupying the Canal Zone. This move was soon met by growing opposition at home and by U.S.-sponsored resolutions in the UN (made in part to counter Soviet threats of intervention), which quickly put a stop to the Anglo-French action.

The Anglo French action was exploited based upon the protection of the canal and there was obviously no mention to retain Egyptian territory. Given the Soviet threat, the situation was potentially capable of escalation to an unprecedented degree. However, once the UN decided to intervene to settle the dispute, situations at the international level could be brought to control. With the UN supervision, an arrangement was reached under which Egypt agreed to allow free passage of the ships in the canal and compensated the stock holders of the canal company.

5.8 The Afghan Crisis

Among all the cold war crises of the post-Second World War era, the Afghan crisis assumed an alarming and frail proportion. No crisis of the decade evoked so much varied opinions, yet so much excuse, like the crisis of Afghanistan. No doubt the cold war and crises went on in Cuba, Nicaragua, El Salvador, West Asia especially Palestine, Indian Ocean and in the South East Asia. But the Afghan crisis of South West Asia, considering from the national, international and regional perspectives, took the dimension of a hot war. If Russia made her plea that she had sent troops to Afghanistan only to fulfill the treaty obligations, the USA viewed it as a blatant violation of international law and dubbed it as a naked aggression. As a protest, USA supplied sophisticated armaments to Pakistan, the neighboring state of Afghanistan and therefore, USA's imperialism and neo-colonialism became an admitted fact so far as the Afghan crisis was concerned.

To a great aghast, April 14, 1988 ushered in a unique historic day in the Asian sub-continent when Pakistan and Afghanistan, at loggerheads for several years, at last signed an agreement with the collaboration of the USA, UN and Russia and hoped to bring about peace over the crisis-stricken Afghanistan. Afghanistan is very much a strategic prize in the South- west Asia. However, the beginning of the present troubled phase in the history of Afghanistan could be traced back to July 17, 1973 when Zahir Shah, the last king of the country was deposed and the responsibility for running the country was taken over by General Muhammed Daud as the president of a republican regime. A special Loya Jirgah (Grand Assembly) approved a new constitution according to which Daud was elected as president of the Republic for six years. But with the crackdown of his

political opponents he lost popularity.

5.9 Summary	
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- Within a short time, the new regime came up against opposition from tribal and religious groups. On top of that, it got involved in a power struggle between two of its factions Khalq and Parcham.
- The turbulence in the country also began to attract the attention of the USA through its surrogate Pakistan.
- But Taraki strove hard to build up a strong state and his foreign policy was based on the principles of non-alignment, opposing imperialism, colonialism, Zionism, racialism and apartheid.
- Soviet Union firmly stood for the cooperation with Afghanistan. In December 1978 Taraki paid an official visit to USSR and on December 5, 1978 a treaty of friendship and good neighborhood between the USSR and People's Democratic Party of Afghanistan (PDPA) was signed.

5.10 Key Terms

- **Containment**-A US foreign policy doctrine that argued that the Soviet Union needed to be "contained" to prevent the spread of Communism throughout the world.
- NATO- North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO) An organization formed in 1949 that bound the United States, Canada, most of Western Europe.
- Arms race- Massive military build-up, especially of nuclear weapons, by both the Soviet Union and the United States in an effort to gain military superiority.
- Marshall Plan- A plan devised by President Harry S Truman and Secretary of State George C. Marshall that committed over \$10 billion to rebuilding Western.

5.11 Self Assessment Questions

- 1. Evaluate the role of external factors, including superpowers and regional powers, in exacerbating or mitigating these crises.
- 2. Assess the role of proxy wars and covert operations in perpetuating Cold War tensions and conflicts.
- 3. Identify major Cold War conflicts, including the Korean War, the Cuban Missile Crisis, and the Vietnam War.
- 4. Analyze historical narratives and interpretations of Cold War events and crises from different perspectives.

5.12 Further Readings

- Burckhardt, Jacob. The Civilization of the Renaissance in Italy, New Delhi, 2001.
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<u>Unit-06</u>

PROBLEM OF DISARMAMENTS: DISARMAMENT CONFERENCE (1948-1972), SALT-I 1972, SALT-II 1979, START

STRUCTURE

- 6.1 Learning Objectives
- 6.2 Introduction
- 6.3 Problem of Disarmaments
- 6.4 Salt-I
- 6.5 Salt-II
- 6.6 START
- 6.7 Summary
- 6.8 Key Terms
- 6.9 Self Assessment Questions
- 6.10 Further Readings

6.1 Learning Objectives

• To understand the concept of disarmament: Students should grasp the meaning of disarmament,

including its various forms such as nuclear disarmament, conventional disarmament, and disarmament of weapons of mass destruction.

- To analyzing the reasons for disarmament: Students should explore the historical, political, economic, and ethical reasons behind efforts to achieve disarmament. This may involve examining issues such as arms races, proliferation of weapons, peace building, and global security concerns.
- Fostering values of peace, cooperation, and diplomacy: Studying disarmament can help students develop an appreciation for the importance of peace, cooperation, and diplomacy in resolving conflicts and promoting international security.

6.2 Introduction

The Second World War inserted the last nail in the coffin of the League of Nations, plunging the mankind into the worst catastrophe of humanism. The devastation and destruction and the wholesale genocide caused by the World War II had a therapeutic effect on the world statesmen and it propelled them to form the UNO to avert the disastrous world of the war holocaust looming on the world's horizon. But the prophets of peace were betrayed and belied of their hopes for peaceful coexistence because once again, the world began to oscillate between the two conflicting poles, peace and war. On one side, there gleamed the distant beacon of hope for peace while on the other hand, the dark cloud of war hovered over the horizon. No one ever predicted the future of mankind whether it was to survive or get extinct in a "thermo nuclear" or a "star war".

6.3 Problem of Disarmaments

The introduction of "star war weapons" escalated the arms race to an unprecedented degree. The peace loving humanity of the world lived in a perpetual phobia of the world war, third. "The third world war" as said by Bertrand Russell, "if at all breaks out, would be a thermo-nuclear war that might cease the very existence of human life from earth". Moreover, Gerald Wendt opined, "If World War III comes, which we pray will never happen, it will be a war in which most people may die from silent, insidious anti-human weapons that make no sound, give as warning, destroy no forests or ships of cities but can wipeout human beings by millions." Therefore, ever since the abominable rat-race for escalation of the sophisticated weapons, the peace loving humanity also strove with the endless efforts to eliminate war by "Disarmaments".

If the war -mongering chauvinists gave the slogan, "if you want war, be prepared for war", the champions of peace with their programs of disarmament and arms control gave the slogan "if you want peace, be prepared for peace". Thus, the disarmament and the mad race for arms had two long histories and the disarmament was only an inevitable corollary of the escalation of the arsenals of the nuclear weapons. However, with the escalation of the arm race the "Disarmament" itself became a problem and rightly from Willy Brandt's Ostpolitik to SALT, the disarmament conferences had been in pen and paper producing war ridden and the volatile globe, the disarmament seemed to be the only way. The history of disarmament dates back to 1816 when the Czar of Russia outlined a proposal to the British government to reduce all types of armed forces. However, the vociferous demand for disarmament was once again expressed by the czar of

Russia at the Peace Conference of Hague in 1899.

The Second Peace Conference of Hague in 1907, the treaty of Versailles, the League of Nations, the Washington Conference of 1921-22, the Geneva Naval Conference of 1927, the London Naval conference of 1930, the Atlantic Charter of 1944, all these highlighted to the reduction of armament, which was deemed to be the indispensable bedrock of peaceful co-existence. However, after the termination of the Second World War, the peace loving humanity of the world evinced great hopes and enthusiasm about general disarmament. In the optimistic moods of the post-war era, the powers argued on the basic principles of the disarmament. The hope for peace and disarmament was very much crystallized in the United Nations' Charter, signed on the June 26, 1946.

The Charter made United Nations action on disarmament, the responsibility of two separate bodies, the General Assembly and the Security Council. Soon after the signing of the Charter at San Francisco, the explosion of the atomic bomb over Hiroshima on August 6, 1945, brought to the fore the entire problem of the regulation of armaments. The first move to implement the disarmament provisions of the Charter came on November 15, 1945 when the United Kingdom, Canada and the United States issued a declaration (known as the Truman-Attlee King declaration) proposing the establishment of a United Nations Commission to deal with the international control of the atomic energy. The Security Council and the General Assembly were vested with powers to make provisions and armaments for the disarmament programs.

• Disarmament Conferences (1946-1972)

Disarmament has become a more urgent and complicated issue with the rapid development of nuclear weapons capable of mass destruction. Since the explosion of the first atomic bombs in 1945, the previous contention that armaments races were economically inexpedient and led inevitably to war was replaced by the argument that the future use of nuclear weapons in quantity threatened the continued existence of civilization itself. During the post-World War II period, there were discussions at several levels with a view to the limitation and control of armaments. Efforts ranged from continuous talks at the United Nations to such discussions among nuclear powers as the Strategic Arms Limitation Talks (SALT) of the 1970s and the Strategic Arms Reduction Talks (START) of the 1980s. Atomic Energy Commission (1946) Soon after the adoption of the UN Charter the Atom Bomb was exploded on Hiroshima and Nagasaki in Japan in August 1945.

Check your Progress
What do you understand the concept of disarmament? Explain its various forms such as nuclear disarmament

The untold suffering caused by the bombardment of these two towns of Japan led to a widespread demand for devising a system of control to prevent the use of atomic energy for destructive purposes, and use for humanitarian and peaceful purposes. Accordingly, on January 26, 1946 the General Assembly decided to set up an Atomic Energy Commission consisting of all the permanent members of the Security Council and Canada. The commission was expected to enquire in to all aspects of the problem and make recommendations with specific proposals for: Extending between all nations the exchange of basic scientific information for peaceful ends; Control of atomic energy to the extent necessary to ensure its use only for peaceful purposes; The elimination from national armaments of atomic weapons and of all other major weapons adoptable to mass destruction; and Effective safeguards by way of inspection and other means to protect complying states against the hazards of violations and evasions.

6.4 Strategic Arms Limitation Treaty (SALT) - I (1972)

In order to achieve the objective of disarmament attention was also paid to the limitation of the strategic arms. The two Super Powers - USA and USSR held prolonged negotiations at Geneva and finally agreed to meet at Helsinki. This was indeed a significant step in the direction of disarmament because the two powers agreed in principle to restrain and put a stop to the fierce competition for the acquisition of sophisticated weapons. Though the talks did not prove fruitful, they indicated the willingness of the two Super Powers to reduce armaments and other hazards without jeopardizing their security and prestige. The negotiations continued for nearly four years before the conclusion of Strategic Arms Limitation Treaty of 1972.

It is said that the two countries held as many as 127 plenary meetings before the conclusion of the above treaty. The SALT-I was formally signed on 26 May 1972 to curb the race in nuclear arms between the two super powers. In fact, the agreement broadly consisted of two separate treaties viz. Treaty on the Limitation of Anti-Ballistic Missile System and the Interim Agreement on certain Measures with respect to the limitation of the strategic offensive arms. While the former was concluded for an unlimited period, the later was of five year duration. The Anti-Ballistic Missile System Treaty permitted the two super powers to have only two sites for ballistic missile defenses, one for the protection of their national capital area and the other for the protection of the field of Inter-Continental Ballistic Missiles (ICBMs). The treaty also laid down details regarding the dimensions of the Anti-Ballistic Missile (ABM) system the two countries were to have. Each system was to have not more than six ABM launchers and 100 ABM interrupter missiles at launching sites.

The national capital area was not to have more than ABM radar complexes, each with a diameter not executing three kilometers. The complex around the Missile launching region was not have more than 18 ABM radars and two large-phased ABM radars. The two powers also agreed not to develop, test or deploy ABM launchers which could launch more than one interceptor missile at a time. The treaty also prohibited the testing

and development of automatic, semiautomatic or other similar systems for rapid reloading of ABM launchers. The two powers were permitted to modernize their ABM systems through replacement, but this was to be done strictly within the quantitative ceiling provided under the treaty. The Interim Agreement with regard to the limitation of the strategic offensive arms was a very complex agreement. It covered both land-based ICBMs and submarine launched ballistic missiles. The strength of ICBMs for Soviet Union and USA was fixed at 1618 and 1054 respectively. On the basis of their actual strengths on 1 July, 1971 the two powers undertook not to convert their land based launches into light ICBMs.

6.5 SALT II (1979)

The SALT I signed by USA and USSR lapsed in October 1977. Both the powers continued to observe its provisions and continued efforts for a new agreement. After prolonged negotiations they signed at Vienna on June 1, 1979 the SALT II treaty to limit the strategic offensive weapons for period up to 31 December 1985. While concluding this treaty both the powers reaffirmed their desire to take further measure for further limitations and reduction of strategic arms with a view to achieving general and complete disarmament. As this agreement was in the nature of a treaty, it was sent to the US Senate for ratification as required under the constitution. But before the senate could ratify the same the cordial atmosphere was disturbed by the Soviet intervention in Afghanistan which jeopardized the ratification of SALT II. An analysis of the various efforts made so far to control the arms race shows two basic features. First, priority was given to partial measures aimed at preventing the arms race from moving into certain new direction; and second, an emphasis was laid on detente, on the assumption that relieving suspicion and fear would not only diminish the risk of war but would also remove one of the main factors fueling the arms race.

The important steps in the first direction include conclusion of a number of agreements like, Treaty Banning Nuclear Weapons Test in the atmosphere in outer space and underwater; the Treaty on Principles governing the activities of states in the Exploration and use of outer space including the Moon and other celestial Bodies; the Treaty on Non- prohibition of nuclear weapons; the Treaty on the Prohibition of the Emplacement of nuclear weapons and other weapons of Mass Destruction on the sea-bed and ocean-floor and in subject thereof; the convention on the prohibition of the development, production and stockpiling of Bacteriological and Toxin weapons and on their Destruction; the Soviet-American Agreement on the limitation of strategic Arms etc.

6.6 Strategic Arms Reduction Treaty (START)

On July 31, 1991, President Mikhail Gorbachev and George Bush signed the historic Strategic Arms Reduction Treaty (START) to reduce their strategic nuclear arsenals by about 30 percent and hailed it as a signal dispelling five decades of mutual mistrust. This treaty was the result of nearly a decade's efforts and it effected the first real cuts in longrange nuclear weapons. 2.14.1 Terms and Condition of START The Soviet Union was to end up with a 35 percent cut in their strategic warheads from around 11, 000 to 7,000 and the U.S. with a 25 percent reduction from about 120, 000 to 90,000. The treaty limited the Strategic Nuclear Delivery Vehicles (SNDVs) to 1,700 each. The SNDVs comprised deployed ICBMs and their launchers,

deployed Submarine– Launched Ballistic Missiles (SIBMs) and their launchers and heavy bombers. Both sides agreed to give the other side a politically binding declaration on long range (more than 600 kms) nuclear Sealaunched Cruise Missiles (SLCMs). It included – nuclear armed launched cruise missiles with a range of over 600 kms.

Since the Soviets had their warheads on their land based ballistic missiles, considered by the US as most threatening to it, they were to make deeper cuts than the Americans. The US got away with relatively smaller cuts since it kept more of its strategic nuclear force in submarine and on bombers rather than ballistic missiles. The treaty did not cover Sea-launched Cruise Missiles (SLCMs). The Soviets were insisting on their inclusion in the START ambit but gave up following the US president's refusal. Even with the proposed cut, the two sides were to have 4,900 ballistic missiles each. The great achievement of this treaty was that verification was much less of a problem in reaching arms control in future. Although START ended a nine year long quest for a reduction of the nuclear arsenal on a happy note, it was greatly the improved prospects as a result of the Gorbachev-Bush Resolution of an early end to the politics of deadly confrontation that held out the promise of an end to the nuclear nightmare. After all, the US and the Soviet Union were still to have a formidable array of nuclear warheads. START reduced the strategic weapons by only 30 per cent. The remainder had the potential many times over to devastate the planet. In June 1992 President George Bush had asked the Senate to approve changes in the still-unratified strategic arms reduction treaty.

The Lok Sabha of India welcomed the START and appealed for early multilateral negotiations for a new treaty "eliminating all nuclear and other weapons within a time bound framework". Endorsing India's position on the elimination of nuclear and other weapons of mass destruction the resolution called upon the government to pursue the various proposals and initiatives for ushering in a nuclear weapon free world. The START was a strong reminder that the superpowers considered as far-fetched India's three phase arms control proposal under which nuclear threshold States would undertake not to go nuclear if the nuclear weapons States cut the size of their arsenals end nuclear testing and production of weapon usable materials and agree to work towards complete nuclear disarmament by 2010.".

6.7 Summary

- The commission was subordinate to the Security Council and was expected to submit its reports and recommendations to it. And both the super powers offered their cooperation in the establishment of this commission. On June 14, 1946 at the first meeting of the commission differences cropped up between the two major powers.
- Bernard Baruch of USA presented a plan in which he insisted on managerial control or ownership of all atomic energy activities potentially dangerous to world security; power to control, impact and license of atomic activities; fostering beneficial uses of atomic energy; and research and development offered to destroy all atom bombs of USA and to stop them further manufacture after an adequate system of international control had been established.
- The Baruch plan was uniquely significant because it came from the only country which had

atomic weapons at that time, it aimed at submitting energy to a very extensive system of international administration. Since Soviet Union had not tested nuclear weapons by that time, she was reluctant to support any agreement that would preclude Soviet development of nuclear capacity.

6.8 Key Terms

- NATO- North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO) An organization formed in 1949 that bound the United States, Canada, most of Western Europe.
- Arms race- Massive military build-up, especially of nuclear weapons, by both the Soviet Union and the United States in an effort to gain military superiority.
- Marshall Plan- A plan devised by President Harry S Truman and Secretary of State George C. Marshall that committed over \$10 billion to rebuilding Western.

6.9 Self Assessment Questions

- 5. Evaluate the role of external factors, including superpowers and regional powers, in exacerbating or mitigating these crises.
- 6. Assess the role of proxy wars and covert operations in perpetuating Cold War tensions and conflicts.
- 7. Identify major Cold War conflicts, including the Korean War, the Cuban Missile Crisis, and the Vietnam War.
- 8. Analyze historical narratives and interpretations of Cold War events and crises from different perspectives.

6.10 Further Readings

- Burckhardt, Jacob. The Civilization of the Renaissance in Italy, New Delhi, 2001.
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<u>Unit-07The United States And Western Europe: Revival Of Western Europe</u> <u>Marshall Plan, Trueman Doctrine And Implications</u>

STRUCTURE		
7.1 7.2	Learning Objective Introduction	
7.3	United States & Western Europe	
7.4	Marshal Plan	
7.5	Trueman Doctrine	
7.6	Summary	
7.7	Key Terms	
7.8	Self Assessment Questions	
7.9	Further Readings	

7.1 Learning Objectives

- Investigate the political organization of feudal states, including the decentralized nature of power and the role of local lords.
- Study the manorial system, including the functioning of manors, the roles of lords and peasants, and the economic exchange within manorial estates.
- Compare feudalism in different regions and time periods to understand variations and similarities.
- Assess the historical significance of feudalism in shaping the development of medieval Europe and other societies.

7.2 Introduction

Feudalism, in its various forms, usually emerged as a result of the decentralization of an empire, especially in the Carolingian empires, which lacked the bureaucratic infrastructure necessary to support cavalry without the ability to allocate land to these mounted troops. Mounted soldiers began to secure a system of hereditary rule over their allocated land, and their power over the territory came to encompass the social, political, judicial, and economic spheres.

Many societies in the Middle Ages were characterized by feudal organizations, including England, which was the most structured feudal society, France, Italy, Germany, the Holy Roman Empire, and Portugal. Each of these territories developed feudalism in unique ways, and the way we understand feudalism as a unified concept today is in large part due to critiques after its dissolution. Karl Marx theorized feudalism as a pre-capitalist society, characterized by the power of the ruling class (the aristocracy) in their control of arable land, leading to a class society based upon the exploitation of the peasants who farm these lands, typically under serfdom and principally by means of labour, produce, and money rents.

7. 3 United States & Western Europe

While modern writers such as Marx point out the negative qualities of feudalism, the French historian Marc Bloch contends that peasants were an integral part of the feudal relationship: while the vassals performed military service in exchange for the fief, the peasants performed physical labour in return for protection, thereby gaining some benefit despite their limited freedom. Feudalism was thus a complex social and economic system defined by inherited ranks, each of which possessed inherent social and economic privileges and obligations. Feudalism allowed societies in the Middle Ages to retain a relatively stable political structure even as the centralized power of empires and kingdoms began to dissolve.

Feudalism was not the outcome of any Govt ordinance, nor it was the humane creation, but it was the inherent consequence of the Medieval Age. Feudalism grew in a purely agrarian environment where land was the main source of income and power. Social and political organizations were made according to the relationship of man to the land .Land-ownership constituted the basis of humane status in medieval Europe. Social and political hierarchy was made on the basis of quality of land ownership. The lords or vessels were respected in the society because they were land —owners and they had very large income in comparison to others. A Villen or serf was not seriously considered because he was landless Industrialization was not yet made its appearance. Every class of the society was related to the land and had acquired its respective social estimation on the basis of land ownership.

Political Cause

With the decline of the Roman Empire the Western Europe fell in to the grip of anarchy .During the period of decline of Roman Empire anarchy, disorder and confusion prevailed in Europe. The foreign invaders started a chain of invasions with the result that panic prevailed among the peasants who felt themselves unprotected in the absence of any power to defend them .Moreover the nobles and landlords had come back to their villages and they started looting the nearby people and the farmers. The landlords were also anxious to meet the challenge of other powerful landlord. As such both the peasant and the landlord sought the help of each other and made a contract according to which the peasant agreed to surrender the ownership of their land to the landlords and to pay part of their agriculture produce to them and to do their manual work without charging any remuneration for it. The landlord in their turn gave then full protection of their life and property. According to their contact the land of the peasant became quite safe but in return for that they lost their independence. Their land became the property of the landlord. Now the peasant was turning to status of a serf or semi slaves. Thus feudalism was the creation of contact between the peasant and landlord which was political in nature.

Economic Cause

The economic cause of Feudalism was that the slaves who were cruelly treated during the days of Roman Empire stopped working hard on agricultural land. This diminished the state revenue so the slaves were given the ownership of the land to work hard and increase the revenue. Thus the slaves who turned in to the peasant used to give part of their produce to their landlord who had the right to take back their land. This made the status of the peasant as semislaves and that of landlord as feudal lord. The peasant worked under the control of small feudal lord, who in turn were controlled by the more powerful feudal lord who recognized the authority of the king.

Roman Administration System

The Roman administration system contributed to the rise and growth of feudal ism in Europe. The Roman Emperors had divided their vast empire in to provinces which were put under charge of their relatives or nobles who became the independent ruler, when the empire declined .These provincial governors later were called the big Feudal lords.

• Contribution of German Tribes

After the advent of German tribes in the empire, the feudal system came to existence. The German were composed of different tribes whose leaders had occupied large areas of land had distributed them among their followers. These leaders in the course of time turned into feudal lords .The Institution of `Commitatus' developed in Germany were responsible for the rise of feudalism. According to custom of the institution, the peasant used to take an oath of remaining faithful to their masters who established themselves as feudal lords. Mc Nell Burns opine that" The Commitatus ideals of respect and fidelity led to the rise of Feudalism... without German influence the medieval feudalism would not have taken a definite shape.

• Charlemagne's Policy

After the decline of Roman Empire in 8th century the Frankish army commander Pippen had established his empire and before his death, he divided it in to two parts and put the under the charge of his two sons-Carlo mane and Charlemagne. After the death of Carlo mane his part of his empire was entrusted to Charlemagne's' faithful follower who in due course of time, when Charlemagne's faithful followers who in course of time, when Charlemagne's empire was disintegrating, became the feudal lords of the province.

• Foreign Invasion

In the 8th century AD, in order to defend those from foreign invasion of Normans, Slays and the Muslims, the peasant took shelter with the army commander who had their own weapon and forts. The ruler also in order to defend themselves from such invasions allotted land to such commanders who were later respected as the feudal lords. Thus the foreign invasion contributed much to the rise of feudalism.

• Crusades

The Crusades (1099 to1300) also contributed to the rise and growth of Feudalism in Europe...The pope appealed to all the military commander, knights and soldiers of Europe to take parts in Crusades to free Palestine from the control of the Muslims. Those who participated in the Crusades and showed their bravery were allotted land by Pope and, the rulers of European Countries. These knights gradually turned into the feudal lords.

• The Large Empires

During the Medieval age in Europe some empires like the Holy Roan Empires and British were so large that in the absence of proper means of transport, it was very difficult to manage them. So rulers of the Empires appointed their faithful followers and relatives as governor of far off provinces. These governors became independent owners and rulers of their allotted territories during the reign of weak emperors. These feudal lords played an important role in checking the anarchy when these empires disintegrated. When Europe was drowning in the sea of anarchy and confusion Feudalism came into existence as a political organization.

7.4 Marshal Plan

Feudalism had important significance. As entire system of feudalism supported social inequality and concentration of power in the hands of few, it developed many contradictions within. But feudalism was not originated all of a sudden. The necessity of time supported for the birth of feudalism in Europe. $\$

• It provided security to the people

Feudalism grew out of mutual consent to response to the need of the time .Feudalism provided security to the people when there was anarchy everywhere. Feudalism gave security to life as well as safety to production. External enemies and group of plunderers were terrified. Feudalism marked the end of barbaric invasions.

• It restored law and order

The feudal lords emerged as powerful groups of watchmen to uphold law and order. The brave feudal lords and knights developed a sense of pride in protecting the people from invaders. They became guardians of law. The king was not in a position to maintain law and order. But intermediary lords took this responsibility to provide stability. Lords lived to fight and to commoners had nothing to do with wars.

• It was based on mutual contract and traditional defined value

As a whole, the system was based on mutual contracts and traditionally defined values of chivalry, the higher groups of the society took the responsibility to protect the weak at the cost of their own life. The lower strata also became obliged or duty bound to the lords. The peasant got more social security than what they were enjoying before. Nobody could take away their land without sufficient cause. The age of feudalism witnessed a development of art, architectures. Beautiful and attractive castles were constructed throughout European continent. This was known s Gothic art. It furthered the art of design and also the construction of massive buildings, palaces, churches etc afterwards.

• It witnessed concentration of power in the hands of feudal lords

Feudalism also saw concentration of power in the hands of few lords who lived a luxurious life. The common poor peasant and serfs were exploited. Gradually kings became powerful and formed their own armies to maintain law and order inside the country. They did not depend on the lords and knights any more for this work. Gradually, the lords became unproductive and became an unnecessary part of the society .They occupied large number o f lands, where many in the society remained landless. The lords continued to collect revenue .They continued to harass the people. They became symbols of cruelty and backwardness. Sometimes a few lords became powerful enough to challenge the authority of the king or monarchs. They were organizing revolts against the king. They brought lawlessness and anarchy in the country .Peasant suffered when there were wars and armed revolts. Sometimes feudal lords were fighting among themselves .These also put hardship on the peasant when standing crops were destroyed.

Serfdom continued with the continuity of feud lords. The serfs were living a very wretched life. Poverty, illiteracy and sickness made, hopeless. They could not think for a better life. This was the most hatred practice of feudalism in Europe.

7.5 Trueman Doctrine

The feudal system was in its essence a menace of providing protection through kind of relationship between various military chiefs or lords. In an agricultural society, it was necessary that, the peasant should receive protection to enable them to till the land they occupied.

As the occupying of the land was due to favor of some land, it was the latter that was ready in his own interest, o accord them protection. While for this occupancy-which included protection-the peasant paid by certain services such as working for a fixed number of days on lords estate. At first peasant were serfs, and thus bound to the land, which they held. Moreover, tenure of the land which was often hereditary, not subject to confiscation. The relation between land and serf were not purely economic. During the heyday of feudalism, the lords exercised police and judicial rights over his serfs. This politico-economic unit was known as the manor. In course of time serfdom declined. Later on, the obligation to work for the land was often commuted in to payment in money or kind.

The feudal system which usually identified with Europe was a fortunate phenomenon in medieval society .The service which the king received from his vassals enabled the former to from the modern state at expense of feudalism. The feudal system became general throughout Europe, though inmost of Italy it early disappeared.

The classic age of feudalism was usually from the tenth to thirteenth centuries. There were two feudal ages, the first from the ninth to mid eleventh centuries were small scale arrangement prevailed between war lord and peasant. The second feudal age form the mid-eleventh to mid — thirteenth century which saw the growth of hereditary nobility.

7.6 Summary

- The classic version of feudalism describes a set of reciprocal legal and military obligations among the warrior nobility, revolving around the three key concepts of lords, vassals, and fiefs.
- A lord was in broad terms a noble who held land, a vassal was a person who was granted possession of the land by the lord, and a fief was what the land was known as.
- In exchange for the use of the fief and the protection of the lord, the vassal would provide some sort of service to the lord. There were many varieties of feudal land tenure, consisting of military and non-military service. The obligations and corresponding rights between lord and vassal concerning the fief formed the basis of the feudal relationship.
- Feudalism, in its various forms, usually emerged as a result of the decentralization of an empire, especially in the Carolingian empires, which lacked the bureaucratic infrastructure necessary to support cavalry without the ability to allocate land to these mounted troops.
- Mounted soldiers began to secure a system of hereditary rule over their allocated land, and their power over the territory came to encompass the social, political, judicial, and economic spheres.
- Many societies in the Middle Ages were characterized by feudal organizations, including England, which was the most structured feudal society, France, Italy, Germany, the Holy

7.7 Key Terms

- **Feudalisms** Feudalism was a European political system in which a lord owned all the land while vassals and serfs farmed it. Feudalism ended in the 1400s
 - Social Structure- Social Organisation, Social Organization, Social Structure, Social System, Structure
 - **Karl Marx** theorized feudalism as a pre-capitalist society, characterized by the power of the ruling class (the aristocracy) in their control of arable land
 - **Serf** an agricultural labourer bound by the feudal system who was tied to working on their lord's estate.
 - Manor- a large country house with lands.
 - **Feud** a prolonged and bitter quarrel or dispute.

7.8 Self Assessment Questions

- 1. Who were the key players in the feudal system?
- 2. What role did peasants play in the feudal structure?
- 3. When and where did feudalism emerge?
- 4. Explore the economic aspects of feudalism, with a focus on the manorial system and its impact on local communities.
- 5. Analyze the feudal contract and the reciprocal obligations between lords and vassals.
- 6. Explain the decline of feudalism, considering economic, technological, and political factors.
- 7. Compare and contrast feudalism in different regions or time periods.

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<u>UNIT-08</u>

STRUCTURE

8.1	Learning Objective
8.2	Introduction
8.3	Rise of Money Economy
8.4	Condition of France
8.5	Rift in NATO
8.6	Summary
8.7	Key Terms
8.8	Self Assessment Questions
8.9	Further Readings

8.1 Learning Objective

- Understanding Feudalism, a dominant socio-political system that emerged in medieval Europe, profoundly influenced the organization and structure of societies during that era.
- It implies that Feudalism found its roots in the tumultuous period following the collapse of the Roman Empire.
- At its core, feudalism was defined by a hierarchical social structure.
- The social structure of feudalism was stratified, with each class having distinct roles and responsibilities.

8.2 Introduction

The economic foundation of feudalism was the manorial system, where self-sufficient manors operated as economic units. Lords owned vast estates, which included villages, fields, and peasants' homes. Peasants, bound to the land, worked for the lords and provided a share of their produce. The manorial system facilitated economic exchange within localized communities and contributed to the overall stability of the feudal system. Feudalism, while a complex and sometimes oppressive system, played a crucial role in shaping the medieval world. It provided a framework for social order, economic stability, and cultural development. However, its eventual decline marked a significant transition in European history, paving the way for new forms of governance and societal organization. Studying feudalism offers valuable insights into the complexities of historical systems and their lasting impact on the development of societies.

8.3 Rise of Money Economy

With the rise of money economy in Europe, the basic feudal relationship began to collapse. The nobles accelerated the process of leasing their own lands to peasant and commuting customary peasant services to fixed money payment. In this way, aristocratic

incomes were protected against deflation so long as peasant could manage the stipulated payments. The peasantry continued to attain legal status from land bound serfs to free tenant farmers until by 1500, serfdom had almost disappeared from Western Europe in general, the peasant lost much of his servile status by commuting his manorial obligations of labor services in to cash. This had begun in the high middle ages and was completed by 1500.

• Deterioration of Peasantry

In Eastern Europe the peasant lot was worse than in the west .The late medieval landed nobility of both Eastern and Western Europe, guarded its privileges against peasantry and monarchy .For a time, in both east and east, this nobility tried to reverse the trend towards stronger royal government. With the exception of Russia, eastern monarchies made no real progress against their nobles but by the later fifteenth century, western monarchies were beginning to curb the independence of the landed aristocracy. The new Tudor monarchy tended to favor the mercantile class, but in Spain and France the nobility was rewarded for its political submissiveness.

During eleventh and twelfths century, the feudal system spread from France in to England, Germany and crusader states of the Holy Land. At the same time, King and dukes were resorting to the hiring of mercenaries for warfare and civil servants for the administration of their realms. As the twelfths century progressed, the feudal vassal was often asked to pay a tax in lieu of his personal services in the feudal army. With the income from this tax, called scutage, the monarch could hire professional warrior, who were better trained and better disciplined. The feudal aristocracy retained its lands and much of its power, and even continued to produce warriors. But the Knights of the new age expected to be paid. They no longer served at their own expense in return for their fiefs. Once the paying of taxes had replaced personal services as the vassal's major obligation. Feudalism had lost its soulat was through the strong arm of the King that feudalism gave way. If the king had a domain, he had at least the nucleus of territorial power. The French king, being atop, the feudal pyramid, had also a domain of their own. It was rare stroke of fortune that for eleven generation, there was always a son to succeed.

In France, Spain and England, the royal owner grew and became the matrix of modern State. In France, the king from the twelfth century seized every opportunity of extending and consolidating their power. The king used every occasion for stretching his prerogative .Some times, as a result of negotiation, his laws were accepted on the domains of these nobles, and sometimes he used the right of sending his officials to collect the feudal aide directly from their tenants. The extension of royal domain gave the king a greater power then of his own vassals. As early of the eleventh century, the crown had began the practice of hiring mercenary troops to expand its Power. Thus the royal power had emerged as a new element of order, a stabilizing force in the social system.

In its long struggle with feudalism, the crown got valuable assistance from a vigorous middle class. In France many towns were granted new charters directly by the king. In Spain the towns received every encouragement to resist the nobles It was through alliance of king and burghers that the power of the Spanish grandees was eventually broken. In Spain of twelfth century' representatives of the towns participated in the feudal assembly, the courts. In fourteenth century the first meeting of the estates- general held in France where the representatives of the towns participated in the feudal assembly in Cortes, In the Fourteenth century occurred the first meeting of the estate general in France where the representatives of the towns sat besides the landed feudal class .11 was from such bodies that crown solicited money.

Thus the money power contributed to enhance the royal power. Naturally it was from the middle class, paid by money instead of by lands that the king recruited the bulk of the personnel of his, administration.

• Expanding needs of royal treasury

The expanding needs of the royal treasury accounted for much of the attack on vested interest. Phillip the Fair did not scruple to invade clerical immunities from taxation. TO the nobles, he allowed the privilege of commuting their military derive if they wished. Though such taxes were by custom extraordinary, they had the effect if of weakening feudalism. The military dependence of the crown upon its vessels was fast becoming obsolete by the employment of mercenaries .Thus, the crows its superior military power Was able to buttress its power and gradually extend it The invention of Gunpowder gave the crown a decided advantage over the traditional weapon of feudalism as well as a means of destroying its stronghold.

8.4 Condition of France

According some historian the breakdown of feudalism was due to the commercial expansion which introduced money economy .The growth of money and trade dealings caused labors services to be commuted to money rent. According to Henry Pirenne, it was the revival of long distance trade from the twelve century onwards that destroyed the manorial economy of Feudal Europe. Moreover, in parts of Europe, the need for labor services declined owing to fragmentation of holdings. According to Bloch, decline of labor service and serfdom in France was due to decline of domestic lands as the lords preferred to stay in towns. The fragmentation of labor services which were replaced by cash rent and hired labor.

• Demographic crises

The demographic crises i.e., depopulation caused by war, famine and distress led to changes in the agrarian social structure. The population affected the supply of labor and led to the rise of urban wages .The economic crises imposed heavy burden on the peasants which led to them to seek fortune elsewhere. According to Hilton, the main factor in the decline of feudalism in Western Europe was constant struggle of the small products to emancipate themselves from bonds of feudal exploitation.

8.5 Rift in NATO

The NATO has its own specific forms and structure. The feudal ties involved a series of obligations binding on lords, Vassals and peasants Homage and acknowledge of obligation of commitment to lord was the governing principles. The fief in the form of landed estate was of varying size .It was also in the form of public authority or a duty or right .Elaborate rules governed the inheritance of fiefs where lords had their defined powers. The peasantry within a manor had a sort of stratification some enjoying rights and others completely subjugated. The cultivators were subjugated to heavy land tax and various duties. The institution of knights evolved out the need for armed power to protect the manors and suppress dissent inside it. The form and structure of feudalism was not uniform in the whole of Europe and there were significant variations in different regions which pointed during discussion. were out our

NATO grew in a purely agrarian environment where land was the main source of income and power. Social and Political organizations were made according to the relationship of man to the land. Land ownership constituted the basic of human status in Medieval Europe. Social and political was made on the basis of the equality of land ownership. The Lords or the vassals were respected in the society because they were land –owners and had very large income in comparison to others. A Villein or a serf was not seriously considered because he was landless. Industrialization was not yet made its appearance. Every class of society was related to the land has acquired it respective social estimation manor the basis of land ownership. The most important feature of the feudal society was the division of land among different sections of people. The king was always at the top and used to guard the lands. The people working in the lands also joined the military services during wars or in case of emergencies.

- 1. It divided the work among different sections of people according to the hierarchy.
- 2. This feudal society also gave birth to republicanism, which led to the draft of a new constitution in England.
- 3. There was a rise in fights among people due to which the lords were unable to pay attention to agriculture, trade, art and literature.
- 4. The peasants were exploited and deprived of money and proper food, which led to a rise in poverty and starvation.

8.6 Summary

- Privileged or upper classes experienced a luxurious life. They exploited the lower class of people, depriving them of their fundamental rights. The problem of the distribution of the agrarian product in feudalism is not at all new.
- It has been raised frequently by European historians and at the beginning of the 1930's led to a scientific controversy in Poland.
- Not being an economist by profession, a theoretical analysis at length, but hope, by a discussion of various approaches to the problem, to bring us closer to a solution.
- Feudal society came into existence in the 9th century.
- There were three main classes under the feudal system the king, the noble class and the peasant class. In this type of society, there was a strict division of powers based on a hierarchical system.
- These powers were exercised to protect land ownership.

8.7 Key Terms

- Agrarian- Relating to cultivated land or the cultivation of land.
- **Commercial** Concerned with or engaged in commerce.
- **Terracotta** a type of fired clay, typically of a brownish-red colour and unglazed, used as an ornamental building material and in modeling.
- Combatant: One that is engaged in or ready to engage in fight
- Covenant: A written agreement. Indignation: Anger aroused by something unjust, unworthy, or mean

anger.

• **Irredentism:** A territory historically or ethnically related to one political unit but under the political control of another.

8.8 Self Assessment Questions

- 1. How did the Church influence feudal societies?
- 2. How did the manorial system function?
- 3. Why did feudalism declin

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Block-3: LAST PHASE OF COLD WAR-I

Unit-09	Political and Economic Relations, The Warsaw Pact and its
Objective	s, Soviet Union and Yugoslavia, Soviet
Interventi	on in Hungary, 1956 and Czechoslovia, 1968, Gaobachev
Era- Glass	nost and Perestroika.

- **Unit-10** Disintegration of Socialist Bloc and End of cold War: Change from bipolar to uni-polar world system,
- **Unit-11** Globalization- its economic and political implications.
- **Unit-12** Regional Security and Alliances: The Concept of Regional Security, CENTO, SEATO, ASEAN, SAARC

<u>UNIT-09</u>

<u>Political and Economic Relations, The Warsaw Pact and its</u> <u>Objectives, Soviet Union and Yugoslavia, Soviet</u> <u>Intervention in Hungary, 1956 and Czechoslovia, 1968, Gaobachev</u> <u>Era- Glasnost and Perestroika</u>.

STRUCTURE

- 9.1 Learning Objective
- 9.2 Introduction
- 9.3 The Warsaw Pact
- 9.4 Gaobachev Era
- 9.5 Glasnost & Perestroika
- 9.6 Summary
- 9.7 Key Terms
- 9.8 Self Assessment Questions
- 9.9 Further Readings

9.1 Learning Objectives

- Studying feudalism typically include understanding its social, economic, and political structures, as well as its impact on various aspects of medieval societies.
- To identify key characteristics and features of feudalism.
- Examine the hierarchical social structure of feudal societies, including the roles of monarchs, nobles, vassals, and peasants.
- Investigate the factors that led to the decline of feudalism, such as economic changes, technological advancements, and shifts in political power.

9.2 Introduction

Feudalism, while a complex and sometimes oppressive system, played a crucial role in shaping the medieval world. It provided a framework for social order, economic stability, and cultural development. However, its eventual decline marked a significant transition in European history, paving the way for new forms of governance and societal organization. Studying feudalism offers valuable insights into the complexities of historical systems and their lasting impact on the development of societies. Feudalism was deeply intertwined with the cultural and religious fabric of medieval societies. The Church played a significant role in legitimizing political power, and religious institutions often owned substantial land. The cultural norms of chivalry, emphasizing honor and loyalty, were closely associated with the feudal system, influencing the behavior of knights and nobles.

9.3 The Warsaw Pact

The social structure of feudalism was stratified, with each class having distinct roles and

responsibilities. Monarchs held ultimate authority but often relied on the support of nobles to maintain control. Nobles, in turn, governed specific territories and were responsible for protecting the realm. Vassals pledged loyalty to nobles in exchange for land, becoming part of a complex network of hierarchical relationships. Peasants, the majority of the population, worked the land and provided essential agricultural produce in return for protection.

At its core, feudalism was defined by a hierarchical social structure. At the top of the pyramid were monarchs, followed by nobles, vassals, and peasants. The feudal contract, a binding agreement between lords and vassals, stipulated the exchange of land (fiefs) for military service and other obligations. This contractual relationship formed the backbone of the feudal system, emphasizing reciprocal duties and hierarchical loyalty.

9.4 Gaobachev Era

• The Pope/ Church

Feudalism was based on the belief that land belonged to the God. But the kings, who ruled by Divine Right, managed the land and used it as they wished. However the king was answerable to the pope. The pope as God's representative on Earth had their right to interfere and impose sanction on an unjust king. The pope had the power to announce judgment against the King. He could depose any king forfeit his kingdom or put another on the throne

• Monarch.

In feudalism the Monarch had a monopoly on the power in the land. The: monarch might be king or queen .He or she was bound by custom or tradition. He or she lived in a palace situated in the capital. He or she symbolized the status and prosperity of the country .There was lords beneath the monarch to whom he or she: delegated responsibilities.

• Lords

The Nobles or the Lords were the vassals, just under the monarch who were given fiefs from the monarch as supreme ruler of the territories. The lords had to setup taxes and laws, oversaw the day to day business of the castles and fiefs and made decisions over punishments and other issues. The lords were of different kinds. There were upper lords and lesser lords. The lords served the king by appearing. in his court or fighting at his side, The lords were lords of manor given to their own tenants but were also vassals to their own monarch.

• Knights

There was a special group of brave and horse-riding fighters known as Knights. A Knight was a person granted an honorary title of Knighthood by a monarch for service to the monarch, especially in the military capacity. Knights considered a class of lower nobility .Knights were asked to protect the weak, defenseless and help and fight for general welfare of the people. The rank of the Knights was also associated with ideals of Chivalry, code of conduct of the perfect warriors. They were trained to practice courteous and honorable behavior Chivalry was the main. Principle of guiding a Knight's life style and had powerful influence on the concept of heroism and virtue. Christianity had a modifying influence on the lifestyle of a Knight .It included the duties of the countryman, duties to God, as well as duties to women. It included the virtue like courage, mercy, valor, protection of the weak and remains faithful to the Church and most importantly being gracious and gentle to women.

• Duel

Duel was an important part of the life of Knights. A duel was generally arranged engagement or combat between two individuals with matched weapons: accordance with agreed upon rules .It was chiefly practiced by the Knights. Part of chivalry initially it was fought with swords, but later pistols were used. Duels were fought not to kill opponents, but to restore one's honor by demonstrating willingness to risk one's life for it.

• Vassal

Vassals were lower cadre lords in feudalism. They received comparatively small patches of land from the lords to engage the peasant and farmers. They kept direct contact with the subjects. They were lowest land-owners. They expressed their loyalty to their lords by providing resources an annual tribute. They also joined wars for the lords or the king.

• Castles

Castles formed important part of feudalism in Europe. These were fortified structures made by the Europeans nobility in the middle ages. These were built to control the area immediately surrounding them. These also served as the centre of administration and symbol of power .They were normally constructed on raised stone or earth platform. Brick stones and wood were used. These were used for both offensive and defensive purposes. Trained and armed soldiers were stationed in these castles to protect the people from intruders or to maintain law

and order-Often, these castles were surrounded by moats or defensive ditches with steep sides. The lord lived inside the castle with pump and comfort. He regularly held courts inside the castle. There were servants to look after the comfort of the Lord. Gun canons and trebuchets were fixed at the top of the castles. There were halls where manor courts were held to settle disputes of the villagers.

• Manor

The lower strata of European feudalism were consisted of different kind of farmers and laborers. They worked in Manors which was an estate of land owned by the barons or lords Manor was described as basic feudal unit of tenure. It was created when the king gave away a thousand acres of land to his chosen subject as their heirs. The receivers built mansion houses. They also granted some portion of the mansion to the peasant. The new doneness_ became tenant. The manors consisted of different kind of lands. There were lands retained by barons or lords in their hands. Lands were also reserved for the priest and the common people. There were forest, pastures, and meadow and waste lands.

• Different Kinds of Peasant-

There was different kind of peasant attached to Peasant. There were merchants, farmers and craftsman. All dependent on agriculture. There were freeman, villein, serfs and slaves. Merchants were few in number. The craftsmen were mostly farmers.

• Freeman

Freemen were free tenants who held their land by one of variety of contacts. They were essentially rent paying tenant farmers .They owed no service or a little to the lord .They enjoyed a good degree of security of tenure and independence.

• Villeins

Villeins were another type of peasant who was engaged by the lords in their own lands with the duty of cultivating the land for the use of the master. They were originally tenant at will and were in the state of semi-serfdom. A Villein was the most common type serf in the middle ages. He had more rights and higher status than the lower serf's. He was existed under a number of legal restrictions that differentiated them from the freeman. They were expected to spend farming their own land. They were required to provide other services in addition to the paying rent money or produce. Villeins were tied to the land and could not move away without the consent of their lords.

• Serfs

Serfs were the number of serfdom related to manorialism .It was condition of bondage or modified slavery. Serfs were required to work in the land of the lords. They also worked in mines, forest and roads. Freeman whose land tenure was freehold became a serf because of crop failure, famine, war etc. He was forced to be a serf bargaining for deal with lord. In exchange of protection, service was offered. The bargain was formalized in a ceremony known as bondage, in which a serf placed his head in the lord hand like the ceremony of Homage .It was very often difficult to differentiate between villeins and serfs the difference were not clear.

Slaves

The last type of serf was a slave. Slaves had fewest right and benefits. They owned no tenancy in hand but worked for the lord and supervised on donation from the lord. Runaway slaves could be continued and beaten up.

9.5 Glasnost & Perestroika

Before a lord could grant land, he had to make the person a vassal. This was done at a formal but symbolic ceremony known as Commendation Ceremony It was compose of two actshomage and oath of fealty. During homage, the lord and vassalage entered in to contact in which the Vassal entered in to a contact in which the Vassal promised to fight for the Lord as his command .The Lord agreed to protect the vassal from danger of external forces. The vassal had to kneel before he Lord to pay respect. The Lord placed 4 sword of a piece of soil on the hand of Vassal. The Vassals were also known as Barons. The Knights along with Barons held the land direct from the king and were known as tenant-in chief .Other Vassals got lands from the Lords. Fealty was oath made by the vassals which reinforced the commitments the vassals made during the homage. Such an oath followed the homage. Germany on her part was equally bitter. The terms offered by the Allies were very harsh and on the top of it Germany was held guilty for the war. She was also required to pay huge separations. When she failed to make separations as per schedule France and Belgium captured the Ruhr Valley, which was the very heart of German industry. France even made an attempt to set up a separatist state in the Rhine land. Thus both Germany and France suspected each other. While France was haunted by the spectre of German recovery and revenge, Germany was afraid of French designs on the Rhineland and her economic strength. The custom also practiced in lower levels where the tenants were invested or presented with some symbols.

The lord and the vassal entered into feudal relationship once 4 Commendation Ceremony was over. . They were agreed upon mutual obligation to one another. The principal obligation of the vassal was aid or to provide military service for minimum40 days a years. The military service was the primary reason for which the lord entered in to feudal relationship .He had also to attend the court of the Lord or the king. It self it could also include to provide counsel to the lord. At the lower, may level, it might include taking decisions on agriculture on handling down sentences for offences. Relief was also paid by the vassal to the lord when the vassal inherited the fiel of his father. The vassal was also paid to release the lord from captivity s ransom. Vassal also gave valuable presentation during the Marriage of the eldest daughter and son of the Lord or the king. At the time of Coronation the vassals also gave valuable present and amount. Duties and Responsibilities.

Feudal Authority	Duties
1. king	Provide large land grants to Upper Lords,
	called fiefs. Provide protection to Lords.
	Received money, military service and a advice.
2. Upper Lords	Provide Land grants to Lesser Lords, Gove
	protection Lesser Lords, Received money and
	military service.
3. Lesser Lords	Provide land grants to Knights, Received
	money and military service.
4. Vassals / Knights	Provide land grants to peasants / serfs,
	Received crops and
5. Peasants / serfs	Received lands, Provide labor and crops.

Feudalism, while a complex and sometimes oppressive system, played a crucial role in shaping the medieval world. It provided a framework for social order, economic stability, and cultural development. However, its eventual decline marked a significant transition in European history, paving the way for new forms of governance and societal organization. Studying feudalism offers valuable insights into the complexities of historical systems and their lasting impact on the development of societies.

9.6 Summary

- Vassals pledged loyalty to nobles in exchange for land, becoming part of a complex network of hierarchical relationships. Peasants, the majority of the population, worked the land and provided essential agricultural produce in return for protection.
- This contractual relationship formed the backbone of the feudal system, emphasizing reciprocal duties and hierarchical loyalty.
- The manorial system facilitated economic exchange within localized communities and contributed to the overall stability of the feudal system.
- Studying feudalism offers valuable insights into the complexities of historical systems and their lasting impact on the development of societies.
- The cultural norms of chivalry, emphasizing honor and loyalty, were closely associated with the feudal system, influencing the behavior of knights and nobles.
- The economic foundation of feudalism was the manorial system, where self-sufficient manors operated as economic units. Lords owned vast estates, which included villages, fields, and peasants' homes.

9.7 Key Terms

- **Homage-** In the Middle Ages this was the ceremony in which a feudal tenant or vassal pledged reverence and submission to his feudal lord, receiving in exchange the symbolic title to his new position.
- **Fealty** An oath, from the Latin fidelitas (faithfulness); a pledge of allegiance of one person to another.
- **Vassals** Persons who entered into a mutual obligation to a lord or monarch in the context of the feudal system in medieval Europe.
- Agrarian- Relating to cultivated land or the cultivation of land.
- **Commercial** Concerned with or engaged in commerce.
- **Terracotta** a type of fired clay, typically of a brownish-red colour and unglazed, used as an ornamental building material and in modeling.

9.8 Self Assessment Questions

- 1. How did the Church influence feudal societies?
- 2. How did the manorial system function?
- 3. Why did feudalism decline?

- 4. Evaluate the impact of feudalism on the lives of individuals within various social classes.
- 5. Assess the historical significance of feudalism in shaping medieval societies.
- 6. Evaluate the impact of feudalism on the lives of individuals within various social classes.
- 7. Assess the historical significance of feudalism in shaping medieval societies

9.9 Further Readings

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<u>Unit-10Disintegration Of Socialist Bloc And End Of Cold War</u> <u>Change From Bipolar To Uni-polar World System</u>

STRUCTURE

10.1Learning Objectives10.2Introduction10.3End of Cold War10.4Bi-Polar to Uni-Polar10.5Summary10.6Key Terms

- 10.7Self Assessment Questions
- 10.8Further Readings

10.1 Learning Objectives

In this unit we will mainly discuss the various religions which were developed in Medieval Europe. After going through this unit you will be able to-

- Know the origin and growth of Christian Religion.
- Understand the birth and growth of Judiam
- Gets an idea regarding the birth and teachings of Jesus Christ.
- Know the importance and Quran and Hadith Literature.
- Christianity originated in the 1st century AD with the teachings, crucifixion, and resurrection of Jesus Christ in the Roman province of Judea.

10.2 Introduction

Christianity is more than history. It is also a system of truth. According to Coleridge," Christianity is not a theory of Speculation but a life not a philosophy of life, but a life and living process."Christianity is the most popular and largest religion of the contemporary world .It is estimated that in 2010, more than 230 cores of the16 people, constituting nearly 33% of the world population are Christians, This religion was founded by Jesus Christ in the 1st Century AD. Most of the Christianity believes him as the Son of God. The word Christ is derived from a Greek word 'Kharisto' meaning *The Anointed' or 'Messiah.' Christianity has a rich history of growth, development, and expansion that spans over two millennia. The following provides a brief overview of key milestones in the growth and development of Christianity. Christianity, one of the world's major monotheistic religions, has undergone a profound journey of growth, development, and expansion since its inception over two millennia ago. This essay explores the key milestones and factors contributing to the evolution of Christianity, tracing its historical roots, doctrinal developments, and global spread.

Christianity emerged in the first century CE in the Levant, with its roots firmly planted in the life and teachings of Jesus Christ. Jesus' ministry, crucifixion, and resurrection laid the foundation for the Christian faith. The early followers, known as disciples, formed a close-knit community that spread the message of salvation through Jesus Christ.

The Apostle Paul played a pivotal role in the early expansion of Christianity by undertaking missionary journeys throughout the Roman Empire. His letters, or epistles, addressed various theological issues and provided guidance to emerging Christian communities. The Apostle Peter's role in the establishment of the early Christian Church in Rome further solidified Christianity's presence in the heart of the Roman Empire. The first few centuries witnessed the development of Christian doctrine and the formation of the New Testament canon. Early Christian leaders grappled with theological questions, leading to the formulation of creeds and doctrines that defined the core beliefs of the faith. The Council of Nicaea in 325 CE addressed the Arian controversy, establishing the Nicene Creed and affirming the divinity of Jesus Christ.

• Birth

Jesus Christ(4 B.C.30-36 AD) or Jesus of Nazareth was born on 25 December of 4 B.C on a village near Bethlehem of Jerusalem in the kingdom of Judaea or Judah .At that time Augustus Caesar was the Emperor of Rome and Jerus ale constituted a part of his grand Empire. Christ was born in a Jewish family .His father was Joseph and mother was Mary. It is heard that the ruler of Judaea, Herod, became afraid of birth of Christ. Rumors were spread that the rule of Hero would come to end. So a terrified Herod asked his men to trace the new- born and kill them .The parents of Christ shifted from Nazareth to Bethlehem where they took shelter inside a stable. In that stable was born Jesus Christ. Many miracles and gospels were associated with the birth of Christ .It is said in the New Testament that the angel Gabriel told to Mary to name her child Christ. Joseph took the baby with. Mary and escaped to Egypt till the death of Herod. Then they returned and stayed at Nazareth where Christ was brought up. Here Jesus became known as Jesus of Nazareth.

• Life

As a poor man Joseph could not provide proper education to Jesus. Bur since his childhood, Jesus was thoughtful and silent .In his thirteenth year, he became a disciple of John. At the age of thirty in 26, while playing at Galli, Christ declared. That the Messiah had come to rule the kingdom of God .He was given divine orders, to preach .He stood atop a hillock in the manner of a teacher. This preaching became a famous as Sermon on Mount. While propagating his new faith he came across many people. Through his gentle touch, he cured the sick people from disease .He also made a dead body alive with his blessings. At no time he became very popular in Jerusalem. People came in large number for his blessings.

• Transfiguration of Jesus

It is an important event in the life of Jesus. This event is reported in the New Testament in which Jesus was transfigured and became radiant upon a mountain. Jesus with three of his Apostles including Peter went to mountain where Jesus began to shine with bright rays of light. The prophet Moses an Elijah appeared and talked with him. Jesus was called as 'son' by a voice in the king. The transfigurations one of the miracles of Jesus .It supported the identity with Jesus with God.

• Conspiracy

At that time the religion of the Jews was full of blind ideas and super stations. The priests were extremely blind folded. They were dominating society without any challenge .But when Jesus preached his ideas, they became suspicious of him. The priests were exposed. They became dreaded enemy of Christ. They started conspiracy against him. They exercised pressure on the Governor of Jerus alum, Pontius Pilate to arrest Christ and arrest him. They told Pontius Pilate that Jesus was trying to establish his own empire to replace Romans .It is said that the Roman Governor was reluctant in the beginning, but finally to arrest and punish Jesus. A popular was made against him that he was misleading the youth of Rome. While attending the Passover festival or the Laws of Super, Christ was treacherously arrested when betrayed by a disciple, Judas Iscariot. Jesus was sentenced to death. The penalty of crucifixion was given.

• Crucifixion

Jesus was tortured and was forced to carry his own cross to the top of the hill Calavari, where he was crucified. He was flogged, mocked and insulted by the Jewish priest, soldiers and mob. At Golgotha, Jesus was nailed, tied with thorny wire and finally crucified after hours of torture and pain on Friday, 29 Deember, 30AD.(29 &34 AD). At that time Tiberius Caesar was Emperor of Rome. Controversy prevails over the date of birth and crucifixion of Jesus Christ. Jesus bore the pain and death without any objections. His last word were —

"Father, forgive them for they know not what they are doing".

10.4 Bi-Polar to Uni-Polar

Resurrection

After crucifixion, the body of Jesus was buried. It is believed by the Christians, hat after three days of crucifixion, his body vanished from the grave. The Jesus appeared before his mother and other disciples. This became known as Resurrection. The Christian observe Easter every year on the day when Jesus rose from the dead on the third day after Crucifixion.

• Teachings

There are several sources for knowing the teaching of Jesus Christ. The compositions of Apocrypha, writings of Philo Josephus etc. are main sources. The Bible having both Old Testament and New Testament is also important sources on Jesus. Jesus did not follow the ideals of Judaism exactly. His mind and soul were his principal guides when he preached his faith. His teachings are as such-

• Monotheism.

The teachings of Jesus Christ were based on the religious views of the Jews. He taught that God is one. He is Omniscient, Omnipotent and Omnipresent. Everyone should repose his faith on him. He will relive all pains of the people .He is eternal and his existence is necessary. Nobody can conceive his non-existence. He is without beginning and end God. Is the creator and sustainer of the world He has created the world out of nothing, He lives within it and is also beyond it .In other words; he is both immanent and transcendent. He also destroys the world at his own will. His nature is mysterious and therefore although he sometimes reveals himself to men in mystic experience, nobody is able know him fully. God is unlimited; and supreme but yet he has limited his power by his own will to grant freedom to human beings. God is all perfect and all—good, but above all he is infinitely kind and loving. As a matter of fat, Christianity lays utmost emphasis upon God's attribute of kindness and love.

• World

The world is quite definitely and unequivocally God's creation. God created the world ex nihilo out of nothing. As to the mode of creation, Christianity believes in the story of Genesis as related in the Old Testament of the Bible. Everything was created by God in six days. God willed that some thing be created. God willed that there be light and there was light. In the beginning there was heaven and earth. Everything else was gradually created in six days and on the seventh days he signalized the end of process of creation and resorted to rest. Towards the end of the creation, that is on the sixth days, God created man. The world not only created by God but is also sustained and maintained by him. He is absolutely dependent on God for its maintenance. If the sustaining power of the God could be withheld, the world with all is creatures would have simply ceased to be. Nevertheless, the world is real. It is a real effect made out of nothing. He is however is not eternal. It is contingent. It is created in time and it may end at any time acceding to God's will. Thus the world cannot be regarded as co-eternal with God. However, the world as a real contingent effect is a real acting ground d for people. It is neither to be given up nor despised.

• Evil and Suffering

Christian God essentially kind and loving, no less than a loving father, the existence of suffering in the world pose a serious challenge to Christianity. When God loves his creature as a father loves his children and he is also all -powerful, why so much of evil and suffering in the world? Christianity first seems trying to meet the challenge by holding Satan, the devil, to be responsible for evil. But obviously, this plea cannot hold very sound, because, because the natural question will be whether Satan is well under God's control or independent. If the second alternative is taken to be the answer, God certainly is saved from responsibility of evil, but he no longer remains all- powerful. In the Old —Testament, Satan appears not as an independent embodiment of evil, but as member of heavenly court whose job is to provoke people towards evil and inflict suffering on them so as to test the sincerity and depth of their faith on God.

• Life after Death-

As soul in man is immortal, death is not the total and final end of man. There is after-life too, the main ingredients of which are — the Day of Judgments, Resurrection of the Dead and the assignment of Heaven' or Hell to people in accordance with their good and bed deeds. Thus life after-life account of Christianity is not basically different from that of Judaism. Or Islam or even of Zoroastrianism to great extent .However, the details are not identical. As is already said above, when the body of man is destroyed with death, the soul endures. When World comes to its final end, there is resurrection of the dead. In this resurrection, soul of all men are reunited with their bodies and men again come in the fullness of their nature. When exactly this end of world and the consequential resurrection _ will take

place is known to God and God alone. It depend upon his will .But the scriptures indicate that the final end will be preceded by Christ's re-arrival as judge of all men, the universal preaching of the Gospel by him, the total conversion of the Jews and extraordinary disturbance in nature. The end of the world will mark the arrival of final Day of Judgment .On this Day of Judgment all souls are united with their bodies will be brought before the God for the final assessment of the value of their deeds done by them during their earthly lives. Those whose deeds are accordance with the teachings of Jesus are sent to heaven and those who have been unrighteous and sinful are sent to hell. Hell is a place or a state of eternal separation from God. It is state of perfect and unceasing joy. Describing the Joy of Heaven, it has been said "Eye hath not seen , nor ear heard, neither hath it entered into the heart of men, what things God has prepared for them that love Him."

• Human Destiny

'Salvation,' 'Immortality', 'Life Eternal' and Redemption' are the words so often used in Christianity to denote the nature of man's ultimate destiny. To understand, therefore, what man's ultimate destiny is, we have to understand what any or all of these words actually mean.

The two words 'Salvation" and 'Redemption' have got a negative over tone bout them than an affirmative one. They carry with them a sense of getting rid of some thing. But the Christian idea of ultimate destiny is to be understood by a combination of both the negative and positive overtones In getting rid of his present status and attaining to a status which may be called status of life eternal or that of immortality. Our present status is one of suffering. This mainly consists in our alienation from God and failing on to earth in a state of Punishment from God for disobedience. This al! Symbolized in Christianity in the fall of Adam, the first man. Our redemptions or salvation therefore, lies in getting rid of the suffering. For that man will have to follow the path of Christ, because he was sent by the loving God to earth for teaching people the right ways to redemption. Christ has been called the real redeemer of people.

• Ethics and Prayer

Christianity, as we must have seen by now, is a religion of redemption from a life of sin and suffering. Jesus Christ, the founder of religion is regarded as there deemer of man and therefore the true religious path is nothing but to imitate has ways. Imitation Christ is, therefore, the basic Christian principle of religious or moral life. What does, after all, imitation of Christ consist in.? It certainly consists in cultivating all the virtues that Christ demonstrated throughout life. And Christ's life is certainly the paradigm of a life of deep love, humility and suffering. Thus love, humility and suffering for the sake of others as well as for the sake of souls instead of flesh are basic moral virtue that Christianity teaches to its followers. The suffering of the Christ on the Cross is really a symbol of suffering for the sake of spirit. The Cross symbolizes the crucifixion of flesh for the sake of spirit. The senses are to be controlled and the spirit or soul within is to be adored .Further the life of the Jesus is a burning example of a life of extreme love and humility. This is really the core of its ethical teaching. Love thy neighbor as thyself and Turn to him your right cheek who slaps on your left one are the two Christian ethical teaching which speak for its most earnest concern with the virtues of love and humility. Even hatred is to be met not with hatred but love. Love is essential nature of God himself and therefore, it is the greatest virtue to be followed by every Christian in his relationship to both and man.

The Christian also prescribe other allied virtues and duties. St Paul has listed the following nine virtues to be followed by a Christian as a mark of his dustiest towards God; other men in the

society and to himself: Love, Joy and Peace in relation to God: patience, kindness and goodness, and self control in relation tone self. Of course, the classification does not seem to very scientific and virtues listed under one head might more reasonable be put under another head. For example, the virtue of faithfulness might well fit more in relation to God, then in relation to one self. However, we are not at present concerned much with such comments of logical propriety of classification etc. we are mainly concerned with the moral, virtue and duties more often and essentially prescribed in Christianity. We can well see that the most emphasized virtue is those of love, kindness, humility and self-control.

Christianity also prescribes and believes in the efficacy of prayers to God in so far as man's redemption is concerned .God's grace is essential in Christianity for salvation of man and for winning the grace of Almighty, prayer is important. Prayer may be individual or congregational. They are more than observed on Sunday. Christian Churches are devoid of any images or idol. They are simply taken as holy places where people congregate for prayers to God. Christian prayers are petitioner as well as of other natures, such as those of adoration, meditation, acts of will and surrender etc .Even such prayers which may be regarded as petitioner are not for asking petty things of material nature. They are petitions asking for strength so as to lead a righteous life. As an example of such a petitioner prayer, we may cite the following-

Father, hear the prayer we offer: Not for ease that prayer shall be, But for strength that we may ever Live our lives courageously.

• Principle Sects

Broadly speaking, Christian are divided in to two sects-Catholic and Protestants. In a general way it can be said that the former represent the traditionalist and the latter was reformist. The two are divided mainly on the question of the authority of Church. The former believe that the Church is the representative of God on the earth and that God reveals its truth through it. The sacrament of the Church, therefore are a must for the redemption of men and the pope (as well as clergies) possess a divine authority. The later is hold man can directly establish his relation to God, those men is directly responsible to God and the meditation of Church is not needed for him.

Bible is the only sure source of Christian faith and practice and only the authority of the Bible is to be accepted. The latter is thus a re- form movement, a protest against the false domination of the Church and its priest over people. The Priesthood of all believers is to be accepted within the church and only a few selected are not to be regarded as divinely empowered masters. Man is not to be subordinated to the power of any human institution .He has to depend upon the Bible alone to guide and direct him as the mediating agency of God's authority and that he has to put his faith in Jesus Christ whom God send to earth for saving people. There is no third authority. Thus the Protestants speak of two things as the guiding principles a Christian- justification by faith and the Infallibility of the Scriptures as giving the rules of life. Man is to renounce trust in any external authority and he is to trust in Christ alone.

In a wider sense, anyone who is validly baptized and is a member of Holy Catholic Church. But Catholic Church is divided into Roman Catholic Church and Eastern Orthodoxy. Some of the important point in which the Eastern Catholic differ from the Roman Catholic ones are that the Former in opposition to the latter do not accept such doctrine as the bodily ascent of Mary, the purgatory, the celibacy of all the priest, the infallibility of Roman Pope and so on .In the past, there is some amount of difference between the two groups. While the Roman Catholics observe it only as the Extreme function(i.e. anointing the sick at the point of death), the Eastern Catholics takes it as their religious duty to anoint the sick even at the stage of mere sickness prior to death.

Among the Protestants also, there are various groups or sects: there are Lutherans, Calvinist, Presley, Terrains, Anglicans, Congregationalist and so on. Besides the above, there are many more groupings and re-groupings within modern Christianity such as those of the Methodist, of the Unitarians and so on, but we will not take up a description of all of them here.

10.4 Summary

- Christianity originated in the 1st century AD with the teachings, crucifixion, and resurrection of Jesus Christ in the Roman province of Judea.
- The apostles, especially Paul, played a crucial role in spreading the teachings of Jesus throughout the Roman Empire and beyond.
- Christians faced sporadic persecutions in the Roman Empire, but the faith continued to spread.
- The conversion of Emperor Constantine to Christianity in the early 4th century marked a turning point. The Edict of Milan in 313 AD granted religious tolerance to Christians.
- Addressed theological controversies and produced the Nicene Creed, establishing a unified understanding of the nature of Christ.
- Clarified Christ's nature further, helping to define orthodox Christian doctrine.

10.5 Key Terms

• **Baptism**- The rite of initiation for Christians, in which water is used to symbolize the washing away of sin and to welcome the person into the Christian church.

- Eucharist/Holy Communion- Literally 'thanksgiving'; a sacrament in which the death and resurrection of Jesus are celebrated, using bread and wine.
- **Bible-** The holy book for Christianity, made up of the Old and New Testaments.
- Atonement- Making amends for sin, usually referring to Jesus' sacrifice on the cross which Christians believe was the ultimate act of atonement.
- **Incarnation** in traditional Christianity is the belief that the second person of the Trinity, also known as God the Son or the Logos.

10.6 Self Assessment Questions

- 1. What is the central belief of Christianity?
- 2. Who is considered the central figure in Christianity?
- 3. What are the four Gospels in the New Testament?
- 4. Explore the differences between Eastern Orthodoxy and Roman Catholicism, focusing on the events leading to the East-West Schism.
- 5. Investigate the challenges Christianity faces in contemporary society, including secularism, religious pluralism, and the role of technology in shaping religious experiences.

6. Trace the historical roots of Christianity from its origins in the Levant to its expansion into Europe and beyond, highlighting key events and figures that shaped its early development.

10.7 Further Readings

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<u>Unit-11</u>

<u>Globalisation: Its Economic and Political</u> <u>**Implications**</u>

STRUCTURE

- 11.1 Learning Objectives
- 11.2 Introduction
- 11.3 Globalisation
- 11.4 Economic impact of Globalisation
- 11.5Political impact of Globalisation
- 11.6 Impact of Globalisation
- 11.7 Summary
- 11.8 Key Terms
- 11.9 Self Assessment Questions
- 11.10 Further Readings

11.1 Learning Objectives

- Understand the core beliefs of Islam, including the oneness of God (Tawhid), prophet hood (Risalah), and accountability in the afterlife (Akhirah).
- Gain knowledge of the Qur'an as the holy scripture of Islam and the Hadith literature containing sayings and actions of Prophet Muhammad.
- Identify and comprehend the significance of major prophets in Islam, including Adam, Noah, Abraham, Moses, and Jesus.
- Explore the principles and sources of Islamic law, understanding how it informs various aspects of daily life.

11.2 Introduction

Articulate personal reflections on the significance of faith in Islam, including the im Islam is one of the great religions of the World. Its followers are found in many countries. At one time Islam had become a great political force not only in Asia but also in Europe. Gradually decay set in and Islam lost its former power and greatness. These learning objectives aim to provide a comprehensive understanding of Islam, encouraging critical thinking, application of knowledge, and fostering positive interfaith relations. Adjustments can be made based on the specific educational level and goals of the learning program.

11.3 Globalisation

Origin of Islam-Islam was born in Arabia in the seventh century AD .It owed much to the Jews and Christians, It founder was Muhammad, the prophet of Arabia. Arabia is desert land in West Asia. It has at various times been peopled by various races. The earliest settlers belonged to the same stock as ancient Chaldeans. They extended their dominions to Egypt and Mesopotamia and attained a great civilization. They were destroyed by Semitic race .Its rulers exercised authority in part of Arabia and other lands in seventh century AD .The last settlers were the Israelites, descendents of Ismail, a son of Abraham, one of the Patriarchs of Jews .He is said to have built a temple called the Kaaba which still regarded as the holiest place in Muslim World .The most important portion of it is the famous Black stone which is still worshipped by millions who deem it a privilege to go to Mecca to have a glimpse of it.

• The Condition of Arabs

Before Muhammad's birth Arabia was not so civilized. There were two types of people. The settled townsman and nomadic Beduins who went about in search of pastures, riding on their horses and camels. Their chief pursuit was cattle-breeding, trade and plunder. They were poly-gamous. Blood feud was common among them. They worshipped idols. The temple of Kaaba alone contained 360 idols. It represented the numerous gods and goddess. Even humane sacrifice was prevalent among the Arab. In the seventh century Arabia was nominally under Persian rule but in reality it was no rule at all. The tribes who inhabited the interior were fierce men who were engaged in a perpetual struggle for existence. They were always fighting among themselves. As Mecca was busy centre of trade, merchants of other countries brought articles of fashion which led the inhabitations to cultivate vicious and luxurious habits. They brought slave girl from Syria and Iraq who entertained the rich and the well to-do with their singing and dancing. The Meccans became very fond of drinking and gambling. Female children were not allowed to survive .Human sacrifice was frequent. Kaaba enjoyed the highest prestige and its custody was looked upon as a source of great honor for any tribe. Thus the tribe competed with one another with eagerness and ferocity. The Jews and Christians could do nothing to improve the moral habit of the people. All kinds of traditions were current among them which indicated the depth of their degeneration.

11.4 Economic impact of Globalisation

• Prophet Muhammad

Such was the people amongst whom Muhammad was born in Mecca about 570 AD. In a very poor family. His father was died before his birth .His mother died when he was six. His grandfather took care of him and when he died, he entrusted the little child to the charge of Abu Talib, his uncle .It was in his uncle, Abu Talib's home that the Prophet spent his life and tended his flocks like other members of his family. From his early days, he was gentle and kind and was moved by human suffering. In his 25th year, he married to Khajida, a rich widow, who was

carrying on a lucrative trade. She was many years senior to him. Until he was forty, Muhammad was not known to many, though his qualities were admired by those who knew him. He was honest and reliable man and had a high sense of duty .He spent a month every year in meditation in a mountain cave; and it is said that Allah spoke to him on one occasion and told him to get up and go and preach his message to the people.

• Great Flight and Theocracy

At first he preached the reality of God only to a limited number of people. But when he openly condemned idolatry and unbelief and threatened them with hellfire, serious attempt were made to check him. The Meccans decided to take his life. He fled to Medina and this called Hajrat or Great Flight (622AD.) and from this date begins Hijri era. The Meccans attacked Medina for giving shelter to Muhammad but they could do nothing. Muhammad built up a small commonwealth and treated the Jews and Christians kindly .In response to an appeal from Mecca, he organized a large army and marched against idolaters. But again he did not harm to those in Mecca who had ill treated him .He sent embassies to the King of Persia and the Byzantine Emperor asking them to accept Islam. They were treated well and sent back with a large number of presents. When Muhammad found that his mission had been achieved, he made last pilgrimage to Mecca.

He delivered a notable sermon to the assemble Muslims:

".....ye people listen to my words and maintain the same .Know that all Muslim are brothers unto one another. Ye are all brothers .Nothing which belongs to another is lawful unto his brother, unless freely given out of good will. Guard yourselves from committing injustice "Islam means to surrender. Muslims are those who have surrendered to Allah.

• Teachings

The religion preached by Muhammad became famous as Islam, The followers of Islam as known as Muslim. A Muslim is who surrender before Allah. The teachings of Muhammad are found in Koran, which is sacred book of Muslim. It is divided into 114 Sure or Chapter. The Hadith or Hadis is another sacred book of Islam which also contains the teachings of Prophet Muhammad.

• God

Islam is a strictly monotheist religion .It believes in one God having no place for any other God. It is so much conscious of it monotheistic character that Quran reminds us syrah after syrah that there is no God except one called Allah .It is to keep this basic truth always in the mind of every Muslim that Islam makes it a basic duty for every Muslim to repeat the following words before every prayers."There is no God But Allah, and Muhammad is His Prophet (La ilaha ila Ilahu, Muhammed resulu illa)" Also the Imam or the Mullah with a view to remind every Muslim of the basic monotheist character of his religion cries every morning and evening from the top of Mosque," Allahu Akbar, La ilaha illa ilahu, Muhammed rasulu Ilah(God is great, there is no God but Allah, Muhammad is the prophet of God)." Again to emphasize the strict unity or oneness of God Christian trinity is forcefully rejected by Islam and the various Arabic god and goddess are treated ridiculously. It is said in the Quran that Allah alone is the creator of everything. The false God have created nothing, but are themselves created." They will not create even a fly, even if they join together to it."

• World

The World is the creation of God. Everything in it- the rivers, the mountains, the trees, the animals, the birds and every other things- has been created by God. The Quran repeatedly reminds man that he is surrounded everywhere by thing created by God. Everything in the world speaks of God's glory. However, Islam does not seem' to accept the Genesis story of creation although like many other Biblical stories, the Genesis story of creation is narrated in Quran. According to it, no one can say how God has created all that we find in the world .It also does not expressly maintain that God has made the World out of material lying beyond or outside him. It simply says that everything has been made by God. The question of how? Is left unanswered, perhaps implying thereby that it is all mystery.

However, the world is real ant not illusory. It is finite and temporal. It is not co- eternal with God .It has been created in time .But again time did not pre-exist .Both space and time have been created by God himself. The world exists at God's sweet will. Whenever he will like he will destroy it. The world absolutely depends upon God and nothing can a happen in it without God' will and knowledge. The world will not stay even for moment without God's support. His presence can be felt everywhere in the world.

• Man

Clearly man, with everything else in the world, is creation of God .It is said in the Quran, that man has been created from "clots of blood" .In every first revelation that Mohammad is reported to have had through Gabriel, it is mentioned that man was created by God from clots of blood. Man according Islam is the real unit of existence.

Although he has been created by God and is absolutely dependent upon him still he exists as a separate reality. But his status is very significant before God. His only job is to serve the God in humble submission .Man is possessed of right against God; he as only duties. His only duty is only prey and serves God. Even during prayer he is not to ask for anything from God except God's grace and guidance. This shows that there is no free will in Islam .However, man is very significant before God and will forever remain so. Even when man will attain nearness to and companionship with God in heaven, he will remain finite and very much limited in comparison with God .He will never be as perfect as God is. Thus, it may be seen that in

Islam man has God in relation to God as status which is much inferior to that got by man in Hinduism and to great extent, in Christianity too.

• Evil and Suffering

As Islam is strictly monotheistic and repeatedly emphasis the absoluteness and all powerfulness of God, it is quite easy to see that whatever is there in the world is God's creation and everything lies within his control and power. Truly, God has power over every single thing, says Quran. And if so, God is clearly directly responsible for the existence of evil and suffering in the world. How can then he be called all compassionate and all merciful. Such question does not really seem to be really raised and answered in Islam. Quran takes suffering in simple and direct terms as it occurs, and not as theoretical problem. The sentiment seems to be that man's sole duty towards God is unconditional, absolute submission and no doubts are to be raised against his plan of work .His ways are inscrutable, and therefore instead of scrutinizing his ways one is simply to bear them in perfect piety. God is in full control of world and therefore suffering must be a part of his plan or purpose .It would be simply irreligious and impious to question the merit of God's plan .However, the Quran seems to decipher at places God's purpose behind allowing the existence of evil in the following two ways.

(1) Suffering is a punishment for sin.

(2) Suffering is a trial or test for faithfulness in God.

The first one, however raises, the problem of distribution and therefore the second one is to be regarded as more important. It asserts that by inflicting pain and suffering on people, God actually want to test their endurance and depth of their faith in him. There are people who seems to believe that God only half-heartedly on a kind of experimental basis. If as consequence of their faith and prayer, they are rewarded by God, they continue to have faith in him, and otherwise they turn unbelievers. Such people are not regarded by God as believers, and it to distinguish such fen sitters from real believers that God has allowed evils to exist. As the Quran says in this connection-

"There are some among men who serve God on an edge.

If good befalls them they are well-content,

If a trial befalls them they turn completely rand.

They have lost this world and the next;

That is an unmistakable loss."

This evil according to Koran seems be a necessary part of God's purpose. It discriminates between the sincere and the insincere and, in effect, not only forms character, but also exposes that.

• Life after Death

The Islamic eschatology seems to be a combination of Zoroastrian and Judaic ideas in this respect. It mainly consist in the ideas of the days of final judgment, the rising of the dead from the graves and God's assigning to the souls their share either in heaven or in hell according to their deeds in their earthly lives .Islam believes that man's life does not come to a final end with his physical death. Though his physical body is consumed by the earth in the grave, yet one aspect of his being, the spiritual aspect, remains uncorrupted till the last days when world comes to an final end.

In the intermediary period, the soul's rests in a place called Al-Berzak. When exactly these final days of world's doom will come is known to nobody except God, but whenever it actually comes it will be announced by the blow of a trumpet. These days is called the days of Judgment. On this day, all the dead rise from their graves. Their soul reunites with their bodies and brought before Allah by his angles for their final scrutiny of their deeds in the world. Those whose good deeds balance over bad deeds are rewarded by the God by having a place near him in the heaven and those whose evil deede over-balance the good ones are eternally damned to hell.

Heaven and hell are really very graphically described in the Quran. Heaven is planted as a rose bed of pleasure and hell as an unending abyss of terrible pain and suffering briefly, speaking, heaven is described as a place of green meadows, beautiful garden, running waters, , orchard filled with ripe fruits, and so on. Hell is pictured at place of fearful torments. Scorching fires are burning everywhere along with bodily waters. He has Passover a bridge called "Ahirat. For those awarded hell, the passage of the become a like sword' s edge. Thus heaven and hell in Islam are the place of eternal pleasure or eternal damnation meant for good and bad people respectively. The above gives us an idea of simple and straightforward eschatological beliefs that muslim have. There are clearly based on the simple idea of retribution. God is finally painted in the light of these as an impartial ruler and judge.

• Human Destiny

It is clear from simple and straight forward eschatology of Islam outlined above that the destiny of man lies in assuming the eternal membership either of heaven or of hell in accordance with ones good or bad deeds on earth. However, quite assuredly, the end to be aspired after by a man is the attainment of heaven where he has the occasion to live in the company of God and his angles in eternal pleasure Like God, and his angles, man lives in the heaven in pure spiritual form without any physical body. He therefore, is free there from all limitations of the body and bodily behavior Nevertheless, even there man is not free from finiteness In no condition, he attains a status equal to God. Man always remains finite in relation to the infinite God, although he no longer suffers from the limitations of finiteness. What Islam actually wants to emphasize here is that man never attains a status equal to God.

• Islamic Discipline

The most important factor in giving Islam its distinct character is rigorous discipline of daily life. In this sense Islam may be regarded as an out and out legalistic religion.

Consequently, much of the Islamic discipline consists of teaching its people definite ways of sincere devotion and prayed to God .It also consist within itself elements of self purification and liberality. Thus the Islamic discipline may be taken both as a religious and ethical discipline simultaneously. It consists in the following five duties known as the' Five Pillars of Islam.

(1) Repetition of Faith in the absolute oneness of Allah- As strict monotheistic religion, Islam prescribes it to be the basic duty of every Muslim that before every prayer he should repeat the following words -" La ilaha illa Iahu, Muhammad resul Ilah." (There is no God but Allah and Muhammad is his prophet) This repetition is intended not merely as a remittal of word's quite unmindfully but as reaffirmation of the wholehearted conviction that Allah is the only supreme God and that this important message has been brought to the people of the world by the

revered Mohammad.

• Daily Prayer

The observance of set of prayers five times a day-morning, noon, after noon, evening and in night is another pillar of Islam. Every Muslim expected to take as his basic duty praying to God unfailingly five times a day at appointed hours. In prayer, a Muslim has to face towards Mecca. Each complete set of prayer is called rakah and consist of eight set of devotions. It starts with the proclamation "Allahu Akbar" (God is Great) and then opening surah of Quran (Praise to God, Lord of Worlds, the compassionate, the Merciful..... etc) is recited. The prayer is completed by uttering once again the basic creed: There is no God, but Allah, and Mohammad is his Prophet. Daily prayers have great importance in Islam. They are regarded as "Key to Paradise." It is said God has promised to take into Paradise him who keeps the five prayers and omits none "

• Alms- giving

Giving Alms to the poor and needy is another essential duty of all Muslims. It was recommended by Muhammad from the very beginning as a mark of piety and liberality towards poor, but later on it took the form of a regular religious tax, called Zaka,t for the support of the poor. Various formulae for the giving of gift have been worked out in Islam .Sometimes one-tenth and sometimes or twentieth of one's land income is to be gifted.

• Fasting

Another important religious rite to be observed by a Muslim is fasting during the whole month of Ramadan, i.e. the ninth month of every lunar year. This consists in refraining from any kind of food or drink between sunrise and sunset. Eating is allowed in the night. The fast of Ramadan is strictly to be observed by every Muslim. However, children, the sick and the traveler are made expectations. It is believed that this fasting remits all kinds of sin committed during whole year.

11.5 Political impact of Globalisation

Pilgrimage to Mecca at least once during life time is regarded in Islam as an essential religious duty. The pilgrimage to Mecca is required to put on a definite prescribed dress at a proper post on the route and has to perform definite rituals at Mecca. The pilgrimage prescribed dress is: two seamless white garments, a waist-wrapper from navel to knee and a shawl covering the left shoulder, and tied under the right. Rituals amongst others, on insist in walking or running seven times 'round the Kabba, kissing the Black stone each time; casting stones at three pillars at Mina; sacrificing of a sheep goat or camel, meat being given to the poor, etc. Ten days are occupied with various such performances and prayers, and all are done, the pilgrim put off his sacred robe (Ihram) and wears his normal dress. The reward for taking the pilgrimage is a secured place in Paradise. The sixth pillar is also called Holy War (Jihad) Islam advises a war against the unbelievers. Quran Itself seems to provide sanction to such holy wars. Immediate award of Paradise is promised to those who dies in holy wars .However, modern Islam does not seem to subscribe to such a view of Jihad.

• Principal Sects

Muhammad himself is said to have predicted that his followers would divide in to 72 different sects. Time showed that the actual number far exceeded his prophecy. However, the most important divisions of Muslim have been between the Shias and Sunnis. The ground of this division seems more to be political rather than doctrinal.

Both Sunni and Shias Muslims share the most fundamental Islamic belief article of faith. The differences between these two main sub-groups within Islam initially stemmed not from spiritual differences, but political ones. Over the centuries, however, these political differences have spawned a number of varying practices and positions which have come to carry a spiritual significance. The division between Shias and Sunni dates back to the death of the Prophet Muhammad, and the question of who was to take over the leadership of the Muslim nation. Sunni Muslims agree with the position taken by many of the Prophet's companions, that the new leader should be elected from among those capable of the job. This is what was done, and the Prophet Muhammad's close friend and advisor, Abu Bakr, became the first Caliph of the Islamic nation. The word "Sunni" in Arabic comes from a word meaning "one who follows the traditions of the Prophet."

On the other hand, some Muslims share the belief that leadership should have stayed within the Prophet's own family, among those specifically appointed by him, or among Imams appointed by God Himself. The Shias Muslims believe that following the Prophet Muhammad's death, leadership should have passed directly to his cousin/ son-in-law, Ali bin Abu Talib. Throughout history, Shia Muslims have not recognized the authority of elected Muslim leaders, choosing instead to follow a line of Imam's which they believe have been appointed by the

Prophet Muhammad or God Himself. The word "Shias" in Arabic means a group or supportive party of people. The commonly-known term is shortened from the historical "Shias-t-Ali," or "the Party of Ali." They are also known as followers of "Ahl-al-Bayt" or "People of the Household" (of the Prophet). From this initial question of political leadership, some aspects of spiritual life have been affected and now differ between the two groups of Muslims.

It is important to remember that despite these differences in opinion and practice, Shias and Sunni Muslims share the main articles of Islamic belief and are considered by most to be brethren in faith. In fact, most Muslims do not distinguish themselves by claiming membership in any particular group, but prefer to call themselves simply, "Muslims."

Shias Muslims believe that the Imam is sinless by nature, and that his authority is infallible as it comes directly from God. Therefore, Shias Muslims often venerate the Imams as saints and perform pilgrimages to their tombs and shrines in the hopes of divine intercession. Sunni Muslims counter that there is no basis in Islam for a hereditary privileged class of spiritual leaders, and certainly no basis for the veneration or intercession of saints. Sunni Muslims contend that leadership of the community is not a birthright, but a trust that is earned and which may be given or taken away by the people themselves.

Shias Muslims also feel animosity towards some of the companions of the Prophet Muhammad, based on their positions and actions during the early years of discord about leadership in the community. Many of these companion san Abu Bakr Umar ibn, Al Khattab, etc.) Have narrated traditions about the Prophet's life and spiritual practice. Shia Muslims reject these traditions) and do not base any of their religious practices on the testimony of these individuals. This naturally gives rise to some differences in religious practice between the two groups. These differences touch all detailed aspects of religious life: prayer, fasting, pilgrimage, etc.

11.6 Impact of Globalisation

- Contemporary and Later Sources
- Quran

What is Quran?

The literary meaning of Quran is" recitation" also Romanized Quran or Koran is the central religious text of Islam. Muslims believe to be a revelation from God .Its scriptural status among a world-spanning religious community, and its major place within world literature generally, has led to great deal of secondary literature on the Quran. Quraninc chapters are called suras and verses are called ayahs.

Muslim believes that Quran was verbally revealed by God to Muhammad through angel Gabriel. Gradually over a period of approximately 23 years, beginning on 22 December 609 CE, when Muhammad was 40, and concluding in 632CE, the year of his death. Muslim regard Quran as the most important miracle of Muhammad a proof of his priesthood, and culmination of a series of divine messages revealed to dam and ended with Muhammad. They consider the Quran to be the only revealed book that has been protected by God from distortion or corruption.

According to tradition a narrative, several companions of Muhammad served as the scribes and were responsible for writing down the revelation. Shortly after Muhammad's death, the Quran was compiled by his companions who wrote down and memorized part of it. These codices had differences that motivated the Caliph Uthman to establish a standard version now known as Uthman's codex, which is generally considered the archetype of the Quran we have today. However, the existence of the variant reading, with mostly minor and some significant variations, and the early un-vocalized Arabic script mean the relationship between Uthman's codex to both the text of today's Quran and to the revelation of Muhammad's time is still unclear. The Quran assumes familiarity with major narratives recounted in the Jewish and Christian scriptures. It summarizes some, dwells at length on others and, in some cases, presents alternative accounts and interpretations of events. The Quran describes itself as a book of guidance. It sometimes offers detailed accounts of specific historical events and it often emphasizes the moral significance of an event over its narrative sequence. The Quran is used along with hadith to interpret sharia law. During prayers, the Quran is recited only in Arabic.

Someone who has memorized the entire Quran is called Hafiz. Some Muslims read Auaranic ayaha (verses) with elocution, which is often called towed. During the month of Ramzan, Muslims typically complete the recitation of the whole Quran during tarawith prayer. In order to extrapolate the meaning of a particular Quranic verse, most Muslim relies on the tafsir.

11.7 Summary		
•	Articulate personal reflections on the significance of faith in Islam, including the impact	
of religious practices on daily life.		
•	Reflect on the importance of tolerance, inclusivity, and respect for diversity within	

- the context of Islamic teachings and Muslim communities.Discuss the concept of social responsibility in Islam and explore ways in which
- Discuss the concept of social responsibility in Islam and explore ways in which individuals can contribute to the betterment of society based on Islamic principles.
- These learning objectives aim to provide a comprehensive understanding of Islam, encouraging critical thinking, application of knowledge, and fostering positive interfaith relations.
- Adjustments can be made based on the specific educational level and goals of the learning program.

• Learning objectives for studying Islam may vary depending on the educational level, context, and specific goals of the curriculum.

11.8 Key Terms

- Fakir: literally means, "poor man"; member of a Muslim monastic order
- Five Pillars: the basic obligations individual Muslims observe
- **Hadith:** Aribic for "speech, news, event"; refers to the narratives of whatMuhammad said, did, or was like when he established the first Muslimcommunity in Medina.
- **Hajj:** pilgrimage each Muslim is supposed to make once in a lifetime tothe shrines in and around Mecca

11.9 Self Assessment Questions

- 1. What is the central creed of Islam?
- 2. What are the Five Pillars of Islam?
- 3. Who is the final prophet in Islam?
- 4. Examine the role of women in Islam, considering both historical perspectives and contemporary discussions.
- 5. Explain the concept of Tawhid and its significance in Islamic theology.
- 6. Trace the life of Prophet Muhammad and the events leading to the revelation of the Qur'a

11.10 Further Readings

- Karen, Armstrong. Islam: A Short History, New Delhi, 2004.
- Marshall ,G.S. Hodgson. *The Venture of Islam: Conscience and History in a World Civilization*, Culcutta, 2010.
- Gerhard, Bowering. Islamic Political Thought: An Introduction, Delhi, 1996.
- Ayse, Parman. *Islamic Art and Architecture: The System of Geometric Design*, The Cambridge Companion.

Unit-12Regional Security and Alliances: The Concept of
Regional Security, CENTO, SEATO, ASEAN, SAARC

STRUCT	STRUCTURE	
12.1	Learning Outcomes	
12.2	Introduction	
12.3	CENTO	
12.4	SEATO	
12.5	ASEAN	
12.6	SAARC	
12.7	Summary	
12.8	Key Terms	
12.9	Self Assessment Questions	
12.10	Further Readings	
12.1 Learning Outcomes		

- Evaluate how Islamic teachings address contemporary issues such as gender roles, social justice, and environmental ethics.
- Demonstrate an understanding of how to perform basic Islamic rituals, such as prayer and fasting, in accordance with Islamic teachings.
- Engage in respectful and informed dialogue with people of different faiths, recognizing commonalities and understanding potential areas of disagreement.
- Identify and comprehend the significance of Major Prophets in Islam, including Adam, Noah, Abraham, Moses, and Jesus.

12.2 Introduction

The cultural flowering of Islam began at the time when Europe, except for the Byzantine Empire, was in a state of disintegration—the Dark Ages. When Europe at last began to emerge from the doldrums, it was in great measure due to the efforts of Muslims, who had collected and translated into Arabic many of the ancient Greek philosophical and scientific works.

Although Europeans during the Middle Ages benefited from Islamic treatises on medicine, geography, mathematics, astronomy, and philosophy, they did not become acquainted with the original literary creations of the Muslim world. Even today, the rich heritage of Islamic literature is hardly known in the West, except for a few examples such as the Koran, the holy book of Islam; the *Thousand and One Nights*, or *Arabian Nights*; the *Rubáiyát* of Omar Khayyám; and the 20th-century works of Khalil Gibran. This unfamiliarity is due in part to the fact that almost all of this literature was written in languages that often were quite difficult to translate, in part because they used an alphabet in Semitic script.

12.3 CENTO

The difficulty of translation applied especially to Islamic poetry, which for centuries used traditional, rigid, and distinctive forms in a highly stylized way. Prose, in the Western sense of novels, short stories, and dramas, was not known in the Islamic world until the modern period. What prose writing there was also used specific forms, and often it, like poetry, was rhymed. This emphasis on form and style dominated Islamic literature until the early 19th century, frequently to the detriment of content.

Classical Arabic poetry was built on the principle of the monorhyme, and the single rhyme was employed throughout a poem, whether it was long or short. Within the rhyming pattern, there were 16 basic meters in five groupings, but the poet was not allowed to change the meter in the course of a poem. The chief literary types, all poetic forms developed according to traditional rules, were the *qasida*, the *ghazel*, the *qitah*, the *masnavi*, and the *roba i*. In prose, the chief genre was the *maqamah*.

12.4 SEATO

• ASIDA

Developed by pre-Islamic Arabs, the qasida has endured in Arabic literary history up to the present. It consists of an elaborately structured ode of from 20 to 100 verses and maintains a single end rhyme through the entire piece. The poem opens with a short prelude, usually a love poem, to get the reader's attention. This is followed by an account of the poet's journey, with descriptions of his horse or camel and of desert scenes and events. The main theme, at the end, is a tribute to the poet's patron, his tribe, or even himself. After the coming of Islam, the qasida served as an instrument of praise to God, eulogies of Muhammad, and songs of commendation or lament for the saints. It was a type of poem that lent itself to displays of the poet's own knowledge.

• GHAZEL

A love lyric of from five to 12 verses, the ghazel probably originated as an elaboration of the qasida's opening section. The content was religious, secular, or a combination of both.

• QITAH

The qitah is a literary form used for the less serious matters of everyday life. Its main function was for satire, jokes, word games, and codes.

• MASNAVI

The masnavi originated in Persia, a country with its own ancient literary tradition. The term means "the doubled one," or rhyming couplet. The masnavi became very popular because it enabled the poet to tell a long story by stringing together thousands of verses. It was the closest approach to the epic poem that developed in Islamic literature. The Arabs rejected the epic as a form of fiction, which they felt was akin to falsehood.

• ROBA'I

Like the masnavi, the roba'i also has its roots in pre-Islamic Persian poetic tradition. Its form is a quatrain (four-line verse) in which the first, second, and fourth lines rhyme. The most famous example of the roba'i is the *Rubáiyát* of Omar Khayyám.

• MAQAMAH

The most typical expression of the Arabic spirit in rhymed prose was the maqamah. It was used to tell basically simple and entertaining stories in an extremely complicated style. Because the maqamah was frequently used to display the author's wit, learning, and eloquence, it often became so tangled in convoluted terminology and grammar that it was quite difficult to comprehend and therefore almost impossible to translate. Only in the late 19th century, under the influence of translations from the European languages, did its style take on a matter-of-fact manner that made it less artificial.

12.5 ASEAN

• Philosophy of Quran

The Quran describes as" the discernment or the criterion between truth and falsehood" (al-furqan)" the mother book"(umm al- kitab), "the guide" (huda),"the wisdom"(nikmah), "the remembrance"(dhikr) and revelation (tanzil; something sent down, signifying the descent of an object from a higher place to lower place. Another term is al-kitab (the book), though it adjective of "Quran" has multiple transliterations including "quranic", "Koranic" and "quranic", or capitalized as Qaranic, Koranic and Quaranic. The term mu 'shaf (written book) is often used to

refer to particular Qaranic manuscript but is also used in the Quran to identify earlier revealed book. Other transliteration of Quran include "al-Coran", "Kuran", and "al Quran". Islamic tradition relates that Muhammad received his first revelation in the Cave of Hira during one of his isolated retreats to the mountains. Thereafter, he received revelations over a period of 23 years. According to hadith and Muslim history, after Muhammad immigrated to Medina and formed an independent Muslim community, he ordered many of his companions to recite the Quran and to learn and teach the laws, which were revealed daily.

It is related that some of the Quraysh who were taken prisoners at the Battle of Badr regained their freedom after they had taught some of the Muslim the simple writing of the time. Thus a group of Muslim gradually became literate. As it was initially spoken, Quran was recorded on tables, bones and the wide, flat ends of date palm fronds. Most suras were in use amongst early Muslim since they are mentioned in numerous saying by Sunni and Shia sources, relating Muhammad's use of the Quran as a call to Islam, the making of the prayer and the manner of recitation. However, the Quran did not exist in book form at the time of Muhammad's death in 632AD. There is agreement among the scholars that Muhammad himself did not write down the revelation.

• Time

Based on the earlier transmitted reports, in the year 632 AD, after the death of Muhammad, a number of his companions, which knew Quran by heart, were killed in a battle by Musaylimah, the first caliph Abu Bakr. He decided to collect the book in one volume, so that it could be preserved. Zayd ibn Thabit(655AD) was the person to collect the Quran since he used to write the Divine inspiration for Allah's Apostle. Thus a group of scribes most importantly, Zayd, collected the verses and produced a hand written manuscripts of the complete book. The manuscript remained with Abu Bakr until he died. Zayd, reaction to the task and difficulties in colleting the Qaranic material from parchments, palm leaf stalks, thin stones and from men who knew it by heart is recorded in earlier narratives. After Abu Bakr, Hafsa bint Umar, Muhammad widow, was entrusted with the manuscript. In 650AD, the third Caliph Uthmanibn Affan (656Ad began noticing slight difference in pronunciation of the Quran as Islam expanded beyond Arabian Peninsula to Persia. In order to observe sanctity of the text, he ordered a committees headed by Zayd to use Abu Bakr's copy and prepare a standard copy of the Quran.

Thus after 20 years of Muhammad's death, the Quran was committed to written form. The text became model of which copies were made and promulgated throughout the urban centers of the Muslim world. The present form of the Quran text is accepted by Muslim scholars to be the original version compiled by Abu Bakr.

• Debate on Quran

The issue of whether the Quran is eternal or created became a theological debate in the

ninth century. Mu'tazilas, an Islamic school of theology based on reason and rational thought, held that the Quran was created while the most widespread varieties of Muslim theologians considered the Quran to be co-eternal with God and therefore uncreated. Sufi philosophers view the question as artificial or wrongly framed. Muslim believes that wording of the Quran corresponds to that revealed to Muhammad, and according to interpretations of Quran 1519, it is protected from corruption. Muslims consider the Quran to be a guide, a sign of the prophet hood of Muhammad and the truth of the religion.

They argue it is not possible for a human to produce a book like Quran, as the Quran maintains. Respect for the written text of the Quran is an important element of religious faith by many Muslims, reverence. Based on the tradition and a literal and the Quran is treated with interpretation of Quran, some Muslim believe that they must perform a ritual cleansing with water before touching copy of the Quran. Worn out n copies of the Quran are wrapped in a cloth and stored indefinitely in a safe place buried in a mosque, or Muslm Cemetery, or burned and the ashes buried or scattered over water.

• Hadith Literature

In Islamic terminology, the term hadith refers to reports of statements or actions of Muhammad, or of his tacit approval or criticism of something said or done in his presence .It is based on spoken reports that were in circulation in society after the death of Muhammad. Islamic scholars then compiled these hadith together in collections.

Different branches of Islam refers to different collations of hadith, though he same incident may be found in hadith in different collections.

In the Sunni branch of Islam, the canonical hadith collections are the six books, of which Sahih al- Bukari and Sahih Muslim generally have the highest status. The other books are Sunan Abu Dawood, Jami at Trimidhi, Al-Sunan al Sughra and Sunan ibn Majah.However the Malikis, one of the five Sunni schools of thought traditionally reject Sunan ibn Majah and asserts the canonical status of Muwatta Imam Malik.

In the Shia branch of Islam, the canonical hadith collections are the Four Books: Kitab al-Kafi, Man La yahduruhu al- Faqih, Tahdhib al-Ahkam and Al- Istibsar.

In the Ibadi branch of Islam there were two canonical collections of hadith; Jami Sahih and Tartib al-Musnad.

In the Ibadi branch of Islam there are two canonical collection of hadith: Jami Sahih and Tartib al-Musnad,

Ahmadi, who consider themselves a branch of Islam, generally rely on Sunni Hadith collections.

• Works

The two major aspect of a Hadith are the text of the report (the mam), which contains the actual narrative, the chain of narrators(the isnad), which documents the route by the report has

been transmitted. The sanad, literally support, is to be named due to the reliance of the Hadith specialists upon it in determining the authenticity or weakness of the Hadith. The isnad consists of a chronological list of narrators, each mentioning the one form whom they heard the Hadith, until mentioning the originator of the matn along with matn itself.

The first people to hear hadith were companions who preserved it and then conveyed it to those after them. Then the generations following them received it to those after them so on. So a companion would say "I heard the Prophet say such and such." The follower would then say, "I heard a companion say, 'I heard the Prophet."The one after him would then say, "I heard someone say, I heard the heard a Prophet. The one after him would then say, I heard someone say, I heard the Prophet" and soon.

12.6 SAARC

• History

Traditions of the life of Muhammad and the early history of Islam were passed down mostly orally for more than a hundred years after Muhammad's death in 632 AD. Muslim Historians say that Caliph Uthman ibn Affan(The third Khalifa of the Rashidun Empire, or third successor of Muhammad, who had formerly been Muhammad's secretary), is generally believed to urge Muslim to record the hadith just as Muhammad suggested to some of his followers to write down his words and his actions. Uthman's labor was cut short by his assassinations, at the hands of aggrieved soldiers, in 656. No sources survive directly from this period. So we are dependent on what later writers tell us about this period.

By the 9th century, the number of Hadith had grown exponentially. Islamic scholars of the Abbasid period were faced with a huge quantity of miscellaneous traditions, some of them completely contradicting each other. Many of these traditions supported differing views on a variety of controversial matters. Scholars had to decide which Hadith were to be trusted as authentic and which had been invested for political and theological purposes. To do this, they used a number of techniques which Muslims now call the science of Hadith.

Sunni and Shia Hadith collections differ because scholars from the two traditions differs as the reliability of the narrators and transmitters, Narrators who took the side of Abu Bakr and Umar rather Ali, in the disputes over leadership that followed the death of Muhammad, are seen as unreliable by Shia.

Sunni scholars put trust in narrators, Such as Aisha, whom Shia reject .Difference in hadith collections have contributed to difference in worship practice and shari, a law and have hardened the dividing line between these two traditions.

• Extent and nature of Sunni Tradition-

In the Sunni tradition, the number of such text is ten thousand plus or minus a few thousand.

But if, say, ten companions record a text repairing a single incident in the life of a prophet Hadith scholars can count this as ten hadith.

So, Musnad Ahmed, for example, has over 30,000 hadith- but this count includes texts that are repeated in order to record slight variations within the text or within the chain of narrations .Identifying the narrators of the various texts, comparing their narrations of the same text to identify both the soundest reporting of a text and the reporters who are most sound in their reporting, occupied experts of hadith throughout the 2nd century.

In the 3 century of Islam (from225/840 to about 275/889) hadith expert's composed brief works recording a selection of about two-to five thousand such texts which they felt to have been most soundly documented or most widely referred to in the Mustin scholarly community. The 4th and 5th century saw these six works being onnented on quite widely. The auxiliary literature has contributed to making their lucy, the place of departure for any serious study of hadith. In addition, Bhukari and Muslin in particular, claimed that they were collecting only the soundest of sound badiths. These later scholars tested their claim and greed to them, so that today, they acconsidered the most reliable collections of hadith. Towards the end of 5th century, Ibn al-Qaisarani formally standardized the Sunni cannon in six pivotal works, a delineation which remains to this day. Over these centuries, several different categories of collections came in to existence. Some are more general, like the mu sannaf, the m, and the jami, and some more specific, either characterized by the topics treated like thesumam (restricted to legal-liturgical traditions), or by its compositions, like the urba iniyyat Collections of forty hadiths).

• Extent and nature in the Shia traditions

Shia Muslims do not use the six major hadith collections followed by the Sunni, as they do not trust many of the Sunni narrators and transmitters. They have their own extensive hadith literature. The best known hadith collections are the Four Books which, were compiled by three authors who are known as the Three Muhammad. The Four Books are: Kitab al-Kafi by Muhammad ibn Ya'qub al- Kulayni al Razi (329-AH),Man la yahdurhu al-Faqih by Muhammad ibn Babuya and Al-Tahdhib and Al-Istibsar both by Shaykh Muhammad Tusi. Shia clerics also make use of extensive collections and commentaries by later authors.

Unlike Sunnis, Shias don't consider any of their hadith collections to be sahih (authentic) in their entirely. Therefore, every individual hadith in a specific collection must be investigated separately to determine its authenticity.

To day Usage- The mainstream sects consider hadith to be essential supplement to, and clarifications the Quran,Isalm's holy book as well as for clarifying issues pertaining to Islamic jurisprudence.

Ibn-al-Salah, a hadith specialist, described the relationship between hadith and other aspect of the religion by saying, "It is the science most pervasive in respect to other science in their various branches, in particular to jurisprudence being most important of them".

The intended meaning of other science here are those pertaining to religion, explains Ibn Hajar al Asqalani, "Quarnic exegesis, hadith and jurisprudence. The science of hadith became the most pervasive due to the need displayed by each of these sciences. The need hadith has of its science is apparent. As for Quranic exegesis, then the preferred manner of explaining the speech of God is by means of What has been accepted as a statement of Muhammad. The one looking to this is in need of distinguishing the acceptable from the unacceptable. Regarding Jurisprudence, then the jurist is in the need of citing as an evidence, the acceptable ception of the later, something only possible utilizing the science of hadith.

• Hadith Studles

Hadith studies use a number of methods of evaluation developed by early Muslim scholars in determining the veracity of reports attributed of Muhammad. This is achieved by analyzing the text of the report, the scale of report's transmission, the routes through which report was transmitted, and the individual narrator involved in the transmission. On the basis of this criteria, various classifications were devised for hadith. The earlier comprehensive work in hadith studies was Abu Muhammad al-Ramahurmuzi's al- Muhaddith al -Fasil, while another significant work was al-Hakim al- Naysaburi's Ma rifat ulum al -hadith. Ibn al-Salah's is considered the standard classical reference on hadith studies.

• Hadith Terminology

By means of hadith terminology, hadith are categorized as Sahih(sound and authentic,) dalf weak) or mawdu(fabricated).

Other classification used to include; hasan(good)which refers to an otherwise sahih report suffering minor deficiency. Or a weak report strengthened due to numerous other corroborating reports. Both Sahih und Hassan reports are considered acceptable for usage in the Islamic legal discourse .Classification of hadith may also be based upon the sale of transmission .Report that pass through many reliable transmitters at inch point in the in sad up until their collection and transcription are known as Mutawatir. Those reports are considered the most authoritative as they pass through so many different routes that collusion between all of the transmitters became impossibility. Reports not meeting this standard are known as aahad and are of several type.

Some hadith are also called fladith Qudsi (or Scared Hadith), Like Zyarat Ashurn. It is a cubcategory of hadith which some Muslim regard as the words of God. According to as-Sayyid ash-Shariful- Jurjani, the Hadith Quadsi differ from the Quran in that former are expressed in Muhammad's where the latter are the direct words of God. However, note that a Fladith Qudsi is not necessary Sahih, it can also be considered as Dalf (Weak Hadith) and oven Mawdou.

- The history of the Origin, development and criticism of hadith literature is a subject of Importance as it is fascinating.
- It is important because it serves as an Astonishingly voluminous Nource of data for the history of pre-Islamic Arabia and of early Islam, and for the development of Arable literature, as well as Islamic thought In general and Islamic law particular .
- It also played a decisive role in establishing common cultural frame work for the whole Islamle.
- It continues to exert substantial Influence on the minds of Muslim community.
- It is fascinating because it sheds so much light on the psychology of hadith scholars.
- The traditionalist- the devoutly scrupulous as well as the confirmed forgers, and many of the key political and cultural movements which germinated and developed in the various regions of the Muslim World throughout the complex history.
- It portray a brilliant medieval academic world which gave birth to many European scholarly institution, Including the doctorate and bacen laureate,
- Justice among the mankind and nations, the condemnations of nggression, and the ideal of global pence. All this moreover, is linked resolutely to the weared, to a consciousness of man's exalted meaning and destiny, which seems to mark the Muslim out today more than ever before.

12.8 Key Terms

- Khadija: Muhammad's wife and the first to accept his teaching
- Koran (Qur'an): literally means, "reading," "recitation"; Muslim scripture
- **Mahdi**: literally means, "the guided one"; in Islam in general, a descendant of Muhammad who will restore justice on earth. In Shi'ite Islam in particular, a messianic imam who will appear to end corruption.
- Mosque: Muslim house of prayer.
- Muezzin: One who calls the Muslim community to prayer five times a day.
- **Muslim**: literally means, "submitter" (one who submits to the will of God); one becomes a Muslim by utterance of the Shahadah: "There is no God but Allah, and Muhammad is his prophet."
- **Ramadan:** month during which devout Muslims do not eat or drink between sunrise and sunset. The fast celebrates the month in which the Prophet received the Qur'an.
- Shahadah: Creedal statment of Islam: "There is no God but Allah, and Muhammad is his prophet."
- Sharia: the path or way Muslims are to follow; hence, Muslim 'law'

- Shi'ite: literally means, "the party of"; this Muslim group, which accounts for approximately 14% of all Muslims, split from Sunni over the issue of rightful succession to Muhammad
- **Sufi:** literally means, "woolen"; Muslim group that seeks a mystical knowledge of God.
- Wahhabi: Ultraconservative Muslim movement founded in the 18th Century and oppoed to all forms of change within religion and culture.

12.9 Self Assessment Questions

- 1. Who are the four rightly guided caliphs in Islam?
- 2. Who are the four rightly guided caliphs in Islam?
- 3. What does the term "Halal" refer to in Islamic dietary laws?
- 4. What is the significance of the Hajj pilgrimage?
- 5. Discuss the impact of the Qur'an on Islamic law and the development of Sharia.
- 6. Explore the concept of Jihad in Islam, considering both its spiritual and military dimensions.
- 7. Discuss the role of Islam in promoting social justice, charity, and community welfare.

12.10 Further Readings

- Karen, Armstrong. Islam: A Short History, New Delhi, 2004.
- Marshall, G.S. Hodgson. *The Venture of Islam: Conscience and History in a World Civilization*, Culcutta, 2010.
- Gerhard, Bowering. Islamic Political Thought: An Introduction, Delhi, 1996.
- Ayse, Parman. *Islamic Art and Architecture: The System of Geometric Design*, The Cambridge Companion.

Block-4: ASIA IN WORLD ORDER

- Unit-13 Arab Israel Conflicts (1947-1978), The Palestine Problem and PLO, The Iranian Revolution, 1978-1979
- Unit-14 India in World Affairs: Indo-Pak Relations, Sino-Indian Relations, Indo-US Relations, Indo-Soviet Relations, India and Nonalignment.
- Unit-15 South-east Asia in World Affairs: The Bandung Conference, 1955, Vietnam War
- **Unit-16** Kampuchia Problem, SinoVietnam conflict, 1979.

Unit-13Arab Israel Conflicts (1947-1978), The PalestineProblem and PLO, The Iranian Revolution, 1978-1979

STRUCTURE

13.1 Learning Objectives
13.2 Introduction
13.3 Arab Israel Conflicts
13.4 The Palestine Problem
13.5 The Iranian Revolution
13.6 Summary
13.7 Key Terms
13.8 Self Assessment Questions
13.9 Further Readings

13.2 Learning Objectives

This unit mainly deals with Economy of Medieval Europe. After going through this unit, you will know-

- Trade and commerce in Medieval Europe
- Trade routes in Medieval Europe
- Economic expansion of medieval Europe
- Industrial development of Medieval Europe
- Urban development and own life I medieval Europe

13.2 Introduction

Revenue administration stands as a critical pillar in the economic structure of any nation, playing a pivotal role in resource mobilization and funding essential public services. It encompasses the policies, processes, and systems through which governments collect, manage, and allocate financial resources. This essay will delve into the multifaceted aspects of revenue administration, exploring its importance, key functions, challenges, and the role it plays in fostering fiscal health and economic stability. Revenue administration is the lifeblood of government operations, enabling the financing of public goods and services. Its significance extends beyond mere fund collection, encompassing the facilitation of economic growth, poverty reduction, and the promotion of social welfare. Efficient revenue administration ensures a stable fiscal environment, enabling governments to meet their financial obligations and implement policies that drive sustainable development.

13.3 Arab Israel Conflict

By the beginning of the fifth century, Roman Empire was no longer a unified political entity. Its eastern provinces came to constitute the Byzantine Empire. Germanic tribes swayed the western provinces of the Roman Empire. The ruler ship of Charlemagne (771-814) extended over France, Central Europe, North Italy and small portion of Spain.

The setting up of dynastic rule in the region followed the rise of Islam in Byzantine, Africa and various parts of Asia .It left its mark on the politics of these regions. The period between tenth and thirteenth centuries in Asia was marked by many changes. The victory march of Mongols was paralleled by the emergency of Sung culture in China, the Koryo in Korea and Heian in Japan. In America indigenous people determined regional politics. Thus, these varied political changes led to regional stability. The feudal polity also generated military conflicts. The starting crusades in eleventh century Europe were an attempt to check the spread of Islam .It opened the Mediterranean to western shipping.

It may also be noted that ruling elites generated demands for weapons, horses and luxurious items. The enterprising merchants met these. The economy of middle ages was based on agriculture. The period also witnessed large scale trading activities. In addition to long distance trade through land, maritime trade also increased by manifold. In all parts of the world, goods were traded but the pattern of trade and commodities involved were quite varied. The period between 1000-1300 A.D, was marked by an expansion of commerce in Europe .In the assessment of Carlo M. Ciolla, this period of great expansion saw urbanization, demographic growth, and usage new technologies and monetization of economy. The Italian merchants rose as intermediaries in developing trade between East and West. The rise of Venice during the tenth century indicated that it served as border market between the Byzantine East, the Muslim South and Catholic West. The growth of Genoa, Pisa, Piacenza, Siena, Florence and Milan in the coming years was due to the spread of trading network. During the period from 14th to 17th century European participation in maritime trade increased. A large number of ports and commercial centers developed in the Indian Ocean and Mediterranean. Portuguese emerged as the main trading nation and started domination trading activities. Large trading companies were established in England, Holland and France.

• Patten of Trade

The trading transactions were in staple commodities, luxurious items, precious metals, horses, weapons and slaves. However nature and volume of local and inter- regional trade was not identical everywhere. India was renowned for exporting spice and cotton clothes. Africa and America were coveted for gold, silver and slaves. Arab traders were active in selling horses, Persian silk and Mediterranean products like clothes, wine and grain in Asia and Eastern Africa.

They also captured slaves who were sold in Mediterranean countries.

During the Ninth century, the Byzantine Empire had trading link with the Slavic countries and it gradually opened up the markets of Russia. Byzantium was the centre of manufacturing luxury goods and was known for its trade in the product of Constantinople like perfumes and silk ware .During this period interregional commercial activity was located on the fringe of Western Europe. The earliest intermediaries in the trade of North Western Europe were Frisians heir trade flowed along the Rhine. Various commodities were traded by them. They carried clothe and fish up the river to pay for grain and wine brought for them .During Ninth and tenth centuries Scandinavians crossed the central Russia. Watershed these traders were instrumental in exporting honey, furs and slaves to the near regularly on their way from Baltic to the Black sea and from there to Byzantium. East. They imported spice, wine, textile and metal work. Thus, oriental luxuries like, textiles, oil and spices were available to the west and latter exported timber, iron and slaves to the west.

In the tenth century Italian merchants played an important role in trade .From the East, the Italians imported silks, velvets, damasks (a sort of woven silk), Russian furs, eastern spices and dyestuffs. These were sold all over western and central Europe .In this way; Italian merchants were mainly engaged in re-exports. They were purchasing goods from East and without additional processing exported them to the Western Europe. However, over a period of time, various city states in Italy developed manufacturing units.

The commerce of North Europe was confined to essential commodities like grain, fish timber. The valley of Somme and Seine supplied grain. When Germans colonized lands to the east of the Elbe, at that time, Prussia and Poland emerged as main granaries of Europe. In the Baltic, fisheries of Skania, off the South Coast of Sweden supplied fish to Western Europe. The wine trade of Bordeaux was wide spread. Timber was carried from the well-wooded countries around the Baltic to the plain of Flanders and the Netherlands. The towns of Northern Germany acted as intermediaries from Bay of Bourgneuf.

The trade in Southern Europe forged trading link between Muslim world and western merchants. While former purchased Frankish and Scandinavian swords. European timber, iron, tin and copper, later traded in cloth and spices.

In Western Europe, widening of trade network marked ninth and tenth century. The Arab Merchants regularly reached the Slav lands. The Slavonic states of Moravia, Bohemia, Poland and Russia developed trade in slaves, furs, honey, and wax. Russian emerged as principal trading broker and served as the clearing house for other Slavonic and Baltic Countries. During Twelfth Century, Novgorod became the main centre of trade with Baltic. In this trade, beeswax, fur and silver occupied an important place.

During this period, fabrics of Flanders reached Bohemia and in the next century,

Bohemia imported cloth from cologne, Aachen, Mainz and other towns. It had trading link with Poland and Hungary. There was export of mining products and cattle from Hungary to upper Germany, Italy and, Vienna. During the thirteenth century, metal and luxury goods were exported to Bruges from Poland.

The region of Low Countries was also an important area of trade. While the Flanders was first to develop cloth manufacturers, they faced stiff competition from Brabant in thirteen century. It resulted in the manufacturing of middle quality cloth by Flanders. There was important wool from England and Spain to meet the growing demand of the Mediterranean region.

During fourteenth century, the main currents of commerce were from East to West along the Mediterranean, North to Baltic Sea .In the pre contact period, extensive trading networks existed in America. In the Lawrency valley, hurons played an important role in fur trade. The commerce of Mesoamerica was extensive Tenochtitlan (Presently Mexico city) received turquoise and silver from New Mexico. The Aztecs in return traded in various commodities accumulated from different places. They obtained rubber from Vera Cruz, chocolate from Chiapas, jagnar pelts and honey from the Yucatan, gold from Nicaragua, cacao from Honduras or El Salvador and gold from Costa Rica. The Mayan commerce was in luxury goods such as leather work and skins. The advent of colonial rule in this region and Africa during the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries by Spain and Portugal also changed the very nature of commerce.

During the period under study, the volume of inter regional trade was not very large. The majority of European population was still dependent on local products. The mass movements of goods in Middle Ages was dependent on heap water transport. In 1227, for instance, England exported 35,000 sacks of wool. Sweden was exporting 10,0000 tons of herrings annually to the Hanse towns .In return 24,000 tens of salt was imported. Wine exports from Bordeaux reached 10,0000 tons annually. Large scale trade to Europe in Spies, textiles, indigo, sugar and saltpeter were highlight of 16- 17th century. Almost all these commodities were taken from India and other parts of Asia.

• Center of Commercial activity: Markets and Fairs

The commercial commodities were carried through specific centers of exchange and trade. These can be traced in some form or the other to prehistoric times. We have reference from ancient times from almost all cultures about the existence of periodic market at local levels. Some of these had specific commodities of trade while others had a range of them.(In India these temporary markets called haat or penth were held in all parts of the country throughout history and continue in various forms even at present. With the development of settled society regular and fixed centers for trading purposes also emerged side by side with periodic markets.

The growth of urban centers and large scale transaction spread over large regions brought into about a big change in these trading centers or market. We intend to intend to go detail of the evolution process of the commercial centers. Here we would focus on centers of exchange which in medieval world are classified in two broad categories of market and fairs.

• Markets

The growing commercial activities in the medieval period saw, first growth of market and towns. Almost all the towns had market and in case of bigger towns there were more than one market. All the big towns of Europe, London, Paris, Moscow, Barcelona, Venice, Madrid, Lisbon, Bavaria, Cologne, Lyons etc. had big markets often spreading with the growth of towns or in many cases growing markets were expanding the limits of the town .Market in big towns specialized in certain commodities corn, fish, beef, cloths, livestock (generally on the outskirts) wine, cheese, and butter, fruits and vegetables. It is estimated that in 16th and 17th centuries England and Wales had around 800 localities with regular markets. Of these 300 confined themselves to single trade. 133 to grain trade, 26 to malt; 6 to fruit;92 to cattle market; 32 to sheep; 13 to horses; 14 to swine; 30 to fish;21 to wildfowl and poultry; 12 to butter and cheese; over 30 to wool; 8 to linel. The regular fairs were in addition to these. The situation was not very different in other countries of Europe. It is estimated that during the end of 16th century there were 3200 towns in India. Almost all of them had markets and bigger ones more than one. Banarasidas merchant report around 1600 A.D that each of Jaunpur's fifty two paragons had a bazaar and a mandi. The same was true of almost all regions. Surat, Agra, Lahore, Multan, Patna, Dacca, Delhi, Bijapur, Masulipatnam, Broach, Cambay, Dindigul were centers of international trade.

It is reported that Agra was bigger than London during the reign of Akbar. The craftsman thronged to urban centers to sell their products. The exchange of commodities can be illustrated from the example of Delhi in 14th century. The horses reached here from Khurasan via Multan. The city obtained grain from as far as Amroha. (UP) wines from Kol (Aligrah) and Meerut, betel leaf from Dhar in Malwa, ordinary cloth from Awadh (Ayodhya) muslin Devagiri, stripped cloth from Bengal and Brocade from as far as Tabriz in Iran. The Arab world was dotted with markets in all big towns. Towns like Aden, Jeddah, Istanbul, Hormuz, Baghdad, Mecca, Basra had markets which attracted traders from Central Asia, Africa, and India. The special feature of Chinese merchants was that they moved from one market to another with their goods. In Egypt, Cairo had more than thirty markets. Even Latin America had their own markets when the European colonizers arrived there in Mexico, Brazil, and Argentina. These further grew in size and the commodities they traded in also increased after the Arrival of colonizers.

Almost all the medieval trade had network within region and across region. The village, small town and big cities had regular flow of commodities. Peddlers, small merchants and bi merchants all had their own specialized trading commodities which found their ways to specific destinations.

Tapan Roy Choudhary classifies Indian market in 16th-17th century into four main types) the emporia for long distance trade, inland, overland or overseas; 2) small sale bazaars where goods were gathered from places within a short radius primarily for purpose of local consumption and mandi or wholesale markets; 3)periodic fairs here specialized traders met together to sell and replenish their stocks but consumer were not excluded;4) truly isolated rural market where the local surplus produce was exchanged among the producers and consumers. Probably more or less similar pattern was in other regions in the medieval world.

13.4 The Palestine Problem

• Fairs

To begin with fairs were mainly related to mere religious and ritual festivals and celebrations. With the expansion of trading activities, most of them became centers of commercial activities also. These fares were of varying sizes attracting people of particular region, across region and across countries. The frequency of holding fairs was also not uniform. It could be monthly, one in a month, twice a year or once a year .In some cases it could be even once in a few years. Many of these were held in particular season or times a time of the year. As far as the availability of items of trade is concerned, some fairs were known for specific commodities. The range of commodities in periodic market and fairs was very wide. These included slaves, cattle of all sorts, grains, arms, crafts, produce to precious or luxury goods.

As volume of trade grew and was connected with international trade, relationship between markets and fairs became more explicit. Initially fairs were connected with religious celebrations but gradually it became centre of trade. The Lendit fair held in June at St Denis in eleventh century was a religious fair. It was the abbey of St Denis, which obtained sanction from the royalty to hold the fair .Between 1109 and 1112, Louis VI instituted another fair in the plains of Denis. After1213, both fairs were emerged in to a single fair. The Lendit fair held in June at St Denis, in eleventh century was religious fair. It was the abbey of St. Denis, which obtained sanction from the royalty to hold the fair. Between 1109 and 1112, Louise VI instituted another fair in the plains of St Denis. In the eleventh century, Flanders fair at Torhout became centre of intensive commercial and industrial activity.

It was the fairs of Champange, which became foci of international trade. The information about these is available from 14 onwards. It was in the thirteenth century that they assumed the classic form. The six fairs were held in four towns of the countries of Champange and Brie. The merchant of France, Italy, England, Germany, Switzerland and Savoy brought clothe, woolen, silk, leather, fur, lines, spices, wax, sugar, wine, and horses for in fairs. From 1250 onwards Genoa became the centre of trade. The fairs of Troyes, Province, Lagny, and Bar-Sur-Aube also attracted merchants from distant places. There are claims to the continuity of fairs for centuries: Lendit fair was traced to 9th century. Troyes fairs to Roman times and Lyons fair to 172 AD. "In Europe Sully-sur-Loire near Orleans,

Most of the times merchants came with lots of bills of exchange and they were settled here. The exchange rates were fixed here by big merchants from different currencies. By 18th century the fairs began to decline in Europe as great centers of commercial activities. Though many of them continued but more as tradition and fun and less in commercial importance.

• Commercial Practices

The growth of trading activities and long distance trade over land and seas made the commercial transactions complex. The trading transitions entailed numerous risks. There was fear of sea-pirates and natural disasters at sea. The required capital was to be generated for purchasing of goods. Money was needed for buying commodities in distant places and sale proceeds were also to be carried back. It was difficult to carry huge amount of gold currency to distant areas. As a result a number of new commercial practices and institutions emerged to take care of the growing trade.

• Credit and Money Lending

The system of credit was widely prevalent in the trading activities. Even at the regional and local levels the wholesalers would give things on credit to retailers and latter in turn to the consumers. In small business the small traders, middlemen and suppliers were always at the brink. If the sum was not paid back it could ruin the creditor. The growth of trade necessitated the funding for large scale commercial transactions. To begin with this funding was provided by big merchants. In due course it emerged as a specialized activity with separate category of money lenders. However, most of big merchants continued to deal in providing money on credit. In case of India the nobles (high officers of the state) also lended money for trading. They dealt in big amounts and gave it to established merchants only. In many parts of Europe also the nobles were involved in providing funding for business.

The practice of granting maritime loan to a ship owner or merchant was existing in Europe for a long time. Such loan was repaid only after the vessel or Cargo had arrived safely at agreed destination. The maritime loan was of great advantage. It offered credit and insurance to the borrower. But the rate of interest on it was very high. In around 1230, this loan was banned by the church. However the practice I continued by converting it into an exchange contract. Pierre Courou has pointed out several devices used by Italian merchants for generating capital. There was use of Commenda, a periodic partnership for one season. The evidences available from Venice of eleventh century indicate that Commenda was a "partnership" concluded between a financer and a merchant. While the former provided the capital, latter under took journey for conducting trade. There also existed another type of partnership between merchants. It was called colleganza. Under this arrangement, one merchant provided only the capital, another merchant, while providing capital was also involved in trade. The massive collection of Genoese notarial documents indicates that the Commenda declined in Genoa by the latter half of the thirteenth century. The Compagnia or partnership replaced it. Initially such partnership brought together family members having capital but gradually these gave way to Corpidi: Compagnia or Capital of the society. These were open to individuals who wished to invest their capital for trading transactions.

The payment of debts was also an integral part of commercial transactions .Often merchants either did not carry cash or were short of resources to purchase commodities. They had to borrow and debts were cleared during the fairs. The available records show that at the fairs, payment was done on the last day. The transactions were recorded. These written writs guaranteed the clearance of debts by merchants who had borrowed money. In this way credit system developed. It was not dependent on the transportation of Coins. Henry Pirenne has rightly observed that the fair acted as an embryonic clearinghouse for the European economy.

A certain interest was charged by the lenders from the debtor. In Europe the Christian Church had prohibited lending money at interest (usury). The church was of the opinion that the only way of making money should be through work and earning profits from money does not have religious sanction. Islam also prohibits charging interest. As a result until 13th century Jews were the main money lenders. A lot of resentment against Jews and their harassment can be ascribed to their money lending business. However, the ban by Church succeeded only partially and many Christian groups (Lombards of Italy was one such group others were Tuscan and Cahor money lenders) still followed money lending and at times camouflaged and circumvented it in various ways (one of the ways was to consider that interest could be charged if lender was running a risk of losing). A distinction was also put forward by articulating that if money is loaned for some personal use charging interest would amount to usury and is sinful while using loan for business to earn more money should not be considered usury and just interest which was legitimate. The instruments of exchange also helped in advancing money with commission built in and escaped the charge of usury.

• Instruments of Exchange, Money Changing and Banking

The use of currency was integral to trading activities. Several methods were devised to issue required currency by the state in different parts of the world. During the Tang and Sung period

in China, apart from coins, paper money and paper credit was also used. As early as 811, the Tang was issuing 'flying cash' to pay for goods acquired in distant areas. These money drafts were reimbursable at the capital. Under the Sung many such drafts were issued. These government money drafts were exchanged between merchants who wished to transfer credits. The private bankers also developed another type of paper money. They used certificates of deposit, which could be cashed for a three percent service charge. Such certificates were circulated freely at face value. Those issued by the bankers of Chengtu in Szechwan were very famous. In 1204, when the government took them over, they became the world's first genuine paper money. These certificates were valid for a period of three years and entailed services charge of three percent. In Tokugawa Japan, individual daimyo used rice and silver certificates as paper money within their domains.

In India merchants used both currency and paper transactions like Hundi. It is important to stress the basis of using currency as the medium of trading transactions during the middle ages. For an understanding of its use, one has to take into consideration, the unit of account and the medium of exchange. The money used in actual payment was first converted into the standard of value and large transactions were always paid by weight. It had direct bearing on the value of a system of coinage. The trading was conducted in different currencies like florins, guilders, ducats, pounds or any other. The specialist money changes used to assess the value of the coin by determining how much precious metal it contained. It may be noted that people accepting coins evaluated them not at their face value but according to their metal content. In such a situation coined money could not act as the comprehensive means of payment in the middle Ages. The crucial role of money changers contributed to their controlling large sums of money and affecting the transfer of funds and even extended time loans to merchants and banker's .Because of varying currencies and their value, role of moneychangers became important. The practice of money changing was in vogue in the Western Europe during the ninth century. In the second half of the twelfth century moneychangers were active in Genoa. They were known as bancherii (word was derived from the bench on which money lenders handled coins). These moneychangers exchanged coins and accepted deposits from their clients. They were paid small amount for safe keeping of money. These deposits were used for clearing debts in faraway places. By the end of twelfth century the bill of exchange also made its appearance. These bills were written by moneychangers and assured the payment abroad in foreign money to merchants. The payment was equivalent of the sum deposited by these merchants with Money changers.

The bill of exchange as already indicated were used to get around the church's prohibition of usury. Here the bills were issued at one place which could be exchanged at

another in some different currency which might have different value. The rate of exchange between the currency having varying value could conceal the interest charged. In India hundi was most important instrument of exchange. Tavernier, a 17th century traveler noted that almost every village had sarraff, who were money changers and acted as banker to make remittances of money and letters of exchange. The hundi in the form of a paper was issued for loans, money deposit or remittance of money from one place to another and was saleable. It carried the amount, the specified period and the place where it was encashable. The interest and other charges (insurance, transmission or exchange charges etc.) depended on the nature of transaction. In Europe the bills of exchange themselves became an instrument of trade.

13.5 The Iranian Revolution

The institution of Banking on a full scale with resident banking establishments came into existence in around 13th century. Italy took the lead and cities like Genoa, Lucca, Florence, Tuscany, Rome and Venice became the centers of banking activity. A large number of family firms established banks in Florence. By the last decade of 13th century Bardi and Peruzzi families of Florence established Banks in England also. Peruzzi had branches in Avignon, Bruges, Cyprus, London, Naples, Paris, Pisa, Rhodes, Sicily, Tunis and Venice. By one estimate by the year 1338 around 80 banking houses were operating in Florence with exchanges in every part of Europe. By the end of 14th and early 15th century a number of European cities had banks of the 15th century. With its headquarter in Florence it established branches in Rome, Naples, Milan, Pisa, Venice, Geneva, Lyons, Avignon, Bruges, London and many other cities, They even became financial agents of the church, extended credit to kings and facilitated international trade in Europe. Banks participated in trade as well as making loans to traders. In fact in the early phase trading was more important than banking.

Another important institution that emerged in late medieval period was Exchange or Stock Exchange which was central to all trading activity. In 1681 it was described as 'the meeting place of bankers, merchants and businessmen. exchange currency dealers and banker's agents, broker and other persons' (Samuel Ricard of. Braudel, p.97). By 16th century every major commercial town in Europe had an exchange. According to Braudel "An Exchange was, relatively speaking, like the top section of a fair, but one in permanent session. Because the important businessmen as well as a host of intermediaries, met here, business of every sort could be transacted: operations in commodities, currency exchange, share holding, maritime insurance where the risk was spread among several guarantors; and it was also a money market, a finance market and a stock market" (Wheels of Commerce, p. 100).

• Accounting

The recording of commercial transactions was essential for regulating trade. In maritime trade, practice of venture accounting was in vogue in Europe. It was a wide spread custom to operate a separate account for each shipment. In maritime trade, role of the scribe who maintained records was very crucial. He maintained the ship's inventory. In it, all items abroad were listed and each transaction was recorded separately. Gradually all items pertaining to an individual were listed together. Such a procedure came to provide a running account. The next development evident in Peruzzi Ledgers (1335-43) was to adopt a style in which all debts were written in the first half and credits in the rear half at the ledger. Italians adopted the double- entry book keeping in fifteenth century. In this way, the development of accounting stabilized monetary transitions.

• Personnel of Trade

The growth of trade and business transaction gave rise to host of commercial activities and persons associated with it. Merchants were central to all these activities. Apart from buying and selling commodities they also acted as money lenders, financiers, money changers, brokers, bankers, commercial agents etc. Most of the time the big merchants performed many of these functions simultaneously. While a few restricted themselves to their specialized area only. The specialization of this sort emerged gradually toward the later medieval period only.

The transactions at local level were directly in the hands of producers. Thus, Monks, fishermen, peasants and landlords acted as "part time merchants". However as trade grew in volume, it came under the control of enterprising merchants. These merchants regulated and even controlled production processes. They enjoyed political power and formed guilds to maintain their hold over trading activities. They used several methods to augment their resources. Jews, Arabs, Italians, Flanders, English, German and Scandinavians played multiple roles in this expanding trade. They made huge fortunes. Henry Pirenne has outlined details from the biography of Godric who was a trader of East Anglia. He lived at the turn of the eleventh and twelfth centuries. Initially, he was a beachcomber but gradually rose to become a substantial merchant. He was also member of a partnership. He renounced wealth in the last years of his life.

With the expansion of trade, number of merchants residing in foreign countries also rose. By the late twelfth century 10,000 Venetians were residing in Constantinople. The Italian merchants came to monopolies the freight and passenger traffic throughout the Mediterranean. They were engaged in several jobs. They were bowmen, sailors, shipwrights, captains of merchant's ships and fleet Admirals, textile manufacturers, mining entrepreneurs, lessees of mints, moneylenders, tax collectors and bankers in the service of the Pope and the kings of England and France. For instance the Florentine Franzesi brothers (Mouche and Biche) were revenue agents of Philip the fair. Under Edward II, Antonio Pessagno, a Genoese handled the royal trade. The Italian merchants collected tithe throughout Europe on behalf of the Pope. They also took care of his commercial transactions. Many of these merchants like Federico Corner, Benedetto Zaccario from Genoa and Francesco Datini from Florence made huge profits. We have already discussed merchants in detail in Unit 25 and will not go into the details of their merchant organizations here.

The trading activities were mainly based on the efforts of individuals or family enterprises. However as trade was regulated across countries, large partnerships were set up. Apart from family members, outsiders were also included as shareholders. The growth of permanent business organizations in different parts of Europe meant that merchants could regulate their commercial transactions through agents and partners.

13.6 Summary

- 14 A broad survey of commercial practices and activities in the medieval world shows that the commercial transactions were in a wide range of commodities like spices, textiles, silk, sugar, precious metals, minerals, horses, weapons slaves and a host of luxury items. Different
- 15 European countries had trading links with each other as well as with China, India, Africa, Latin America, East Asia and the Arab World, Trade circuits were formed at regional level and each circuit was linked with other in the movement of commodities.
- 16 The money economy was very well developed Large numbers of markets and fairs emerged as centers of exchange and became nerve centre of this trade. These markets and fairs had their own specialized commercial practices and personnel operating in them. Over land and overseas trade followed defined trade routes.
- 17 The Maritime trade contributed to manifold rise in the volume of trade. Ship building technology and navigation underwent major changes. The large scale commercial activities gave rise to new commercial practices.
- 18 Financing and money lending became an integral part of international trade .In view of different countries having gold and silver metallic currencies of various denominations money changing developed as a specialized activity.

13.7 Key Terms

• **Bank Rate**- Higher rate (than the REPO rate) at which the RBI gives loans to other banks.

- **Policy-** is a deliberate system of guidelines to guide decisions and achieve rational outcomes.
- **Hyper-inflation** A period of very high rates of inflation, usually leading to a loss of confidence in an economy's currency.

13.8 Self Assessment Questions

- 1. How does taxation influence consumer spending and investment in an economy?
- 2. How does globalization affect taxation systems in different countries?
- 3. How can tax policies be used to incentivize specific economic behaviors?
- 4. Explore the various channels through which taxation policies impact the overall economic activity, including consumer behavior, business investment, and economic growth. Provide examples to illustrate the relationship between taxation and economic outcomes.
- 5. Examine the challenges and opportunities that globalization presents to national taxation systems.

13.9 Further Reading

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<u>Unit-14</u> India in World Affairs: Indo-Pak Relations, Sino-Indian <u>Relations, Indo-US Relations, Indo-Soviet Relations, India and</u> <u>Nonalignment</u>

STRUCTURE

- 14.1 Learning Objectives14.2 Introduction14.3 Trade Route & Economy14.4 Economic Expansion
- 14.5 Summary
- 14.6 Key Terms
- 14.7 Self Assessment Questions
- 14.8Further Readings

14.1 Learning Objectives

- Explore the different forms of taxation, including direct and indirect taxes.
- Analyze the role of social interactions and cultural contexts in shaping language development.
- Investigate the impact of technology, including screen time and interactive media, on language development in children.
- Highlight the link between revenue administration and the provision of essential infrastructure and public services.

14.2 Introduction

Revenue administration stands as a critical pillar in the economic structure of any nation, playing a pivotal role in resource mobilization and funding essential public services. It encompasses the policies, processes, and systems through which governments collect, manage, and allocate financial resources. This essay will delve into the multifaceted aspects of revenue administration, exploring its importance, key functions, challenges, and the role it plays in fostering fiscal health and economic stability. Revenue administration is the lifeblood of government operations, enabling the financing of public goods and services. Its significance extends beyond mere fund collection, encompassing the facilitation of economic growth, poverty reduction, and the promotion of social welfare. Efficient revenue administration ensures

a stable fiscal environment, enabling governments to meet their financial obligations and implement policies that drive sustainable development.

14.3 The Trade Routes

The geographical discoveries made in the middle ages played an important role in the rise of international trade as the new trade routes were discovered. Due to rivalry among the European countries for trade and commerce the merchants crossed the Mediterranean seas and began their trade with foreign countries.

These geographical discoveries showed the European merchants new sea - routes to far-off countries to expand their international trade and commerce. It also helped the rise of mercantilism. Dr Partha Sarathi Gupta says "In this period the overseas trade and inter- regional coastal trade flourished in comparison to the period to 1500 AD. This made the Asian and American products to come within the reach of European People .During this period the technique of- transport improved. Holland and England manufactured improved type of ships. Thus the expansion of trade and commerce was done specially in the coastal foreign trade." Revenue administration stands as a critical pillar in the economic structure of any nation, playing a pivotal role in resource mobilization and funding essential public services. It encompasses the policies, processes, and systems through which governments collect, manage, and allocate financial resources. This essay will delve into the multifaceted aspects of revenue administration, exploring its importance, key functions, challenges, and the role it plays in fostering fiscal health and economic stability.

14.4 Economic Expansion

In the later medieval age the rise of middle class in Europe was responsible for the progress of industries, trade and commerce. The rise of middle class made the contemporary society dynamic. The rise of the middle class in the later Medieval age of European History was an unique event which revolutionized the social life. The process of origin and development of middle class started in later middle ages and continued up 60 18th century. The medieval old political order of Europe was base on feudal system and dissatőiafectionfor it gave rise to the New Order in which the role of middle was most significant. The middle class gradually became rich by their new activities in the field of industry, trade and commerce. The credit of originating and developing the concept of Mercantilism goes to a section of wealthy middle class, who became the capitalist by earning profit, the international trade.

• The Concept of Mercantilism

It's Origin and Development-The word mercantilism is derived from the word' Mercantile' meaning commercial and Mercantilism means commercial scene or the skill of trading or carrying on the business of buying and selling. The word Mercantilism or the Mercantile system was used by he noted economist Adam Smith in his book Wealth of Nations in 1776. Acording DL Sharma, the concept of Mercantilism has the following elements.

• National Profit

The policies of a country should be framed in such a way that maximum share of profit from international trade should go in favor of that country.

• Favorable Balance of Trade

As a result of the policies formulated by a country, the trade balance should be favorable to that country, that is, the export should be more than imports. This profit should be in the form of coins of gold and silver as they replaced the old barter system as hr medium of exchange.

• Custom – Tax

The custom tax so determined as to encourage the import of raw materials and to discourage the import of finished product.

• Export

The export of finished product was encouraged by maintaining quality control and using new technology.

Revenue administration is the lifeblood of government operations, enabling the financing of public goods and services. Its significance extends beyond mere fund collection, encompassing the facilitation of economic growth, poverty reduction, and the promotion of social welfare. Efficient revenue administration ensures a stable fiscal environment, enabling governments to meet their financial obligations and implement policies that drive sustainable development.

Revenue administration is a linchpin in the economic machinery of nations. It goes beyond mere financial transactions, influencing economic stability, development, and the overall well-being of societies. Addressing challenges in revenue administration requires a comprehensive approach that combines technological innovation, policy reform, and international cooperation. As nations strive for fiscal health and economic stability, a robust and adaptive revenue administration system becomes indispensable. The continuous evolution of revenue administration practices is essential to meet the demands of dynamic economic landscapes and ensure a sustainable and prosperous future.

14.5 Summary

- 15 A broad survey of commercial practices and activities in the medieval world shows that the commercial transactions were in a wide range of commodities like spices, textiles, silk, sugar, precious metals, minerals, horses, weapons slaves and a host of luxury items. Different
- 16 European countries had trading links with each other as well as with China, India, Africa, Latin America, East Asia and the Arab World, Trade circuits were formed at regional level and each circuit was linked with other in the movement of commodities.
- 17 The money economy was very well developed Large numbers of markets and fairs emerged as centers of exchange and became nerve centre of this trade. These markets and fairs had their own specialized commercial practices and personnel operating in them. Over land and overseas trade followed defined trade routes.
- 18 The Maritime trade contributed to manifold rise in the volume of trade. Ship building technology and navigation underwent major changes. The large scale commercial activities gave rise to new commercial practices.
- 19 Financing and money lending became an integral part of international trade .In view of different countries having gold and silver metallic currencies of various denominations money changing developed as a specialized activity.

13.6 Key Terms

- **Bank Rate** Higher rate (than the REPO rate) at which the RBI gives loans to other banks.
- **Policy-** is a deliberate system of guidelines to guide decisions and achieve rational outcomes.
- **Hyper-inflation** A period of very high rates of inflation, usually leading to a loss of confidence in an economy's currency.

13.7 Self Assessment Questions

- 1. How does taxation influence consumer spending and investment in an economy?
- 2. How does globalization affect taxation systems in different countries?

- 3. How can tax policies be used to incentivize specific economic behaviors?
- 4. Explore the various channels through which taxation policies impact the overall economic activity, including consumer behavior, business investment, and economic growth. Provide examples to illustrate the relationship between taxation and economic outcomes.
- 5. Examine the challenges and opportunities that globalization presents to national taxation systems.

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<u>UNIT-15</u> <u>South-East Asia In World Affairs: The Bandung</u> <u>Conference, 1955, Vietnam War</u>

STRUCTURE

- 15.1 Learning Objectives
- 15.2 Introduction
- 15.3 Colonial Trade
- 15.4 Industrial Production
- 15.5 Summary
- 15.6 Key Terms
- 15.7 Self Assessment Questions
- 15.8 Further Readings

15.1 Learning Objectives

- Changing Economic Landscapes
- Role in Economic Stability and Development
- Fiscal Policy and Economic Management
- Understand the challenges and opportunities associated with managing cross-border transactions.

15.2 Introduction

Revenue administration stands as a critical pillar in the economic structure of any nation, playing a pivotal role in resource mobilization and funding essential public services. It encompasses the policies, processes, and systems through which governments collect, manage, and allocate financial resources. This essay will delve into the multifaceted aspects of revenue administration, exploring its importance, key functions, challenges, and the role it plays in fostering fiscal health and economic stability. From the foundational years of early childhood to the specialized realms of higher education and beyond, individuals continually refine their cognitive abilities, critical thinking skills, and capacity for lifelong learning. Nurturing intellectual development is not only essential for personal growth but also plays a pivotal role in equipping individuals to navigate the complexities of an ever-changing world. As we embrace the challenges of the future, fostering intellectual development remains a cornerstone for building a society characterized by innovation, adaptability, and intellectual curiosity.

• Use of Political power

The Political power may be used to wage diplomatic war against the rival mercantile powers and to establish colonies to procure raw material. This was the aggressive elements of the concept of mercantilism to get commercial gain.

15.3 Monopoly of Colonial Trade

The country which established colonies should monopolizes the colonial trade. The above mentioned elements evolved the concept of Mercantilism which were regarded necessary to make prosperous and powerful by developing it s trade and commerce. The above mentioned elements evolved the concept of Mercantilism which was regarded necessary to make a country prosperous and powerful by developing its trade and commerce. But this concept of mercantilism could be not be accepted later when government adopted the policy of laissez faire. 1.4.3 Historical Background of Mercantilism

The new concept of trade and commerce or Mercantilism can be better understood in the background of medieval economies life, Dr Lal Bahadur Verma while giving this background says" The medieval economic life was comparatively very simple and organized because of two reasons:

- (i) Economic life was based mainly on agriculture, and
- (ii) (ii) the institutions for regulating for regulating economic relations were very few. The Guilds were the only institutions which organized and directed the craftsmen of different craft and vocations.

After 13th century, the journey by businessman and the complexities of trade and commerce increased. The form of both production and distribution began to change. By beginning of 15th century, the method of production was also changed. The sphere of trade was also enlarged. The means and results of trade also increased. The people were attracted towards cities. The wealth was accumulated and the stock companies and banks came to existence. The capitalist system originated .The increased production led to the organization of resources and the labor .Now the trade in later medieval age was not as simple as it was in the first half of the age. The activities of the market associated themselves with the politics and life of the common man. The need for new markets increased the importance of colonies which gave rise to the tendencies of colonialism and Imperialism.

While describing the condition of commerce and trade from 11th century to 14th century Amiya Prasad Sen says," During this period trade on large scale was limited to only two areas. The Mediterranean was controlled by Italy while the trade in Northern Europe was controlled by low lying countries. In the Mediterranean area the trade in Europe was carried on with Eastern Countries from where the spices, were imported to Europe and in exchange of that the articles of wood, iron, ornaments and paper were exported."

However, major change in the form of trade in Medieval Europe was noticed by the end of 13th century. By 1277 A.D, the commercial boats of Geneva made direct contact with Mediterranean sea and Flanders. The tradesmen of Venice and Florence also used this route. The oars and sells were used on these boats and large crew was deployed to protect these boats from sea robbers or pirates. Due to these developments in the sea trade the3 international trade flourished. The Italians had taken initiates in this direction and the credit of establishing Joint Stock Companies and Banks goes to them. The capital investment in industries was limited, so the export import tradesmen felt the need to control the industries. Thus international and intercontinental trade was flourishing by the 14th century.

By the end of 15th century the Mediterranean area of European was most developed commercial area. With American economic aid this state of trade was maintained up to 16th century but in the end of this century the decline of this area began and economic balance shifted in favor of North-West and Atlantic area. The reason of this change was due to the increase in population, the demand for cereals and price-rise the Mediterranean area became dependent on other countries to meet its requirements. The decline of industries and competition from other developing industrial countries were other reasons for this state of affairs .Netherland became pioneer countries in ship-building. The industries like mining, metallurgy, paper- making and ship-building developed in England. The finished product manufactured in France, Netherlands and England began to be exported to foreign markets via Spain.

According to D.E.U, Baker, many countries came within the orbit of the industrial development and trade of England. The capital was accumulated which was free from medieval restrictions imposed on trade and industries. This facilitated the enlargement of the industries and improvement of agriculture. The institutional structure and the trade policy came in to existence which developed trade and commerce in European Countries and abroad.

Thus the trade policy so evolved became the basis of Mercantilism in the later Middle ages of Europe. According to the economist Haine, Alexander and Kanel the rise of Mercantilism was a unique event of the medieval age in Europe which revolutionized of commerce and trade .Later in 18th century two significant changes were noticed in the field of trade. Firstly, in the medieval age the trade was limited to European countries but now it became international which evolved international economy. Secondly, the foreign trade was previously monopolized by Netherlands but now it was replaced by England and France and in their rivalry for trade England became successful in monopolizing international trade.

15.4 Industrial Production

The middle Ages Europe covers the time span from the 5th century AD, marked by the decay of the Roman Empire, to the 16th century, when social and economic factors shifted Europe towards the Modern Era. During the millennium between classical antiquity and the modern period, a series of technological innovations and inventions, which led to the industrial era, took place. Such technological achievements affected directly the extraction of raw materials, such as metal ores and coal, and the growth of the metal output in terms of quantity, as well as quality.

Metal production in medieval Europe may have been affected, decreased or increased, by different factors, but it was never ceased, as different kinds of metal objects were always in demand either in periods of war (e.g. arms and armor) or peace (e.g. implements and tools, coinage, building construction, decoration, bells, ecclesiastical and status items, etc.). Metallurgical activities were also encouraged by central political power, regional authorities, monastic order and ecclesiastical overlords, who always tried to have control and claimed Regalia rights over the mines and a share in the output, both in private lands and regions belonging to the Crown. They were particularly interested in the extraction of the precious metal ores, but not only, and for this reason the mines in their territories were open to all miners (.

• Contents

• Early Middle Ages, 5th to 10th centuries

The social, political, economic stagnation and decline that followed the decadence of the Roman World affected Europe, throughout the early medieval period, and had critical impact upon the technological progress, trade and social organization. Technological developments that affected the course of metal production were only feasible within a stable political environment, and this was not the case until the 9th century. During the first medieval centuries, the output of metal was in a steady decline and constraint in small scale activities. Miners adopted methods much less efficient than those of the Roman times were extracted only from shallow depths or from remnants of former abandoned mines, assuming that the old shafts weren't already sunk. The vicinity of the mine to villages or towns was also a determinant factor when deciding about working on site, because of the high cost of material transportation (Martinon-Torres & Rehren in press, b). It seems like only the output of iron diminished less in relation to the rest of the base and precious metals until the 8th century.

This fact, correlated with the dramatic decrease in. copper production, in particular, may indicate a possible displacement of copper and bronze artifacts from iron ones. (By the end of the 9th century, economic and social conditions, which dictated the increased need of metal for agriculture, arms, stirrups, and decoration, started to favor metallurgy and a slow but steady general progress was noted. Smelting sites were multiplied and new mines were discovered and exploited, like the well-known Mines of Rammelesberg, close to the town of Goslar by the Harz Mountains. Open-cast mining and metallurgical activities were mostly concentrated in the Eastern Alps, Saxony, Bohemia, Tuscany, the Rhineland, Gaul and Spain (Nef 1987). French, Flemish, but mainly German miners and metallurgists were the generators of metal production.

• High Middle Ages, 11th to 13th centuries

The period right after the 10th century, marks the widespread application of several innovations in the field of mining, and ore treatment. It marks a shift to large scale and better quality production. Medieval miners, and metallurgists, had to find solutions for the practical problems that limited former metal production, in order to meet the market demands for metals. The increased demand for metal was due to the remarkable population growth from the 11th to the 13th centuries. This growth had impact on agriculture, trade, and building construction, including the great Gothic churches.

The main concern had to do with inefficient means for draining water out of shafts and tunnels in underground mining. This resulted in the flooding of mines which limited the extraction of ore to shallow depths close to the surface.

The secondary concerns were the separation of the metal bearing minerals from the worthless material that surrounds, or is closely mixed, with it. Also the difficulty of the transportation of the ore, which resulted in additional high costs.

The economic value of mining resulted in investment in the development of solutions to these problems, which had a distinct positive impact on medieval metal output. Such innovations as water power r using waterwheels for powering draining engines, bellows, hammers or the introduction of advanced types of furnaces. These innovations were not adopted at once, or applied to all mines and smelting sites. Throughout the medieval period these technical innovations, and the traditional techniques, coexisted. Their application depended on the time period, and geographical region. Water power in medieval mining and metallurgy was introduced well before the 11th century, but it was only in the 11th century that it was widely applied. The introduction of the blast furnace, mostly for iron smelting, in all the established centers of metallurgy contributed to quantitative and qualitative improvement of the metal output, making metallic iron available at a lower price.

In addition, cupellation, developed in the 8th century, was more often used. It is used for the refinement of lead-silver ores, to separate the silver from the lead). Parallel production with more than one technical method, and different treatment of ores, would occur wherever two ores were present at one site..

Underground work in shafts, although limited in depth, was accomplished either by fire settings, for massive ore bodies, or with iron tools, for smaller scale extraction of limited veins. The sorting of base and precious metal ores was completed underground and they were transferred separately.

• Late Middle Ages, 14th to 16th centuries

By the 14th century, the majority of the more easily accessible ore deposits were exhausted. Thus, more advanced technological achievements were introduced in order to cope up with the demand in metal. The alchemical laboratory, separating precious metals from the baser ones they are typically found with, was an essential feature of the metallurgical enterprise. However, a significant hiatus in underground mining was noted during the 14th and the early 15th century because of a series of historical events with severe social and economic impacts. The Great Famine (1315- 1317), the Black Death (1347-1353), which diminished European population by 1/3, and the Hundred Years (1337- 1453), which amongst others caused severe deforestation, had also dramatic influences in metallurgical industry and trade. The great demand of material, e.g. for amour, could not be met due to the lack of manpower and capital investment.

It is only by the end of the 13th century that great capital expenditures are invested and more sophisticated machinery is installed in underground mining, which resulted in reaching great depths. The wider application of water- and horse-power was necessary for draining water out of these deep shafts. Also, acid parting in separating gold from silver was introduced in the 14th century (Bayley 2008). However, notable signs of recovery were present only after the mid-15th century, when the improved methods were widely adopted (Nef 1987, 723).

Determinant for the European metal production and trade was the discovery of the New World, which affected world economy ever since. Even though new rich ore deposits were found in Central Europe during the 15th century, this was not enough to meet the large amounts of precious metal imports from America.

• Smiths and miners within medieval society

Metallurgists throughout medieval Europe were free to move within different regions. German metallurgists in search of rich precious metal ores, for instance, took the leading part in mining and affected the course of metal production, not only in East and South Germany, but in almost all Central

Europe and the Eastern Alps. As mining was gradually became a task for specialized craftsmen, miners moved in large groups and they formed settlements with their own customs close to mines. They were always welcome by the regional authorities, since the latter were interested in increasing the revenue and the exploitation of the mineral-rich subsurface was quite profitable. The authorities, lay and ecclesiastical, claimed a part of the output and smiths and miners were provided with land for cottages, mills, gorges farming and pasture and they were allowed to use streams and lumber.(

Progressing to the high and late Middle Ages, as smelting sites became geographically independent from mines, metalworking was separated from ore smelting. The urban expansion from the 10th century onwards and the dominant role of towns provided metallurgists with the right environment to develop and improve their technology. Metallurgists got organized in guilds and, usually, their workshops were concentrated in town peripheries (Mc Lees 1996).

In medieval societies liberal and mechanical arts were considered as totally different from each other. Metallurgists, as all craftsmen and artisans, lacked the methodical intellectual background but they were the pioneers of causal thinking, based on empirical observation and experimentation).

15.5 Summary

- Explore policies and initiatives aimed at reducing urban inequalities and promoting social inclusivity.
- Discuss how well-designed urban spaces attract and retain a skilled workforce, contributing to the development of human capital.
- It is only by the end of the 13th century that great capital expenditures are invested and more sophisticated machinery is installed in underground mining, which resulted in reaching great depths.
- The wider application of water- and horse-power was necessary for draining water out of these deep shafts. Also, acid parting in separating gold from silver was introduced in the 14th century (Bayley 2008).
- However, notable signs of recovery were present only after the mid-15th century, when the improved methods were widely adopted (Nef 1987, 723).

15.6 Key Terms

- **Supply and Demand** A market system is driven by supply and demand.
- Aggregate demand- The flow of spending, across the economy, on goods and services.
- Adverse selection- The tendency of insurance to be purchased by those most likely to make claims.

- Compare and contrast progressive and regressive taxation systems. Discuss their respective advantages, disadvantages, and the implications for income distribution and societal equity. Provide real-world examples of countries employing each type of taxation system.
- 2. Discuss the current international efforts or proposed solutions to address the tax challenges posed by the digital economy. Examine the potential impacts on national revenue collection and economic fairness.
- 3. Discuss the benefits of clustering industries in urban areas, including knowledge sharing, resource efficiency, and innovation.
- 4. How does taxation influence consumer spending and investment in an economy?

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<u>UNIT-16</u>

<u>Kampuchia Problem, Sino-</u> <u>Vietnam Conflict, 1979</u>

STRUCTURE

16.1 Learning Objectives
16.2 Introduction
16.3 Intellectual Causes
16.4 Urban Development
16.5 Town Life
16.6 Summary
16.7 Key Terms
16.8 Self Assessment Questions
16.9 Further Readings

16.1 Introduction

The symbiotic relationship between urban development and industrial production is integral to the economic fabric of nations. By understanding and harnessing this relationship, policymakers can drive sustainable economic growth, create jobs, and improve the overall quality of life for urban residents. Embracing innovation, environmental sustainability, and inclusive urbanization practices are essential for building resilient economies that can thrive in the face of evolving global challenges. Balancing the needs of urbanization and industrialization is a key determinant of a nation's success in navigating the complexities of the 21st century. Addressing challenges in revenue administration requires a comprehensive approach that combines technological innovation, policy reform, and international cooperation. As nations strive for fiscal health and economic stability, a robust and adaptive revenue administration practices is essential to meet the demands of dynamic economic landscapes and

16.3 Intellectual Causes

Intellectual development does not conclude with formal education but extends throughout one's life. The concept of lifelong learning emphasizes the importance of continually seeking knowledge, adapting to new information, and developing skills relevant to the evolving demands of society. A growth mindset, characterized by the belief that intelligence can be developed through effort and perseverance, becomes a driving force in this ongoing intellectual journey. In the early years of life, intellectual development lays its cornerstone. Infants begin to absorb information from their surroundings through sensory experiences, gradually developing cognitive functions such as attention, memory, and basic problem-solving skills. Early exposure to language, both verbal and non-verbal, plays a pivotal role in shaping communication skills and forming the basis for future cognitive growth.

16.4 Urban Development

Towns have all the times been the chief centers of culture and civilization, because men and women must always live closely together in fairly considerable number before they can erect imposing buildings, carry on trade with foreign countries, found schools and university, and feel the need for museums and art galleries and whatever else contributed to the development of humane mind.

One of the most sticking characteristics of the five or six centuries following the downfall of Roman Empire was the absence of large towns in Western Europe, and this fact in itself is sufficient to explain why there was so little progress during this period. The barbarian resulted disappearance of many towns, and those which survived were apparently of slight importance. The gradual revival of town life from 10 century onwards is symbolical of the gradual emergence of society from the confusion of the Dark Ages to more orderly and settled condition of affairs.

• Location of Urban Centre

Many of the medieval towns grew up around the castle of feudal lord or around monastery, other originated as market centre because they were easy of access, of were situated at cross roads, or on the bank of navigable streams, or a at a place where it happened to be easy to ford an important river Other cities were grew up on the sites of old Roman cities which had been allowed fall in to ruins. They were all surrounded by walls to protect them against the attack of enemies, and were generally very crowded and compact, not to be compared with the Roman predecessors. They had no amphitheatres or public bath and the streets were extremely dark and narrow, with the jutting stories of houses on opposite sides of the road almost meeting.

• Size of Urban Centre

During the eleventh and twelfth century most towns outside Italy, with some notable exceptions such as Cologne, Mainz, Troyes, Reims, London, Bristol, and Norwich were small; in size they were no bigger than modern village. They had little intercourse with the outside world. They produced most things which their inhabitants needed, and they were usually under the absolute control of the lord, such as passage, a payment on goods passing through a manor: stall age, a

payment for the privilege of setting up a stall in the market place; and pontage, a payment for taking goods across a bridge .But as trade grew, wealth grew, and the towns had opportunities of buying their freedom. Kings, Lords and prelates needed money to build castles, to carry on private wars, and above all to go on Crusades, and they frequently obtained that money by selling their rights over towns. When freedom had been thus obtained, the town people, were very anxious to prevent outsiders from sharing the privileges for which they had to pay; they were equally anxious to prevent any encroachment upon their rights by any one whatever, and so they formed protective union which are known as gilds.

• Role of Gilds

Before the end of the eleventh century merchant gilds had became a feature of town life. These controlled all the buying and selling within the towns, except the trade in food, which was left free of tolls and charges, they prevented illegal transitions, such as buying up all goods in a market in order to sell them at higher prices, or holding goods back in the expectations of a rise in price, and they did not forget social duties. Important meetings were preceded or followed by feastings and drinking and members who were ill or who had suffered serious loss through fire or some other mischance received grants from the gilds chest in order tide them over their difficulties. In course of time the gilds became so important so important that their chief officers of the town as well, and the guild Hall, where the business of the gild was transacted, became the Town Hall from which the government of the municipality was carried on.

In some towns the merchant gilds were not of long duration. As trade developed, each of the greater crafts, such as weavers, the bakers, the butchers, the fishmongers. the armourers, and the fullers formed a gilds of its own. For a time there appears to have been no distinct dividing line between the merchant and gilds and the craft gilds. A member of one might be a member of the other. Craftsmen were freely admitted to the merchant gild for the craftsmen were also traders or merchants who bought the raw material of their particular industry and sold the finished product in their shops.

It had been suggested that the origin f the craft gilds is to be found in the exclusion of craft gild is to be found in the exclusion of craftsman from the merchant gilds by more prosperous merchant, but although this happened in some cases, it was probably quit exceptional. There was no reason why there should be rivalry between two types of gilds. The merchant gild looked after the general trade of the town; the craft gild protected interest of workers in a particular industry. In many cases craft gild came in to existence as branches of the merchant, but eventually they replaces the merchant gild by a general gild in which all the craft unions were represented.

The life of a town centered in its craft gild, and the earlier way to obtain the borough the borough franchise was by becoming a member of one of them .In the gilds were masters, journeymen, and apprentices .No one took up a trade without long and careful training in it. As apprentice lived in the house of a master workman, but received no pay. The year of apprenticeship varied, three incase in the case of the simpler crafts, as many as ten in the gold smith's craft. When they were over, the apprentice became a journeymen wage earner, and if he proved successful at this he ultimately became a master. Sometimes he had to go through a kind of examination and submit a sample of this work called' masterpiece'.

Everything in the life of a craftsman seems to have been regulated by the rules of his gild. They fixed his hours of labor, the quality of his commodity which he would be expected to produce, and the price, which he has to ask for it. Cheats and profiteers received exemplary punishments. Thus a baker who gave short weight would be drawn through the streets on a hurdle with his loaves tied around his neck, while the seller of bad ale or wine might be compelled to drink part of it, and the remainder was then poured over him .But the raft gilds did not confine their activities to craftsmanship and craft products. Like the merchant gild, they also performed certain social and benevolent function. They gave money to the sick and the old, they provided pension for widow and funeral expenses for poor members, and they paid for masse for the soul of the dead members, and they did much to cultivate the spirit of good fellowship.. Thus, if a man fell ill in the middle of the task, he could be certain that his fellow gild man would finish his work, so that he would not lose his profit from what he had done. Some gilds maintained schools, and they also provide the play acting of the Middle Ages, so that they made a definite contribution to the development of drama, which since the days of the great Greek dramatist, had fallen upon very lean times.

• Role of Trade and Commerce

The twelfth and thirteenth century witnessed a tremendous development of trade and commerce throughout Western Europe. Consequently there was a corresponding increase in the prosperity of the towns. So long as manor system prevailed and men were content merely to produce what was needed by those who lived on particular estate where they worked there was nothing to send abroad and nothing to exchange for luxuries, but when merchants began to bring tempting articles into his towns, and particularly when the product of the East began to arrive, the townsfolk were encouraged to produce more then was sufficient for their own requirement, so that they could exchange their surplus products for other which they desired, such as Indian spices or Chinese silk. The Muslim invasion and Crusades both had stimulating effects upon the trade and commerce. Barcelona and the towns of Southern France entered into commercial relations with the Muslim of North Africa; the Italian cities established trading stations in the East itself, and carried on a trade with caravans which brought to Syria and Palestine the product of Arabia, Persia, India and the Spice Islands. Two great centers of Eastern trade in Europe were Venice and Genoa. At one time Genoa had practically the monopoly of Black sea trade .By fifth century, however, Venice had become the chief centre of Eastern trade. The richest of the East cottons, silk, precious metals, precious stones, pearls, gold, frankincense, and myrrh, ivory, cloves, pepper, ginger, and aromatic spices - came to Venice from Beyrout or Jaffa, Alexandria or Constantinople, and from Venice much of it would be send by land throughout the Valley of the Po to, the cities of Italy, or it would be carried by sea, for Venice had a great fleet of more than

Hundred vessels, the property of the state, bur hired out to the merchants princes and capable of conversion in to warship at need. Once a year a large fleet was sent on a trading voyage, carrying the products of the East and the wines and currants of the Greek Islands to the port of Spain, Portugal, France, England, and Belgium and bringing back some of the products of other countries. In the South of Germany, towns like Augsburg and Nuremberg became import and prosperous because they were situated on the trade route between Venice and the North, and could therefore operate as distributing centre or markets for wares of the East .Cologne on the Rhine, during the twelfth and thirteenth century, the centre of English trade with Germany .The towns of Hamburg, Bremen, and Lubeck also carried on active trade with England and with the countries on the Baltic sea, while the Flemish towns of Bruges and Ghent were important as centers of the trade in woolen cloth for which Flanders was famous.

The briskness of trade during the later middle Ages is all the more remarkable when the harassing restrictions and annoyance which merchants had to endure are taken into consideration. Money was scare and coins often debases by needy monarchs or clipped by people who could not resist the temptation to take advantage of their rough and irregular edges; usury was forbidden by laws of the church, so that money lending, which was necessary to all commercial and industrial ventures of ay magnitude, was left to the Jews from which Christian conduct was not excepted. The system of tolls impeded the prompt dispatch of goods both by land and by river, and the dangers of sea traffic were enhanced by pirates, who were numerous in the North Sea and the Mediterrean, so that towns were obliged to form associations for mutual defense. The most famous these unions was that of cities of North Germany, known as the Hanseatic League(German hansa a tinion), which at the height of its influence included more than eight cities, of which the chief were Lubeck, Cologne, Brunswick, Wisby, and Danzig.

In its most vigorous period (1350-1450) all the important coast and inland cities of North Germany were members of the League, and it had factories in Denmark, Sweden, Russia, and England .Novgorod in Russia was the eastern and London the western limit of its influence. It practically monopolized the trade of Baltic and the North Sea. It made successful war on piracy and did much to lessen the danger of commerce. It had great fleet like Venice and on one occasion (1370) it went to war with the kingdom of Denmark, which was threatening its interest, and exhorted a promise that in future it was to accept no ruler without the previous sanction of the league.

The increasing wealth of merchants could not fail to bring about social and political changes, even in places which were not as directly controlled by them as Venice and the towns of Hanseatic League. The clergy began to lose their old monopoly of learning, since the merchants were keen upon giving their sons good educations, and even in countries like England and France, where the towns were not yet so important a factor of the national life as they were in Germany and Italy, the kings summoned the representatives of the cities and boroughs to their council.

The gradual rise of the trading and commercial classes to a position not inferior in dignity and influence to that of the older orders of clergy and nobility is one of the most remarkable features of history from thirteenth century onwards. It is no exaggeration to say that more civilized the country the country, the more rapid was the process. It cannot be too often insisted that the towns with their skillful craftsmen, their domestic spirit, their civic love of law, were the centers of cultures during the middle ages. A comparison of the cities of Germany with the states and principalities of that country affords a sticking illustration of this. The Emperor was frequently unable to exercise any real control over turbulent princes and bishops, and they in turn could not preserve order within their dominions and put an end to the desolating private warfare which was draining the resources of the country. In the towns, on the other hand, although disorderly senses were by no means unknown, their influence was not strong enough to present progress or impede seriously the acquisition of wealth. An examination of the buildings of the period reveals originality of mind as well as material prosperity. Few modern buildings can compare in beauty and grandeur with the cathedrals and town halls which were constructed in the cities of England, France, Italy, Spain and Germany during twelfth, Thirteenth, and fourteenth century. Up to the twelfth century Churches were built in what is called the Romanesque or Roman-like style of architecture because they resembled the old Roman basilicas. These churches usually had stone ceilings supported by very stick and solid walls. In the centre of the buildings was main aisle called the naïve by massive stone pillars which also helped to hold up the ceiling, and which were connected to one another by round arches of stone?

In twelve century French architects invented a new style of architecture which is known as Gothic. Its main feature were the use of buttress instead of thick walls to support the ceiling, the replacement of the round by the pointed arch, the construction of large window, most of them filled

with stained glass of the most exquisite beauty, and profusion of carving stone. In the fourteenth and fifteenth century many Gothic buildings other than churches were building. The town halls of Louvain and Malines in Belgians and the belfry of Ghent are as good example of this style of architecture as the cathedrals of Rheims in Belgium and the belfry of Ghent are as good example of this style of architecture as the as the cathedrals of Rheims or Salisbury. In German cities the influence of Gothic was very pronounced. What I best in the towns halls and churches of Nuremberg, Augsburg, and Strasburg, dates from this period. The main part of Cologne cathedral was built between 1248 and 1322. The naive of Strasburg, which is pure Gothic, dates from 1275, and in 1377 the building of Ulm cathedral was begun .Market Places were adorned with beautifully sculptured fountains, and the inside of churches with magnificent paintings. In the fifteenth century John Guttenberg, of the city f Mainz, discovered or learned the art of printing by the use of movable types, and the art of engraving and wood cuttings were widely practiced in most of the German cities, whose wealth and prosperity so impressed the writer Aeneas Silvius (after Pope Pius II) that he wrote" No people in Europe has cleaner cities. Their appearance is as new as if they had been built yesterday. They pile up arches. At meals the citizens drink out silver breakers, and there is no burgher's wife without her journey.

16.5 Town Life

• Types of Cities

Still more remarkably were the wealth and culture of the cities of Italy during the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries. The cities of were of two kinds- some, like Venice, Florence, and Genoa, first became really important during the period of crusades. Venice and Genoa was maritime republic, both competitors for the Eastern trade, and therefore bitter rivals until Venice won the final victory.

Venice during later middle ages, occupied a position of power and influence. Originally built on some sandy islets in the Adriatic Sea, a place of refuge for fisherman and other whom the stress of the barbarians invasion had drivent had driven from the main land, its development had been so marked that by the fifteenth century its inhabitants numbered over two hundred thousand, and its fleet was the most powerful on the seas. Nominally its government was democratic, but actually it was an oligarchy, controlled by the famous Council of Ten, a sort of committees of public safety chosen by senate and acting as bulwark for the Venetian aristocracy against any disposition that there might be among the poorer classes to rebel against their authority. The nominal head of the republic was called the Doge. His power varied considerable. Some of the doges had much; others very little. It was not until fifteenth century that Venice began to take any real interest in Italian affairs. Then the growth of the power of the Milan and the necessity of securing some control over Alpine passes through which their goods went to the towns of Northern and central Europe forced the Venetians to transfer part of the attention which they hitherto concentrated on the Eastern trade to matters nearer home. The connection with the East was apparent in many ways besides the commercial activities of Venice. It even affected appearance of city. Many of its buildings were distinctly Oriental in Character. The domes, the color marble columns, and the rich mosaic of the celebrated church of St. Mark suggest Constantinople rather than Italy. In some ways Venice was hardly an Italian city at all, and when the spread of Turkish power and the great geographical discoveries of the fifteenth and sixteenth century ruined her Eastern trade her greatness was at an end.

The history of Medieval Florence in many way recall that of Athens during the Age of Pericles. There was the same restless energy both physical and mental, the same democratic fervor, the same frequent outburst of factiousness, but despite it all a remarkable development of humane mind resulting in the works of some the greatest of the world's creative artist, such as poets Dante, Petrarch, and Boccaccio, the architect Brunelleschi, the painter Fra Filippo Lippi, and the sculpture Donatello. The parallel does not end here. Florence, like Athens, experienced a period when the city was ruled by tyrants or despots- the great Medici family- who despite the fact that they were not distinguished by the title, were as obviously the ruler of Florence from 1434 to 1494 as if they called themselves duke or counts. The most famous members of the family were Cosimo, who died in 1464. And his grandson Lorenzo, who died twenty years later, after a rule, which lasted for twenty three years, during which the city reached the height of its prosperity. The Medicis owed their power to the great wealth which, they amass as bankers. They based it entirely upon popular support; they had no military force behind them, or any of the ordinary security upon which despotism generally depends for its continuance. The Florentines supported them because they conciliated the interest of most of the citizens, and because they maintained the credit and influence of the state in Italy and Europe. When Piero de Medici, the son and successor of Lorenzo, by conduct which was at once arrogant and impolitic, gave the citizens the impression that he was attacking their interest. They expelled him and restored republican independence for a few troubled years .Cosimo and Lorenzo were great patrons of art and literature., particularly Lorenzo who richly deserves his title of "The Magnificent'. Among those whom he employed to add luster and beauty to Florence were Leonardo da Vinci, Michelangelo, Verrocchio, and Botticelli, four of the greatest artist of all time. He was also great patron of poetry and music, and succeeded in inspiring others by his example, so that the powerful families of the city, the magistrate, and the trade gilds vied with

one another in showing their zeal for culture by such by such building as the Pitti Palace, the Palazzo Vecchio, and Baptistery.

Another Italian city where the influence of tyrants was productive of some good results was Milan, which from 1312 to 1450 was dominated by the Visconti family. The Visconti were more cruel and domineering than Medici, they were less regardful of popular rights, but they showed similar partiality for artist and learned men. They tried to make their city beautiful, and the greatest of them, Gian Galeazzo Visconti, might, if he had not been carried off prematurely by plague in 1402, have extended his rule over greater part of Italy and so achieved Italian Unity four and half centuries before it was effected by the teachings of Mazzini, the diplomacy of Cavour, and the arms of Garibaldi.

The city of Rome, when the popes returned after their seventy years in Avignon, was half in ruins from desertion and neglect, but a number of energetic rulers like Nicholas V, Pius II, Julius II, so improved it that some of the former glory was revived. The ancient basilica of St Peter's was taken down and the magnificent church of the name erected in its stead. It building was begun about 1450, but it was not ready for consecration until 1626, and several great architect were employed in the work. The most famous was Bramnate, Raphael, and Michelangelo. The old palace of Lateran, which had been the seat of papal authority for more than a thousand years, was deserted, and the imposing new palace of the Vatican built in its palace .Nicholas V founded the Vatican library, which had most valuable collection of manuscripts in the world. Even worldly and debauched popes like Leo X, the son of Leonardo da Vinci, Alexander VI(1498-1503) were persons of art and literature. So too was the infamous César Borgia, the illegitimate son of Alexander, who was employed by his father to establish a papal despotism over the State of Church. Caesar was one of the patrons of the great Leonardo da Vinci, who is regarded by many as the greatest of the world painters, but his patronage of Leonardo is not as well remembered as the fact that it was the example and success of Caesar which inspired the Florentine historian Machiavelli to write

The Pince, a practical and cold blooded manual for the despot of the time. The author discusses the way in which usurpers may best retain their authority over a town which they have captured, he tells them how many of its inhabitants they may advantageously killed, he consider the extent to which it was expedient for the princes to keep their promises, and he concludes that those who have not hesitated to remove political rivals have better than those who have been influenced by moral or ethical considerations .It is a devastating doctrine which had been followed by many rulers and diplomats since the days of Machiavelli, generally with disastrous results for peace and well being of humanity.

• Defect of Urban Growth

The greatest defect of Italian cities of the Renaissance, as the period from the fourteenth to sixteenth century which witnessed such a remarkable rebirth of literature and art is called, was their mutual antagonism. Like the cities of Ancient Greece, they were continually fighting among themselves. There was no such things as national consciousness. They often employed hired troops or condottieri to carry on these wars, and it sometimes happened that the leader of the condottieri turned against his employees and seized authority for him. This happened in Milan in 1450 when Francesco Sforza, after helping the Milanese to defeat the Venetians, forced the people to acknowledge him as duke.

The Sforza, like the Visconti, were patrons of art and one of them, Ludovico, the son of Francesco, was patron of Leonardo da Vinci for many years, during which time the great artist painted 'The Last Super one of the most famous of world's picture, on the wall of the refectory of t convent of Santa Maria della Grazie, and executed his almost equally famous equestrian statue of Francesco Sforza, which was shortly afterwards destroyed the French when the disunion of the cities and actual invitations from some of the inhabitants resulted in their invasions of northern Italy and the temporary occupation of Florence and Milan. The political weakness which made this possible was to la for nearly four hundred years more. In the mean time, Italy was to act as battleground for rival ambitions of Spaniards, Germans, and the French, and the idea of an Italia nation was to get little beyond the speculation of philosophers. Town life undoubtiy impeded the growth of nationality, but it is doubtful whether the glorious Italia genius of the fourteenth, fifteenth, and sixteenth century would have come to bloom in any atmosphere other than that of the cities.

16.7 Summary

- The symbiotic relationship between urban development and industrial production is integral to the economic fabric of nations. By understanding and harnessing this relationship, policymakers can drive sustainable economic growth, create jobs, and improve the overall quality of life for urban residents.
- Embracing innovation, environmental sustainability, and inclusive urbanization practices are essential for building resilient economies that can thrive in the face of evolving global challenges. Balancing the needs of urbanization and industrialization is a key determinant of a nation's success in navigating the complexities of the 21st century.
- Urban development and industrial production are two interconnected elements that significantly influence the economic landscape of nations.

- As the world becomes increasingly urbanized, the dynamics of city planning, infrastructure development and industrialization play crucial roles in shaping the trajectory of economies.
- This essay explores the symbiotic relationship between urban development and industrial production, highlighting their impact on economic growth, job creation, and the pursuit of sustainable futures.

16.8 Self Assessment Questions

- 1. Discuss the importance of inclusive urbanization in ensuring that the benefits of industrial growth are equitably distributed.
- 2. Examine the environmental impact of traditional industrial practices.
- 3. Discuss the challenges posed by rapid urbanization, such as infrastructure strain, housing shortages, and environmental degradation.
- Discuss the opportunities for transitioning towards cleaner and more sustainable industrial production methods, such as green technologies and circular economy principles.

16.9 Further Readings

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