1700-1850

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The topic of wages, living standards and working week attracted considerable attention. Horrell, Humphries and Weisdorf introduced a novel framework for evaluating real household incomes of English rural working families in the years 1260–1850. They emphasised as the key weakness of studies in economic well-being the fact that family income has been equated with the husband's earnings alone yet a model with a male breadwinner does not fit well historical realities of the pre-modern world. The authors took a life-cycle approach to resources available to families across the cycle. Based on demographic evidence for 1541–1850 that traces changing fertility and dependency and using data on women's and children's earnings the authors study trends in well-being for different types of families and over the long-run. Their model goes beyond the male-breadwinner type of family as they also capture families that do not have an adult male earner as the breadwinner. Based on their model the authors found that intact average-size working class families were able to attain respectability from eighteenth century onwards without reliance on poor relief and/or child labour. They also found that before the eighteenth century in the case of families in which men were not capable to earn, women and children's earnings were even more essential source of income than in the post-eighteenth century period. Based on the demographic data in their model the authors then equate the expansion of child labour and poor law expenditure in the late eighteenth and early nineteenth centuries with the great share of large families and fatherless or non-earning father families in the period. However, they find that the living standard of these type of families – large, fatherless or with a father that is not a capable earner – started to increase at the turn of the eighteenth century. At the same time very small families with very few children and

father/husband that was not capable to earn found it challenging to attain respectability in late eighteenth and early nineteenth century. Crafts and Mills estimate structural model of economic–demographic interactions for 1570-1850 to study the effect of population growth on wages. Based on the simulations of their model the authors conclude that growth of real wages during the Industrial Revolution was constrained by high population growth. They thus argue that workers benefitted from Industrial Revolution immediately since without the technological change their living standards would have decreased further. They disagree with interpretations that ascribe the limited wage growth to Marxist exploitation and/or technological change based on the adoption labour saving mechanisation. Tiratelli examined the changes to the working week in the long nineteenth century. He found evidence for the existence of Saint Monday until mid-nineteenth century when it started to disappear. The process was however slow, particularly outside of factory towns.

The topic of occupational structure and urbanisation was also represented. Richardson examined differences between the occupations of Anglican and nonconformist fathers to assess whether the occupational structure c.1817 estimated by the Cambridge Group for the History of Population and Social Structure (Campop) would hold even if non-conformists were taken into account. The Campop estimates are based on male occupations of father as registered in parish records for Anglican baptisms, yet as Richardson argued particularly in Wales large share of the population was non-conformist. Richardson therefore constructed an occupational structure based on data from a sample of seven Welsh hundreds and the borough of Carmarthen – this sample represents 14 per cent of the Welsh population in 1821. The author found significant differences between the occupational structure of Anglican and non-conformist fathers. Conformists were more likely to be employed in the secondary sector and in mining. Richardson thus concludes that if her sample held for the rest of the Wales it would mean that the Campop figures underestimate employment in mining and quarrying by 6.7 to 8.2 per cent

and overestimate the share of labourers by 3.7 per cent. She thus emphasised the need to add data based on non-conformists baptisms to studies focusing on occupational structure. Brunt and García-Peñalosa focused on the role of urbanisation in economic development. They formulated a model of industrialisation in which cities played a key role in creating and diffusing knowledge and higher density leads to higher productivity of manufacturing thanks to more interactions that lead to further knowledge diffusion. Higher productivity in manufacturing attracts migration from rural areas and the process leads to economic growth. The authors argue that their model fits well with the historical evidence of eighteenth-century England and that urbanisation was crucial for accumulation of knowledge and gave rise to the Industrial Revolution.

The topic of Industrial Revolution attracted particular attention this year. *Journal of Global History* published in its section 'Arenas in global history: the industrial revolution as a global conjuncture rejoinder' three papers discussing the British Industrial Revolution. The central piece is an article by O'Brien, which is followed by responses from Inikori, Prados de la Escosura and Vries. O'Brien in his article proposed a revisionist interpretation of the British Industrial Revolution and argued that the British industrialisation should not be taken as a paradigm for industrialisation. He sees the revolution as a discontinuity in the British economic history and the outcome of natural endowments, locational advantages and naval power. O'Brien sees the period after the Seven Years War as the foundational stage for economic supremacy achieved in the Victorian era. According to author skilled urban workforce was crucial for industrial development and its formation was fuelled by the mercantilist engagement in trade and commerce. The fact that economic growth was sustained and did not peter out O'Brien assigns to the protection against geopolitical shocks that the Navy provided, the lack of natural disasters and the diffusion of novel technologies and inorganic sources of energy that enabled Britain to overcome Malthusian checks. Prados de la Escosura in his response is critical

to the O'Brien thesis on the grounds that it underappreciated to the role of institutions and culture in shaping incentives that led towards the Industrial Revolution. He finds the main contribution of the O'Brien's thesis in the directing attention to the role of mercantilist military state in establishing fiscal, financial and monetary institutions. Inikori in his discussion of O'Brien's article focused on three topics stressed by the author – namely Royal Navy, imperialism and mercantilism – and further elaborated on their role in the Industrial Revolution. Inikori argued that pivotal role for the British Industrial Revolution had Atlantic markets. Vries in his rejoinder disagreed that Britain was unexceptional and Industrial Revolution could have happened elsewhere around the same time as it did in Britain. The main points he raised were about chronological demarcation, the role of state in 'causing' trade, and he argued that the technological development in Britain was much more exceptional than O'Brien gave it benefit for.

Several papers also explored the Industrial Revolution through the lens of textiles, trade, technology and their interactions. Riello explored the relationship between the Industrial Revolution and global trade and argued that consumption of cotton textiles was the key to such a relationship. He maintained that the worldwide integration of textile consumption and production shaped the British textile production in a crucial way. The author relied on trade data to study trade patterns and presented a diamond-shaped trade system. Riello argued that the high level of competition with Indian cotton textiles both at home in the British market and in the Atlantic became an incentive for the production of textiles with higher proportion of cotton in Britain. The adoption of new spinning and weaving machinery associated with the British Industrial Revolution was thus incentivised by the competitive pressure to produce higher cotton content textiles. Raman also focused on textiles and studied the ways in which high-quality Indian cotton textiles shaped demand for cloth quality and how imitation of Indian cloth incentivised innovation of technologies in British cotton industry. The author relied on a

new dataset of British and Indian cotton textiles to compare the cloth qualities. Based on this dataset Raman maintained that between 1746 and 1820 British cloth quality as measured by thread count per inch increased. The author concluded that the material evidence suggests that notions of cloth quality were important for shaping technological innovation. Maw et al. examined improvement of cotton spinning technology in the period 1780 and 1835. The authors relied on a novel dataset of 1,465 machinery advertisements published in newspapers in England, Scotland, and Ireland to study the timing of transition between different machines and their size as well as spatial dimension of the market for spinning machines. The authors emphasised that the process of mechanisation of cotton production was a long process and argued that it is important to study the period after the great inventions of Hargreaves, Arkwright, and Crompton since it was in this period that followed the great inventions, particularly in the period of diffusion in 1790s and until 1830s, that large improvements in productivity were achieved. They emphasised that this increase in productivity followed from the incremental improvements and micro-inventions to the spinning machinery that occurred in the period.

The process of industrialisation has also been studied from the point of human capital formation. Mokyr, Sarid and van der Beek studied the effects of early technology adoption on human capital and industrialisation. They start with the premise that upper-tail artisanal human capital was more important in the early stages of the First Industrial Revolution than literacy and schooling. They focused on the case of millwrights, specialists in advanced carpentry and hydraulic machinery, who serviced and improved water mills. The authors show that the location of millwrights depended on whether the geography was suitable to water mills in the Middle Ages when mills started to be used for grain-milling. They also argued that the skills of millwrights spilled to iron and woollen industries. Further they maintained that although mills were everywhere in Europe, the British were much more dependent on skilled artisans. Overall,

Mokyr, Sarid and van der Beek emphasised that the role of tacit knowledge and technical skills and their role in the First Industrial Revolution should be paid more attention to.

Subject that attracted particular attention in 2022 was banking and finance with several papers focusing on the Bank of England. Anson and Capie estimated Bank of England's profits since 1694 until today. They found that over the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries the Bank was financed through profits it made on its banking services to the Government as well as on its commercial banking services. In the first 15 years the Bank's profits were just between £10,000 and £370,000, by the middle of the eighteenth century they grew to half a million pounds and by the end of the eighteenth century got to around £1 million. Profits grew further during the Napoleonic wars when they reached £2 million to then slump to £0,363 million in 1819. The profits then increased again to over £1 million by the middle of the nineteenth century. Anson and Capie argued that the Bank's profits and returns to shareholders signify the stability of the Bank as an institution. Batt examined the 1783 proposal by a Committee of the Bank of England to issue readymade notes to its private banking customers – a form of paper money previously only issued to the Government. Batt acknowledged that the Committee of Inspection had a limited effect on the management of the Bank but argued that the Committee shaped money's underlying material and technological infrastructure since the Bank extended the technique in the note-issuing function from the state also to individual customers. Sissoko examined private lending policies of the Bank of England and the effect of the 1810 financial crisis on the Bank and its policies. Sissoko emphasised that the Bank was starting to act as a central bank in this period and was learning how to do so. The most important changes that were implemented in the period were the adoption of internal procedures that allowed to put constraints on private lending, reviews of the Bank's policies and their effect on the money market, and creation of a crisis lending policy.

Further papers looked at the financial markets and banking. Meyer, Reinhart and Trebesch created a database of 266,000 monthly prices of foreign-currency government bonds traded in London and New York between 1815 and 2016. They explored the reasons that made investors interested in external sovereign debt in spite of high default rate and limited enforcement of the debt and found that external risk was compensated by high returns on external sovereign bonds. They also found that creditor losses were between 40 and 50 per cent and that there was no specific trend over the studied period. For the first half of the nineteenth century they found that sovereign debt of only 30 countries was traded in London and the number of countries expanded only in the second part of the century. Another conclusion specific for the early nineteenth century was that returns to creditors were high in this period but so was volatility. Perriton and Henderson analysed individual-level accounts opened in the Limehouse Savings Bank in London in 1830. They argued that savings banks such as Limehouse Savings Bank served much wider community than the "industrious poor" who were the intended target. The authors examined whether accounts were used for gaming the system. They did not find support for the thesis that savings banks were exploited by middle classes. As only about 10 per cent of accounts were used for such purposes. Instead according to their analysis the middle classes opened such accounts for storing money for about six months so they did not generate interest payments that may represent an additional source of income.

Maritime history has been represented by an article by Papworth and Dence that examined the career of a vessel – Cruizer-class brig-sloop HMS Pilot (1807) – in both Navy and mercantile service. The authors label Pilot and its career as a typical for the first part of the nineteenth century. The Pilot was first commissioned in 1808 and served in the Navy until 1816. Following the end of the Napoleonic wars large number of smaller vessels such as Pilot were sold to the merchants. Pilot was sold in 1828, after being on a reserve since 1816. It was used as a whaling bark by the British Southern Whale Fishery between 1830 and the early

1840s during which time it made five voyages. Papworth and Dence emphasised that the Navy used numerous smaller warships in the Napoleonic wars and these after the end of the conflict proved to be adaptable to commercial use, in the case of the Cruizer-class vessels such the HMS Pilot particularly in whale fishing. Tucker explored the role of captains in 1680-1770 for creation of markets. She argued that the position of ship captains opened many opportunities and explored captains in their role of masters, traders, informers, productivity producers, and investors. Tucker used statistical data from the naval office shipping returns and data from letters, logbooks, depositions, and shipping papers. She argued that access to information from foreign and faraway places gave captains large power and that captains were important for facilitating a shift from trading in an imperial market to trading in a more globalized market.

Institutions were explored from several different angles. Clayton and Shoemaker examined the effects of financial incentives on the British criminal system in the eighteenth century. Several statuses that passed after the Glorious Revolution set financial rewards for prosecuting and convicting criminal offences. The authors found that the system encouraged victims to prosecute, that it also incentivised the more pro-active policing represented by detective and prosecuting policemen who were attracted by rewards, and finally it undermined support for capital punishment. This was caused by the increased number of convictions and capital punishments. The outcome was a reform of the criminal code in 1818 with a larger role for the state in policing and prosecution. Moreover, for number of convictions capital punishment was replaced by a lesser form of punishment. Smith explored the effects of social scientization on state policy focusing on education over the nineteenth century. He argues that social scientization is linked to the rise of state schooling. Slack explored how people were counted by the authorities before the 1801 census and the role and importance ascribed to counting people by political arithmeticians. He argued that although ‘exact’ accounts of population were not made in the early modern period, the efforts of political arithmeticians

should not be dismissed because they show the drive of government to attain and use data for controlling and mapping population.

Two papers focused specifically on the effects of the Glorious Revolution. Weber explored the idea that national debt was associated with political obligation in eighteenth-century British political economy. She explored the writing of eighteenth-century political economist and emphasised that the introduction of long-term funded national debt introduced high level of ambiguity. On the one hand debt undermined the notions of authority and virtue and many eighteenth-century authors warned against the growing public debt. At the same time investment into national debt signalled political allegiance as it was in the self-interest of the creditors to support the debtor. In this way as Weber shows public borrowing produced a new type of political obligation and protection against rebellion and war. Kulkarni and Pfaff studied the effects of Glorious Revolution on religious liberty in Scotland. They coded ecclesiastical legislation to study the conditions of religious liberty and found that the legislation displays the dominance of special interest groups. They therefore argue that religious liberty depended on whether the particular religious group was a part to the winning coalition or not and religious liberty was only established with state secularization in the nineteenth century.

The role of state and state institutions in alleviating financial distress was studied by Bickham and Abbey. They examined the impacts of the 1795 Seamen's Families Bill that allowed seamen to send half of their pay to their wives, mothers or other dependants. The authors created a database of a sample of seamen that volunteered to send their pay to their dependents during the French wars 1795-1815. Bickham and Abbey stressed that even though the Bill presented costs to the central government and parishes that needed to administer the transfer without any charge to the sender or receiver, since the new legislation alleviated the need to provide poor relief it was beneficial also to the parishes as most of the beneficiaries were financially vulnerable. Bickham and Abbey also emphasised that the large share of

seamen who chose to send their pay in this way challenge the perception of sailors as irresponsible.

Widely explored topic in 2022 was the history of political economy of the period 1700-1850. Sato reviewed historiography on Burke's political economy. Cooper explored the accounts of British travellers who went to Chile and Rio de la Plata in the aftermath of the 1825-26 financial crises with the aim to inspect the prospects of further mining in the region. The author focused on the ways in which the travellers reflected on contemporary political economy to give more legitimacy to their findings. However, Cooper also argued that the accounts go beyond the contemporary political economy explanations of the crisis to reveal the existence of principal-agent problems in the mines as well as the ignorance and prejudices of the travellers. Alcouffe and Le Bris studied the ways in which Jean-Baptiste Say's visit to Britain shaped his views on political economy and the factors that Say attributed as crucial for the British industrial take-off. Manioudis examined the role of history and theory in shaping John Stuart Mill's political economy. Manioudis emphasised that Mill used data for economic analysis and sharpening his political economy views before the professionalisation of economic history. The journal *History of Political Economy* published several articles from a Minisymposium on Adam Smith. Watson explored the ways in which the interaction with the merchant community of Glasgow shaped Smith's work. Tribe compared the work of Adam Smith to other contemporary works of political economy, especially Ricardo's Principles of Political economy. Smith argued that to better understand the early development of political economy it is necessary to read also Smith's Theory of Moral Sentiments and his contemporary Adam Ferguson. Paganelli explored Adam Smith's writing on vanity and luck as factors facilitating economic growth – these two factors according to Smith help to explain, alongside other factors, prosperity. Our vanity drives our desire to better our condition. Luck, or in other

words historical accident, enabled the emergence of laws that grant security and freedom and make it possible to follow the path towards betterment.

Histories of women are represented by an article by Jones and Talbott that explored women's impact on eighteenth-century trading networks in the Atlantic. To do so they studied personal family correspondence of three merchant families – one based in Barbados, another in Kendal in England and the last one in Bordeaux. The authors argue that scholarship of the eighteenth-century Atlantic ignores the contribution women made to running business and often also portray mercantile activity as a male domain. In their article the authors instead highlight that individual merchant business was supported by an extended family network. Women performed practical and logistical tasks as well as they collected information and business intelligence. They represented pseudo-employees in the businesses and acted independently in their roles and were recognised for this role within the business community and also by business associates outside the family. They concluded that hidden behind of what is recognised as the sole male trader were familial networks and women played an essential role in them.

Agricultural history was represented by Brunt and Cannon's article. They used previously unused farm inventories and corn books to study wheat storage in 1750-1850. Their dataset based on corn books represents the better of farmers. They found that these farmers sold their grain gradually throughout the year not being pressured by economic situation to sell immediately they stored large share of the grain but they also found inter-year storage low as farmers liquidated the stock within the year. Brunt and Cannon argued that their study suggests that there was much larger variation of strategies used by grain merchants than quantitative studies captured and that detailed qualitative studies could help to expand our understanding of how the grain markets worked.

The topic of intoxicants was strongly represented thanks to a special issue on Intoxicants and Early Modern European Globalization published in the *Historical Journal*. Intoxicants were studied in connection with slavery, trade as well as social and political norms in the British Empire. Zahedieh studied the impact of consumer revolution in the colonies. She explored the 'producer revolution' in Jamaican rum making that followed the increased demand for rum. The article highlights how this producer revolution that necessitated new machinery linked workers in copper works in Cornwall and slaves making rum in Jamaica in a complex system of nascent industrial capitalism. Burnard studied drinking culture and the role of slavery in shaping this culture showing the connection between economic and social life. Burnard explored the 'alternative culture of the behaviour of the British male abroad in the eighteenth and early nineteenth-century tropics' (p. 203). He focused on white Jamaican drinking culture and argued that it was closely related with sexual exploitation of slave and freed women.

Additionally papers in the volume Intoxicants and Early Modern European Globalization also focused on tobacco. Roman studied satiric representations of smoking clubs to explore the eighteenth and early nineteenth-century understanding of tobacco as an intoxicant. Roman concluded that the prints show smoking as British social practice and one associated with clubbing, in the prints she studied rooms filled with smoke and smoking politicians also alluded to their nefarious behaviour. Roman argued that smoking and clubbing did have several interpretations – they suggested gentlemanly sociability, bawdiness, as well as domestic oligarchic power and global empire. Also McShane focused on tobacco consumption and its role in creating identity and compared the differences between Britain and the Atlantic economies. She examined snuff and tobacco boxes, which were important vessels for displaying taste, skill, and social know-how for the white middling sort. McShane found that in the American War of Independence tobacco was not only an important source of revenue but for the revolutionaries the culture of tobacco consumption became an instrument for

propaganda campaigns – tobacco and snuff boxes played a particularly important role for celebrating American independence.

Several papers have focused on petitioning and press in the context of the British Empire. Huzzey and Miller drew on a database of more than a million petitions sent to the House of Commons from the British Isles and from colonies between 1780 and 1918. They focused especially on the treatment of colonial issues in the Parliament and uncovered the arbitrariness in dealing with colonial petitions and the unequal access to petitioning on the part of the colonial subjects. Although formally all subjects had a right to petition, colonial subjects had to rely on intermediation or translation, lacked the support of sympathetic MPs and metropolitan lobbies. Connors focused on petitioning in the Madras presidency. The author focused on the study of an 1839 petition in which 70,000 subjects demanded that the colonial government to set up a university. Through a detailed study of the life cycle of this petition Connors explored the effects of mass petitioning on political activism and the communication between the colonial subjects and the colonial state. The author argued that petitioning was a vehicle used by Indians for expressing political sentiment and that the colonial state's authority was negotiated in the process. Wilkinson explored the liberty of press in the British empire in early nineteenth century focusing on Bengal and contrasting it to Britain. She focused on *Calcutta Journal*, one of the first English language Indian daily newspapers, whose editor James Silk Buckingham was a campaigner for an empire wide freedom of press. Wilkinson used Parliamentary reports and East India Company records and examined the letters of the anonymous officers that were published in the *Calcutta Journal.* The author found that in the beginning of the nineteenth century officers writing to the press were seen as subversive and a potential threat to the East India Company. However, by 1820 the Company stopped trying to regulate the press and in 1835 repealed press regulations. Wilkinson pointed out that whereas in Britain press was criticised in the early eighteenth century by government officials as an

instrument of demagogues, the Indian situation was different in that there existed fear that the press may propagate self-governance and for this reason its freedom was curtailed in the beginning of the century.

Among the topics of social history explored in 2022 were strategies for dealing with lost possessions, migration experiences, and public perceptions of auctions. Smith explored the strategies of Londoners that lost their possessions either due to theft or forgetfulness. She found that placing "lost" notices into newspapers grew in importance over the eighteenth century. McMahon studied the experiences of Irish migrants fleeing the Great Famine at the sea exploring their sea voyage. He argued that migration studies should pay closer attention to the voyages themselves since these has been largely understudied. Rasico explored the economic, social, and cultural context of auctions in Calcutta and London. The author emphasised that auctions in both geographical contexts brought out public outcry, this outcry was based on the perception that auctions disrupted material distinctions. Furthermore, metropolitan critics warned that auctions in Calcutta personified corrupt colonial practices and these practices could be brought back and take root also in auctions in London and undermine the British national character.

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