

COURSE MANUAL

Evolution of the International States System I

HDS109



**University of Ibadan Distance Learning Centre
Open and Distance Learning Course Series Development**

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Vice-Chancellor's Message

The Distance Learning Centre is building on a solid tradition of over two decades of service in the provision of External Studies Programme and now Distance Learning Education in Nigeria and beyond. The Distance Learning mode to which we are committed is providing access to many deserving Nigerians in having access to higher education especially those who by the nature of their engagement do not have the luxury of full time education. Recently, it is contributing in no small measure to providing places for teeming Nigerian youths who for one reason or the other could not get admission into the conventional universities.

These course materials have been written by writers specially trained in ODL course delivery. The writers have made great efforts to provide up to date information, knowledge and skills in the different disciplines and ensure that the materials are user-friendly.

In addition to provision of course materials in print and e-format, a lot of Information Technology input has also gone into the deployment of course materials. Most of them can be downloaded from the DLC website and are available in audio format which you can also download into your mobile phones, IPod, MP3 among other devices to allow you listen to the audio study sessions. Some of the study session materials have been scripted and are being broadcast on the university's Diamond Radio FM 101.1, while others have been delivered and captured in audio-visual format in a classroom environment for use by our students. Detailed information on availability and access is available on the website. We will continue in our efforts to provide and review course materials for our courses.

However, for you to take advantage of these formats, you will need to improve on your I.T. skills and develop requisite distance learning Culture. It is well known that, for efficient and effective provision of Distance learning education, availability of appropriate and relevant course materials is a *sine qua non*. So also, is the availability of multiple plat form for the convenience of our students. It is in fulfilment of this, that series of course materials are being written to enable our students study at their own pace and convenience.

It is our hope that you will put these course materials to the best use.



Prof. Abel Idowu Olayinka

Vice-Chancellor

Foreword

As part of its vision of providing education for “Liberty and Development” for Nigerians and the International Community, the University of Ibadan, Distance Learning Centre has recently embarked on a vigorous repositioning agenda which aimed at embracing a holistic and all encompassing approach to the delivery of its Open Distance Learning (ODL) programmes. Thus we are committed to global best practices in distance learning provision. Apart from providing an efficient administrative and academic support for our students, we are committed to providing educational resource materials for the use of our students. We are convinced that, without an up-to-date, learner-friendly and distance learning compliant course materials, there cannot be any basis to lay claim to being a provider of distance learning education. Indeed, availability of appropriate course materials in multiple formats is the hub of any distance learning provision worldwide.

In view of the above, we are vigorously pursuing as a matter of priority, the provision of credible, learner-friendly and interactive course materials for all our courses. We commissioned the authoring of, and review of course materials to teams of experts and their outputs were subjected to rigorous peer review to ensure standard. The approach not only emphasizes cognitive knowledge, but also skills and humane values which are at the core of education, even in an ICT age.

The development of the materials which is on-going also had input from experienced editors and illustrators who have ensured that they are accurate, current and learner-friendly. They are specially written with distance learners in mind. This is very important because, distance learning involves non-residential students who can often feel isolated from the community of learners.

It is important to note that, for a distance learner to excel there is the need to source and read relevant materials apart from this course material. Therefore, adequate supplementary reading materials as well as other information sources are suggested in the course materials.

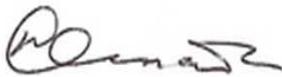
Apart from the responsibility for you to read this course material with others, you are also advised to seek assistance from your course facilitators especially academic advisors during your study even before the interactive session which is by design for revision. Your academic advisors will assist you using convenient technology including Google Hang Out, You Tube, Talk Fusion, etc. but you have to take advantage of these. It is also going to be of immense advantage if you complete assignments as at when due so as to have necessary feedbacks as a guide.

The implication of the above is that, a distance learner has a responsibility to develop requisite distance learning culture which includes diligent and disciplined self-study, seeking available administrative and academic support and acquisition of basic information technology skills. This is why you are encouraged to develop your computer skills by availing yourself the opportunity of training that the Centre’s provide and put these into use.

In conclusion, it is envisaged that the course materials would also be useful for the regular students of tertiary institutions in Nigeria who are faced with a dearth of high quality textbooks. We are therefore, delighted to present these titles to both our distance learning students and the university's regular students. We are confident that the materials will be an invaluable resource to all.

We would like to thank all our authors, reviewers and production staff for the high quality of work.

Best wishes.



Professor Bayo Okunade

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Contents

About this course manual	1
How this course manual is structured.....	1
Course Overview	3
Welcome to Evolution of the International States System I HDS109.....	3
Course outcomes.....	3
Getting around this course manual	6
Margin icons.....	6
Study Session 1	7
Terminologies in International States System	7
Introduction	7
Terminology.....	7
1.1 Clarification of Terms and Concepts	8
1.1.1 Evolution.....	8
1.1.2 System	8
1.1.3 States System.....	8
Characteristic of Relationships in State Systems.....	9
1.1.4 Early State Systems.....	9
1.1.5 City States	9
1.1.5 Imperial States System.....	10
Characteristics of Empire	10
1.1.6 Territorial State.....	10
1.1.7 Sovereign States.....	10
1.1.8 Nation-State	11
1.1.9 International State System	11
1.2 Structure of Analysis of Historical System: The Precursor to International System...	12
Study Session Summary	13
Assessment.....	13
Bibliography.....	14
Study Session 2	15
Historical Precursor to the International State System I: Cities-States 1: Greek City State.....	15
Introduction	15
Terminology.....	15
2.1 A Brief on the Greek City States	15
2.2 Organs of the Greek City-states.....	16
The Assembly or Ecclesia.....	17
Council of Five Hundred	17

Court.....	18
Ten Generals.....	18
Local Government.....	19
2.3 Diplomacy of the Greek City-States.....	19
Study Session Summary.....	20
Assessment.....	20
Bibliography.....	21

Study Session 3 **22**

Historical Precursor to the International State System 1: City States 2: The Italian Renaissance Cities-States.....	22
Introduction.....	22
Terminology.....	22
3.1 Renaissance.....	22
3.2 Political Organization in Europe before Renaissance.....	23
3.3 Italian Renaissance City-states.....	24
3.3.1 Characteristics of Italian Renaissance City-states.....	24
3.3.2 Political Organization of Italian Renaissance City-states.....	25
3.4 Diplomacy of the Italian Renaissance City-states.....	25
Study Session Summary.....	26
Assessment.....	26
Bibliography.....	27

Study Session 4 **28**

Historical Precursor to the International State System 2: The Political Empire 1: Macedonian and Hellenistic Empire.....	28
Introduction.....	28
Terminology.....	28
4.1 Macedonian Empire.....	28
4.2 The Hellenistic Empire.....	30
4.3 The Political Structure of Hellenistic system.....	31
4.4 The Hellenistic Diplomacy.....	31
Study Session Summary.....	33
Assessment.....	33
Bibliography.....	33

Study Session 5 **34**

Historical Precursor to the International State System 2: The Political Empire 2: Roman Empire.....	34
Introduction.....	34
5.1 The Rise of Rome.....	34
5.2 Expansion of Rome: From Republic to Empire.....	35
5.3 The Government of the Roman Empire.....	35
5.4 Diplomacy of the Roman Empire.....	36

Study Session Summary	37
Assessment.....	38
Bibliography.....	38

Study Session 6 **39**

Historical Precursor to the International State System 2: The Political Empire 3: Chinese Empire	39
Introduction	39
6.1 Historical Development of Chinese Empire	39
6.2 Heterogeneous Political Units: Kingdoms, Republics, Tribes and Provinces	40
6.3 Unifying Elements	41
6.4 Ancient Chinese Diplomacy	41
Study Session Summary	42
Assessment.....	43
Bibliography.....	43

Study Session 7 **44**

Historical Precursor to the International State System 2: The Political Empire 4: Indian Empire.....	44
Introduction	44
Terminology.....	44
7.1 Boundaries of Ancient Indian System	44
7.2 Phases of Indian Civilization.....	45
7.3 Characteristics of Political Units of Ancient India: From Kingdom to Empire.....	46
7.4 Political System Structure of Ancient Indian Empire	47
7.5 Forms of Interaction among Component Units of Ancient India	48
7.6 System Regulator and Institutions of Conflict Resolution.....	49
Study Session Summary	49
Assessment.....	50
Bibliography.....	50

Study Session 8 **51**

Historical Precursor to the International State System 2: The Political Empire 5: Christendom/Byzantium and Carolingian Empire.....	51
Introduction	51
8.1 Historical Development of Christendom.....	51
8.2 Political Units of Byzantium.....	53
8.3 System Structure of Byzantium.....	54
8.3.1 Centralized Culture of Byzantium	54
8.3.2 Distributed Culture in Carolingian Empire	55
8.4 Diplomacy of Byzantium	55

Study Session Summary.....	55
Assessment.....	56
Bibliography.....	56

Study Session 9 **57**

Historical Precursor to the International State System 2: The Political Empire 6: Holy Roman Empire.....	Holy	57
Introduction		57
9.1 Scope of Holy Roman Empire.....		58
9.2 The Emergence of Holy Roman Empire.....		58
9.3 Political Unit of Holy Roman Empire		59
9.4 Structure of Holy Roman Empire Political System		59
Study Session Summary		60
Assessment.....		61
Bibliography.....		61

Study Session 10 **62**

Historical Precursor to the International State System 2: The Political Empire 7: Islam.....	Islam..	62
Introduction		62
Terminology.....		62
10.1 The Historical Developments of Islam as an Empire.....		62
10.2 Main Characteristics of Islamic Political Unit.....		63
10.3 System Structure of Islam.....		64
10.4 Islamic Diplomacy		64
Study Session Summary		65
Assessment.....		65
Bibliography.....		65

Study Session 11 **66**

Immediate Predecessors of Modern International State System 1: Feudalism.....		66
Introduction		66
Terminology.....		66
11.1 Meaning of Feudalism.....		66
11.2 Historical Development of Feudalism.....		67
11.3 Characteristic of Political Unit in a Feudal System.....		67
11.4 System Structure of Feudalism.....		68
11.4.1 Secular Structure		68
11.4.2 Religious Structure.....		69
11.5 Diplomacy in Feudal System.....		70
Study Session Summary		70
Assessment.....		71
Bibliography.....		71

Study Session 12 **72**

Immediate Predecessors of Modern International State System 2: Rise of Nation States in Europe		72
Introduction		72
Terminology.....		72

12.1 The Emergence of Nation States	73
12.2 European Nation States	73
12.2.1 Germany.....	73
12.2.2 Spain.....	73
12.2.3 England	75
12.2.4 France	75
England, France and the Hundred Years' War.....	75
12.2.5 Italy	76
12.3 The Characteristics of the Modern Nation-state in Europe.....	76
12.4. The Consequences of the Rise of Nation-states.....	76
12.5 Diplomacy of the Nation States.....	77
Study Session Summary	77
Assessment.....	77
Bibliography.....	78

Study Session 13 79

Immediate Predecessors of Modern International State System 3: Wars of Religion in Europe (30 Years War).....	79
Introduction	79
Terminology.....	79
13.1 Overview of the Thirty Years War.....	79
13.1.1 Occasions for the Thirty Years War	80
The issues of the Empire	80
Religious Issues which had divided Germany.....	80
Revocation of the Edicts of Nantes.....	80
13.2 Phases of the Thirty Years War	81
13.2.1 The First Phase (1618-1625)	81
13.2.1 The Second Phase (1625-1629)	81
13.2.2 The Third Phase (1630-1635).....	81
13.3 Levels of Involvement of European Powers.....	82
13.4. Effects of the War.....	83
Study Session Summary	83
Assessment.....	83
Bibliography.....	84

Study Session 14 85

Immediate Predecessors of Modern International State System 4: The Peace of Westphalia	85
Introduction	85
Terminology.....	85
14.1 Background to the Peace of Westphalia	85
14.2 The Peace of Westphalia.....	86
14.3 The Major Provisions of the Peace Treaties	86
14.4 Consequences of the Treaties.....	87

Study Session Summary	88
Assessment.....	88
Bibliography.....	89

Study Session 15	90
-------------------------	-----------

Emergence of the International State System	90
Introduction	90
Terminology.....	90
15.1 The International System.....	90
15.2 The International State System	91
15.3 The Emergence of Modern International State System	91
15.4. The Characteristics of Modern International State System.....	92
15.5 The Consequence of the Evolution of the International System	92
Study Session Summary	93
Assessment.....	93
Bibliography.....	94

Notes on Self Assessment Questions	95
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About this course manual

Evolution of the International States System IHDS109 has been produced by University of Ibadan Distance Learning Centre. All course manuals produced by University of Ibadan Distance Learning Centre are structured in the same way, as outlined below.

How this course manual is structured

The course overview

The course overview gives you a general introduction to the course. Information contained in the course overview will help you determine:

- If the course is suitable for you.
- What you will already need to know.
- What you can expect from the course.
- How much time you will need to invest to complete the course.

The overview also provides guidance on:

- Study skills.
- Where to get help.
- Course assignments and assessments.
- Margin icons.

We strongly recommend that you read the overview *carefully* before starting your study.

The course content

The course is broken down into Study Sessions. Each Study Session comprises:

- An introduction to the Study Session content.
- Study Session outcomes.
- Core content of the Study Session with a variety of learning activities.
- A Study Session summary.

- Assignments and/or assessments, as applicable.
- Bibliography

Your comments

After completing *Evolution of the International States System I* we would appreciate it if you would take a few moments to give us your feedback on any aspect of this course. Your feedback might include comments on:

- Course content and structure.
- Course reading materials and resources.
- Course assignments.
- Course assessments.
- Course duration.
- Course support (assigned tutors, technical help, etc.)

Your constructive feedback will help us to improve and enhance this course.

Course Overview

Welcome to Evolution of the International States System I HDS109

I welcome you to this course entitled HDS109: The Evolution of the International State System I. The course is a historical survey of the development and growth of the international state system. It deals with the early states, inter-state relations and conditions leading to the emergence of the modern state and state system up to the Treaty of Westphalia in 1648.

The study is rather thematic than historical. It starts with the first set of precursors to the international system represented by the city-states comprising those of Athens of the ancient world and the Renaissance Italy, both of which belong to different historical period. This is followed by the second set of precursors typified by empires, such as Macedonian, Hellenistic, Roman, Chinese, Indian, Islam, and Holy Roman Empire. The last stage of this evolution contains the rise of Nation states in Europe, wars of religion, and Westphalia peace, which culminated in the emergence of the international state system.

Course outcomes

The General objective of this course is to make you aware of the evolution of the international state system. This will constitute a good background to the study of international relations and diplomatic studies.

Upon completion of Evolution of the International States System I HDS109, you will be able to know:



- the meaning of such concepts as system, evolution, state system, nation state, international state system, etc.
- the various precursors to the international state system.
- the political unit and system structure of various precursors to

Outcomes

- state system.
- the wars of religion and the change of loyalty from the religion to the state.
- the Westphalia peace and the emergence of the international system.

Getting around this course manual

Margin icons

While working through this course manual you will notice the frequent use of margin icons. These icons serve to “signpost” a particular piece of text, a new task or change in activity; they have been included to help you to find your way around this course manual.

A complete icon set is shown below. We suggest that you familiarize yourself with the icons and their meaning before starting your study.

			
<i>Activity</i>	<i>Assessment</i>	<i>Assignment</i>	<i>Case study</i>
			
<i>Discussion</i>	<i>Group Activity</i>	<i>Help</i>	<i>Outcomes</i>
			
<i>Note</i>	<i>Reflection</i>	<i>Reading</i>	<i>Study skills</i>
			
<i>Summary</i>	<i>Terminology</i>	<i>Time</i>	<i>Tip</i>

Study Session 1

Terminologies in International States System

Introduction

This first session will expose you to the meanings of the concepts that form the central ideas of the course. These concepts include Nation-state, Territorial State and International State system, sovereignty and legitimacy.

Learning Outcomes



Outcomes

When you have studied this session, you should be able to:

- 1.1 *define and use correctly* the following terms:
 - a. evolution
 - b. system
 - c. states system
 - d. early state system
 - e. city state
 - f. imperial state system
 - g. territorial state
 - h. sovereign state
 - i. nation-state
 - j. international state system
- 1.2 highlight the structure of analysis of the precursor to the international system.

Terminology

Evolution	A process in which something (a nation or society) passes by degrees to a different stage (especially a more matured stage).
States system	A composition of politics, whether tribes, city states, principalities, kingdoms, or some combination of them, that maintain relationship at a relatively high degree of intensity over time, and in several sectors, including commerce, culture,

	diplomacy and war.
Early state system	Sedentary empires, varying arrangements of suzerainty or dominion over lesser, subordinate, and dependent political structures
Imperial state system	Imperial states system is a situation in which one member of state system asserts unique claims which the others formally or tacitly accept.
Territorial state system	A social organization, whose purpose includes security, freedom, order, justice, and welfare.
Sovereign state system	An independent political authority which recognizes no superior.
Legitimacy	Lawfulness by virtue of being authorised or in accordance with the law.
Nation state	A political entity (a state) associated with a cultural entity (a nation).
International state system	A system of relations between politically organized territorial structures that enjoy and exercise a measure of independence from each other and are under a higher authority. It is a transnational structure of political authority that might undermine territorial democracy.

1.1 Clarification of Terms and Concepts

1.1.1 Evolution

Evolution is the development from less to more complex form. In this case, it is the development of the international state system from its earliest precursors of city-states and empires to its emergence at Westphalia in 1648.

1.1.2 System

A **system** is an assemblage of units, objects, or parts united by some form of regular interaction. For the purpose of this study, it is the interaction of independent states under some generally accepted rules of engagement.

1.1.3 States System

State system is composed of polities, whether tribes, city states, principalities, kingdoms, or some combination of them, that

maintain relationship at a relatively high degree of intensity over time, and in several sectors, including commerce, culture, diplomacy, and war, eg: Sumerian city states of the 4th and 3rd millennium BC, the independent states within the northeast Chinese cultural and geographic regions between 771 BC and 221 BC, and the system of relationships between independent polities of South Mexico during the 1st Millennium.

The most well-known system arose among the Greek city states in the 7th to 4th century BC, where independent polities of relatively small size and population conducted sustained relationships with each other. These involved commerce, culture, diplomacy, and a war.

More recently, city-states of Italy during Renaissance maintained a formal diplomatic and balance of power system. The major states of the Italian system included Venice, Florence, Genoa, the Papal States, and Milan.

Characteristic of Relationships in State Systems

- a. It is intermittent, irregular and non-institutionalized (except for the Italian city-states).
- b. Trade was one form of interaction. In Greek system there was also regular cultural and religious interaction in the form of Olympic Games, and the great religious congresses in Delphi, Milos, and elsewhere.
- c. Diplomatic contacts were for the most part sporadic, conducted by amateur sent as delegations to negotiate over issues such as alliances, royal marriages, truces, and peace treaties.

1.1.4 Early State Systems

Since man began to organize into sedentary political units more than 10,000 years ago, domination and subordination have been the predominant structure characteristic of relations between diverse polities. The hierarchical form of relationships has usually been in the form of sedentary empires, varying arrangements of suzerainty or dominion over lesser, subordinate, and dependent political structures.

1.1.5 City States

The **City**-state was an arrangement of a small territory dominated by a single city. It a political system consisting of an independent city having sovereignty over contiguous territory and serving as a centre and leader of political, economic, and cultural life. City-states differed from tribal or national systems in size, exclusiveness, patriotism, and passion for independence. The thousands of city-states that sprang into existence during these

centuries were remarkable for their diversity. Every variety of political experiment from monarchy to communism was practiced, and the fundamental principles of political life were formulated by their philosophers. The particularism of city-states was their glory and their weakness. Incapable of forming any permanent union or federation, they fell victim to the Macedonians, the Carthaginians, and the Roman Empire, under which they lived on as dependent privileged communities.

1.1.5 Imperial States System

This is the precursor of modern international states system. **Imperial states system** is a situation in which one member of state system asserts unique claims which the others formally or tacitly accept. This system is **suzerain** or **hegemonic states system**, and it is different from international state system.

Characteristics of Empire

- a. It could be loose with very substantial autonomy for its constituents units. The centre was gradually content with symbolic forms of superiority such as animal payments or other symbolic expression of fealty. This was the essential structure of the ancient Chinese empire prior to 771 B.C. and more recently the Ottoman Empire.
- b. Effective forms of central through military occupation, developed bureaucracies, and surveillance and taxation of subordinate units characterized other empires, e.g. Roman Empire.

1.1.6 Territorial State

Territorial state is a social organization, whose purpose includes security, freedom, order, justice, welfare. It can contain people from diverse backgrounds. It is a defined territory within which all comers are automatically subject to a definite body of laws.

1.1.7 Sovereign States

In this modern period, state conventionally means “**sovereign states**”: independent political authorities, which recognize no superior. It is the unit of the international system. The rise of the nation-states beginning from the 1400s and their independence from the Holy Roman Empire in 1648 gave rise to the international state system.

Sovereignty is referred to as monopoly over the legitimate means of coercion (force). Sovereignty can be internal and external. Internal sovereignty is the authority over certain territory and the population within this territory, while external sovereignty is the right of the state to represent the population living on certain

territory in the external affairs, based on its legitimacy, namely the condition of recognition of a state's sovereignty by other states.

1.1.8 Nation-State

This is the unit of the modern international system. A **nation** is a group of people who share a common culture, history, or language and have a feeling of national unity; while a state is an area of land whose people have an independent government. A **nation state** exists if a nation and a state have the same boundaries. Many people believe that a national group had the right to form its own state. When this is done, a nation-state is produced.

ITQ

Question

If a nation is defined by a group of people who share common culture, history, or language, a State defined via an area of land whose people have an independent government. What then is a nation-state?

Feedback

A nation-state is when a people of common culture have an area of land with an independent government.

1.1.9 International State System

An **international state system** can be defined as any collection of independent political entities—tribes, city-states, nations, or empires—which interact with considerable frequency and according to regularized process. Put differently, International State system is a system of relations between politically organized territorial structures that enjoy and exercise a measure of independence from each other and are under a higher authority. It is a transnational structure of political authority that might undermine territorial democracy. By transnational, we mean government, politics and diplomacy extending beyond the boundaries, interests, etc of a single nation. It is the integration among nations with *non-coercive* efforts; the tendency toward the voluntary creation of larger political units each of which self-consciously eschews the use of force in the relations between the participating units and groups.

There were relationships between early empires, but they did not constitute international systems because the intensity of relations was low and usually concerned only one sector such as trade in luxuries, eg: Trade between Rome and Han China in 2nd century BC. There was no formalized diplomatic-military relationship.

Modern international state system is a product of Westphalia Treaties of 1648, which recognized the nation-states as the basic unit of political organization and international relation, following the abolition of the Holy Roman Empire. In actual sense, there had not been international state system before 1648. What had existed were city-states, federal states, and imperial states system which eventually evolved into international system.

ITQ

Question

What will you ascribe as the purpose of territorial state?

Feedback

The purpose of territorial state includes security, freedom, order, justice, welfare.

1.2 Structure of Analysis of Historical System: The Precursor to International System

Historical system will be analysed from five aspects:

- a. Boundary of the system: the line between interaction and environment. Any international system has identifiable boundaries—geographic, cultural, or issue lines beyond which actions and transactions between the component political units have no effect on environment, and where events or conditions in the environment have no effect on the political units.
- b. The main characteristics of the political units whose interactions form an international system. This includes types of governments and administrations that political units developed, the role of average citizen or subject in the political unit's external relations, and the methods by which resources of the unit were mobilized to achieve external objectives.
- c. The System Structure: a characteristic configuration of power and influence or persisting forms of dominant and subordinate relationships.
- d. Forms of interaction among the component units—diplomatic contacts, trade, types of rivalries, and organized violence or warfare.
- e. The techniques and institutions used to resolve major conflicts: interactions and processes in most systems are regulated or governed by explicit or implicit rules or customs, the major assumptions or value upon which all relationships are based.



If historical system can be analysed through the boundary and structure of systems that exist, what other structure can you use to analyze international system



While there are varied concepts toward what a State is, a nation state exists if a nation and a state have the same boundaries.

Study Session Summary



Summary

In this Study Session, you explored the key concepts that are relevant to states in international system. You also examined the aspects of analysis in the historical system of the international system.

Assessment



Assessment

SAQ 1.1 (tests learning outcome 1.1)

Can you define the following terms:

- a. evolution
- b. system
- c. state system
- d. early state system
- e. city state
- f. imperial state system
- g. sovereign state
- h. nation-state
- i. international state system

SAQ 1.2 (tests learning outcome 1.2)

Point out the five aspects of analysis in the historical system of the international system.

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Study Session 2

Historical Precursor to the International State System I: Cities-States 1: Greek City State

Introduction

In this study session you will learn about the historical forms of political organization, or more accurately, the historical development of the state system, which will provide a background to understanding the evolution of international state system. The historical examples of state systems, such as those of the Greeks show the development of rudimentary international institutions such as diplomacy and trade, but war, conquest and slavery were the most notable correlates of political independence. Most systems of states eventually collapsed through constant warfare to be taken over by neighbouring empires and kingdoms.

Learning Outcomes



Outcomes

When you have studied this session, you should be able to:

- 2.1 define city-states.
- 2.2 discuss the organs of the city-states
- 2.3 analyse the diplomacy of the Greek City-States

Terminology

Diplomacy	Subtly skilful negotiation between nations.
Polis	

2.1 A Brief on the Greek City States

As noted in Study Session 1, the **city-state** was an arrangement of a small territory dominated by a single city. It a political system consisting of an independent city having sovereignty over

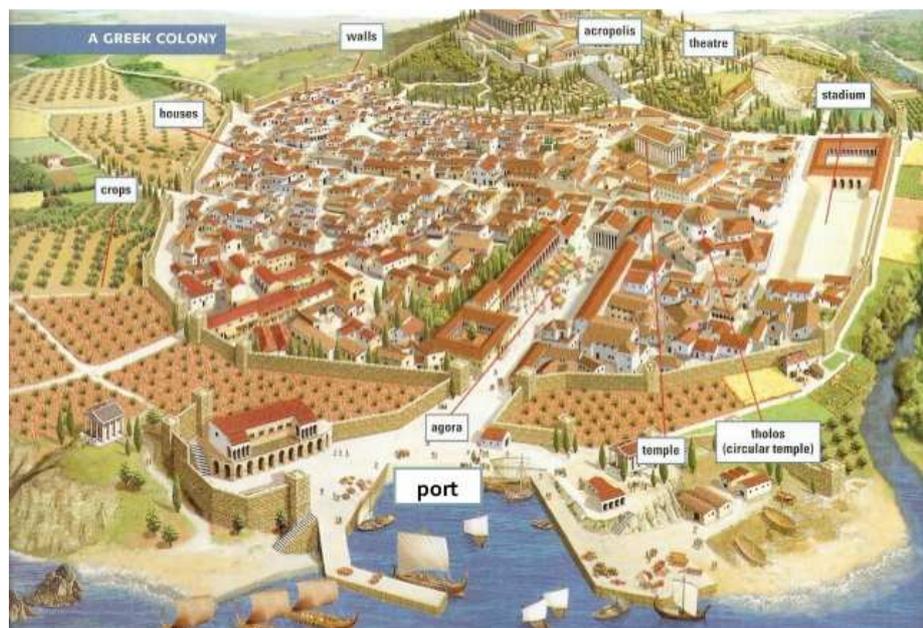
contiguous territory and serving as a centre and leader of political, economic, and cultural life.

This kind of state was common in ancient period. The political unit in ancient Greece was the city-state.

Hint

City-state political organization latter emerged in the late Middle Ages (Renaissance), such as the Italian Renaissance cities, which is discussed in Study Session 3.

While other peoples settled for one king of political arrangement, the Greeks were struggling between monarchy, oligarchy, democracy and tyranny; and while other peoples were forming empires, the Greek cities usually preferred independence, in the form of a polis a city-state, and other times preferred to (or were forced to) join some alliances. Apart from the several differences that the several cities had, Greek cities shared a lot in common, and many other factors did favour the formation of alliances.



Greek city state

2.2 Organs of the Greek City-states

The first organs of the city-state were the general assembly of all its members and the magistracy of the consuls. At an early date a council began to replace the unwieldy assembly for ordinary political and legislative business; and, with the growing complexity of the constitution, further councils emerged, conditions varying considerably from town to town.

The Assembly or Ecclesia

The institutions by which this body of citizen-members undertook to transact its political business can be illustrated by taking Athens as the best-known type of the democratic constitution. The whole body of male citizens formed the *Assembly or Ecclesia*, a town-meeting which every Athenian was entitled to attend after he had reached the age of twenty years. The Assembly met regularly ten times in the year and in extraordinary session at the call of the Council. The interesting thing about Athenian government is therefore not the Assembly of the whole people, but the political means which had been designed to make the magistrates and officials responsible to the citizen body and answerable to its control. The terms were short; there was usually a provision against re-election, and thus the way was open for other citizens to have a turn at the management of public affairs. The two bodies which formed the keys to popular control of government on Athens were the *Council of Five Hundred* and the *Courts* with their large popular juries. The manner in which the members of these governing bodies were chosen explains the sense in which they could be said to represent the whole people (the really essential governing bodies).

Council of Five Hundred

In substance, the Council of 500 was an executive and steering committee for the Assembly. The actual work of governing was really centred on this committee. Five hundred (500) were reduced to a working size by the favourable device of rotation in office. Each of the ten (10) tribes, into which the Athenians were divided, furnished fifty (50) of the members, and the fifty members from a single tribe was active for one-tenth of the yearly term of office. This committee augmented by one councilman from each of the nine tribes not in office was in actual control and transacted business in the name of the entire council. A president was chosen by lot from the fifty for a single day, and no Athenian could hold this honour for more than one day in his entire life.

Duties of the Council

- a. The council was charged with the very important duty of proposing measures for the consideration of the general Assembly of the citizens which only acted upon matters coming to it through the council.
- b. In addition to these legislative duties the council was also the central executive body in the government. Foreign embassies had access to the people only through the council. The magistrates were largely subject to its control.

- It could imprison citizen and even condemn them to death acting itself as a court.
- c. It had entire control of finances, the management public property and taxation.
 - d. The fleet and its arsenals were directly controlled by it.

ITQ

Question

Can you describe the city-state?

Feedback

The city-state was an arrangement of a small territory dominated by a single city.



Tip

The Greek city states were a multiplicity of various kinds of political arrangements, namely, monarchy, oligarchy, democracy and tyranny; and they usually preferred independence, in the form of a polis (a city-state).

Court

The Athenian courts were undoubtedly a keystone of the whole democratic system. The men of these courts (Jurymen) were nominated by the demes, a panel of six thousand being elected each year, and were chosen by lot to sit in particular courts and upon particular cases. Any Athenian citizen thirty years old might be chosen for this duty.

The court was a very large body scarcely ever less than 201, commonly as many as 501, and sometimes much larger.

Duties of the Court

The main duty of the court was to render just decision in particular cases either civil or criminal. In addition they had powers vastly beyond this, which to modern ideas were clearly of an executive or legislative rather than of a judicial nature.

It was through the courts, however, that popular controls both of magistrates and of the law itself was consummated.

Ten Generals

One important body of Athenian officials which remained outside the scheme of choice by lot and which retained a much larger measure of independence than the others was the body of the ten generals. They were chosen by direct election and were, of course

eligible to repeated re-elections. The generals were, of course, in theory purely military officers, but especially in imperial days, they actually exercised not only important powers in foreign parts of the Athenian Empire, but also very great influence over the decision of the council and the Assembly at home. It was a political office of the highest importance.

Local Government

For purposes of local government the Athenians were divided into about a hundred demes or as they might be called, wards or parishes or townships. These demes were the units of local government. Membership in them was hereditary. They were the door by which the Athenian entered into citizenship. They kept the register of their members and every Athenian boy was enrolled at the age of eighteen. But their really important function was the presentation of candidates to fill the various bodies by which the central government was carried on.



Note

Some sort of council was a characteristic part of all forms of the Greek city-states but in the aristocratic states, as in Sparta, the council was a senate composed of elders, chosen for life and without responsibility to the assembly. Membership in such a council would normally be the prerogative of a well-born governing class and hence quite different from the popularly chosen Council at Athens.

2.3 Diplomacy of the Greek City-States

The Greek city-states formed alliances. Before the Trojan War, there is little account for Greek alliances. The expedition to Troy, however, also constitutes an early example of an alliance formed by poleis, with the participating armies recognizing Agamemnon, ruler of Argos, as their leader.

A number of reasons that motivated the formation of such alliances can be traced throughout the History, the most obvious one being the common elements that the Greek cities shared. What distinguished Greeks from non-Greeks was their language, which was common among Greek city-states in most parts, maybe in several dialects. Greek tradition was also common for the cities, and Greek mythology was usually shared among them. Religion and moral beliefs were also very similar, given the belief to the Olympian Gods and the frequent visits to their representatives at Delphi, for example.

A second cause for alliances was the defense against the Persian danger. The formation of the Hellenic League when the Persians started moving towards mainland Greece was an early example;

with the league consisting of many Greek city-states defending themselves in Marathon, Salamis and Plataea. As soon as the Persian threat was miles away from mainland Greece, the league broke up, thus making clear the reasons of its formation. The Delian League, formed soon after was also formed for this reason. Thucydides states “The Athenians ... fixed which cities were to contribute money against the barbarian, which ships; their professed object being to retaliate for their sufferings by ravaging the [Persian] king’s country.” Thus, even though as it turned out in the end, the Athenians turned the alliance into an empire, the barbarian danger was a significant cause for the formation of alliances.

A further reason to the formation of an alliance was to defend from, or attack to, another existing alliance. Another reason for joining an alliance was the inability to stay independent, especially in the case of existing and powerful alliances or empires were having a war with each other.



Tip

The diplomacy of the Greek City-States centred on the formation of alliances motivated by a number of reasons.

Study Session Summary



Summary

In this Study Session, you examined the structure of city-state using Greece as an example.

Assessment



Assessment

SAQ 2.1 (tests learning outcome 2.1)

Identify the characteristics of the Greek City-states.

SAQ 2.2 (tests learning outcome 2.2)

State the organs of the Greek City-states.

SAQ 2.3 (tests learning outcome 2.3)

What was the nature of the diplomacy of the Greek City-states?

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Study Session 3

Historical Precursor to the International State System 1: City States 2: The Italian Renaissance Cities-States

Introduction

In Study Session 2, you learned about the city states and its Greek version. In this study session, you will learn about Italian renaissance cities, another example of city states. During the Middle Ages, much of Italy was controlled by the Holy Roman Empire. As the emperors and popes fought for control, both were weakened. Several Italian cities formed states that were independent of both the empire and the church. Venice and Florence were two centres of power and wealth that became the cradle of the Renaissance.

Learning Outcomes



Outcomes

When you have studied this session, you should be able to:

- 3.1 discuss the civilization of Renaissance in Italy.
- 3.2 describe the form of political organization in High Middle Ages before Renaissance.
- 3.3 discuss Italian Renaissance city-state.
- 3.4 analyse the diplomacy of the Italian Renaissance city-state.

Terminology

Renaissance	A cultural rebirth.
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3.1 Renaissance

Renaissance means rebirth or renewal. It has been applied to the revival of the ancient learning which began in Italy, to the reformation of religion which, starting from Germany, inaugurated a religious revolution as well as the reception of Roman Law. Yet in a sense, Renaissance was never more than a minority movement

of a few scholars and artists, who were patronized by princes and rich merchants, and whose views gradually circulated throughout Europe. The civilization of Renaissance as highlighted by Jacob Bukhardt started in Florence, Italy.

ITQ

Question

Renaissance means rebirth, true or false?

Feedback

Yes, renaissance means rebirth or renewal of culture and learning.

3.2 Political Organization in Europe before Renaissance

In the disintegration of the ancient world, serfdom of a sort on the great estates replaced slave-exploitation agriculture and crafts. A warrior aristocracy was gaining domination and forms of serfdom were developing also within the tribal society. The serf stood half-way between the slave and the free man. He possessed land in the sense that he had his own piece of land from which to get his living, but he had to stay on the estate where he lived; he was tied to the land. He knew how many days' (or how much) work he did for himself and how many (or how much) he did for his master. It was initially a Christian society, until the emergence and spread of Islam. Exploitation, though not disguised, was justified and defended as a part of a divine order of things expounded to the people by the Church (which itself drew great wealth from feudal holdings). The Church taught the virtues of subservience (obedience) and depicted a heavenly hierarchy governing the universe in much the same way as the feudal system dominated the lives of men on earth. It was thus a closed society, so patterned and graded from labouring serf to mighty prince that it was thought a disturbance of the divinely appointed order for a man to seek to rise out of that grade of society to which God had been pleased to call him, except through the appointed channel of the church. There were essentially three classes, namely, (a) "the upper class" made up of the king and nobles, who enjoyed privileges and did not pay tax. (b) The "middle-class" people—doctors, lawyers, educators, etc, and they did not enjoy privilege (c) the "lower class" made up of the serf and peasants. They paid tax to the nobles and tithed to the Church.

3.3 Italian Renaissance City-states

The **Italian city-states** were a political phenomenon of small independent states mostly in the central and northern Italian peninsula between the 9th and 15th centuries. They were sufficiently small units which developed a sense of self-consciousness and civic patriotism. The Italian city-states formed a perfect domicile for the renaissance of art and literature, since it housed a politically and economically mature community free with its patronage. Here there existed groups of intelligent men, lay rather than clerical, who were interested in classical literature, who were open to new ideas and who had been freed to an increasing extent from clerical domination.

The Italian towns, outside the Papal States, had already gone some ways to bring their clergy under the control of the civil magistrate. Moreover, such societies had gone far to reject or modify the essential Christian teaching renunciation, and to substitute more distinctively secular criterion for action. This is because during the Middle Ages, Italy had remained in some ways different from the areas to the north of it, largely because of the persistence of the ancient Roman tradition. Italy was more urban, for one thing; vigorous towns existed there from at least the tenth century, taking advantage of every opportunity to shake themselves loose from the grip of their overlords and achieve virtual independence. This movement sometimes took the form of an uprising against a ruling bishop; at other times it might mean resistance to the claims of the Holy Roman emperor.

ITQ

Question

Political organization in Europe before renaissance is a closed system. What feature reflected this?

Feedback

Governance was done in the same way as the feudal system dominated the lives of men on earth.

3.3.1 Characteristics of Italian Renaissance City-states

By 1300, most of these republics had become princely states dominated by Signore. The exceptions were Venice, Florence, Lucca, and a few others, which remained republics in the face of an increasingly monarchic Europe. In many cases by 1400 the Signori were able to found a stable dynasty over their dominated city (or group of regional cities), obtaining also a nobility title of sovereignty by their formal superior.

In the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries, Milan, Venice, and Florence were able to conquer other city-states, creating regional states. The 1454 Peace of Lodi ended their struggle for hegemony in Italy, attaining a balance of power. At the beginning of the sixteenth century, apart from some minor city-states like Lucca or San Marino, only the republican Venice was able to preserve her independence and to match the European monarchies of France and Spain and the Ottoman Empire.



Tip

The political organization in Europe before renaissance was characterized by serfdom.

3.3.2 Political Organization of Italian Renaissance City-states

Italian city-states conducted their own trade, collected their own taxes, and made their own laws. Some city-states, such as Florence, were governed by an elected council. During the Renaissance groups of guild members, called boards, often ruled Italian city-states. Some wealthy families gained long-term control; city-states were ruled by a single family, such as the Medicis.

Another key to supreme rule in the Italian city-state was military command. By the fourteenth century, the citizens' army had given way to hired, or mercenary troops. This change was in part the result of internal class conflict; whichever faction won out in the struggle for power was reluctant to allow its defeated enemies to bear arms.

3.4 Diplomacy of the Italian Renaissance City-states

War and trade dominated the diplomacy of the Italian renaissance City-states. Constant conflict was the fate of these vigorous urban societies. In addition to the internal struggle, and the struggles for independence from emperor and pope, there was the constant fighting of the cities against one another. They fought for commercial supremacy, control of trade routes, access to seaports, territorial expansion, and possession of natural resources; like their internal conflicts, these intercity wars and rivalries were likely to be prolonged, bitter, and ruthless. Reference has been made to the commercial rivalry of Genoa, Pisa, and Venice. Florence fought for centuries for control of Pisa and was frequently engaged in war with other Tuscan neighbours and rivals, such as Lucca and Siena.



Tip

War and trade dominated the diplomacy of the Italian renaissance City-states.

Study Session Summary



Summary

In this Study Session, you examined:

- the civilization of Renaissance in Italy.
- the form of political organization in High Middle Ages before Renaissance.
- Italian Renaissance city-state.
- the diplomacy of the Italian Renaissance city-state.

Assessment



Assessment

SAQ 3.1 (tests Learning outcome 3.1)

Describe political organization in Europe before Renaissance

SAQ 3.2 (tests Learning outcome 3.2)

Describe Italian Renaissance City-states

SAQ 3.3 (tests Learning outcome 3.3)

- a. What were the characteristics of the Italian Renaissance city-states?
- b. Discuss the political organization of the Italian Renaissance city-states

SAQ 3.4 (tests Learning outcome 3.4)

Analyse the diplomacy of the Italian Renaissance city-states

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Study Session 4

Historical Precursor to the International State System 2: The Political Empire 1: Macedonian and Hellenistic Empire

Introduction

In Study Sessions 2 and 3, you learned about the first stage of the historical precursor of the state system - city-states - with the Greek and Italian Renaissance city-states as examples. We will now explore the second stage of the historical precursor of state system, which is suzerain, imperial or hegemonic states system. In this stage, attention will be given to Macedonian and Roman Empires, Christendom and Byzantine Empire, Islamic, Indian, and Chinese Empires. Each of these examples will be examined in the subsequent study sessions. In this study session you will learn about the Macedonian Empire.

Learning Outcomes



Outcomes

When you have studied this session, you should be able to:

- 4.1 discuss Macedonian empire.
- 4.2 describe the Hellenistic empire.
- 4.3 analyse the structure of Hellenistic system.
- 4.4 describe the diplomacy of the Hellenistic Empire

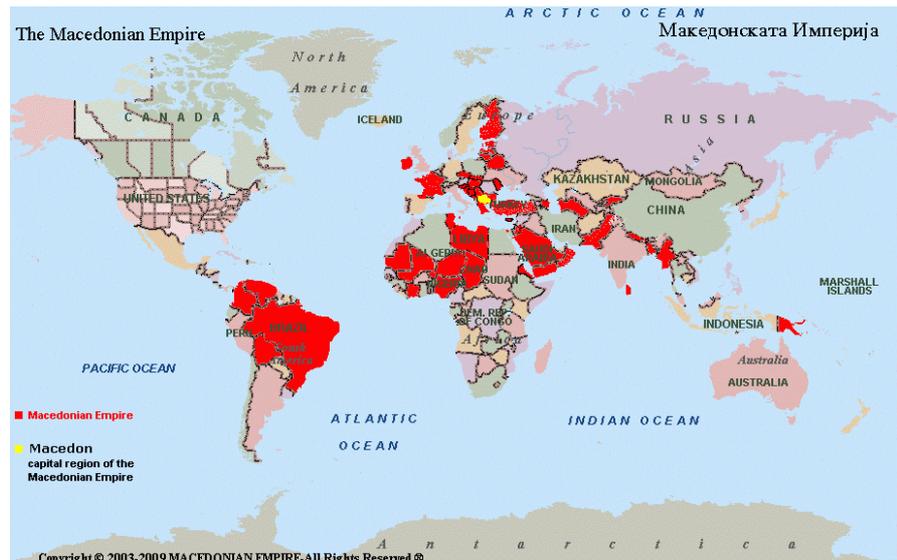
Terminology

Empire	An extensive group of states or countries ruled over by a single monarch, an oligarchy, or a sovereign state.
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4.1 Macedonian Empire

It would be recalled that the Greek societies were structured in city-

states or polis system, each of which had its independence and its peculiar form of government. By the beginning of the fourth century B.C. the polis system, which had been the backbone of Greek political life, had become outdated. The polis was no longer a self-sufficient economic and political community. The Greek poleis could not unite into an effective federation; neither could they leave each other alone. Greece could no longer present a unified and effective opposition to the great powers which threatened its independence.



Macedonian Empire

To the east, Persia (present day Iran) had already swallowed up the Greek cities in Asia Minor as its prize for helping Sparta in the Peloponnesian War. To the north was an even greater menace. The partially Hellenized tribes of Macedonia had been united into a powerful military machine under the leadership of Philip of Macedon (359-336 B.C.). King Philip, a brilliant politician and general, set out to unite all of Greece under his leadership. He adopted Greek culture and customs, and when this attempt at persuasion failed to win the Greek cities over, he used the powerful Macedonian army to subdue his opponents, thus creating the Macedonian **empire**.

ITQ

Question

How did the Macedonian empire emerged?

Feedback

King Philip of Macedon, a brilliant politician and general, set out to unite all of Greece under his leadership. He adopted Greek culture and customs, and when this attempt at persuasion failed to win the

Greek cities over, he used the powerful Macedonian army to subdue his opponents, thus creating the Macedonian empire.

4.2 The Hellenistic Empire

However, when King Phillip II died in 336 B.C., he left his son, known to history as Alexander the Great (336-323 B.C.) as king of the thriving Macedonian state as well as hegemon (president) of the League of Corinth, the alliance of Greek cities through which Philip had exercised control over Greece. Alexander also inherited his father's plan to conquer a large part of the East. After establishing a stable government at home, he crossed into Asia to challenge the tottering Persian Empire. In the course of a few years Alexander subdued the Persian Empire and Egypt and directed his course of conquest eastward to the borders of India. This created a situation where various stocks of people, Greeks and non Greeks alike, came under one central imperial administration, with Macedon as the headquarters. Turning back at last—mainly because the army mutinied—he died in Babylon in 323 B.C., before he could complete the organization of his vast domains. The precedents of Hellenistic philosophy are political. Seleucus took possession of Persia, Mesopotamia, and Syria; Lysimachus assumed control over Asia Minor and Thrace; Cassander established himself in Macedonia; and Ptolemy added Phoenicia and Palestine to his original domain of Egypt. Twenty years later these four states were reduced to three when Seleucus defeated and killed Lysimachus in battle and appropriated his kingdom. This eliminated the Greek 'polis', and common political ideals crumbled when the citizen became a subject. It was this arrangement created by Alexander that is known as **Hellenistic**.

The geography of Hellenistic system embraces all the regions in which Greek culture spread after the fall of Macedonian Empire. Its influence was felt from Syria to Asia Minor, Africa, and finally Rome.

ITQ

Question

What was the basic royal power of the Hellenistic system? And what was the success story of the power?

Feedback

The Army. The army officers were well paid and satisfactorily rewarded with lands.

4.3 The Political Structure of Hellenistic system

In government, economics, social structure, and culture, the similarities among the three empires and the splinter kingdoms were significant enough to constitute a common Hellenistic civilization that prevailed into the first century B.C. Only in Macedonia itself, and to a lesser extent in the Greek cities of the League of Corinth, were traditional restrictions on monarchy preserved. In the rest of the Hellenistic world each king claimed divinity, exercised absolute power, and occupied a hereditary throne. The only limitations on the power of the king were those he imposed. In Egypt and the Seleucid Empire the king was worshiped as a god, as had been the custom in Near Eastern monarchies.

Throughout the Hellenistic world the basis of royal power was the army, which was composed of Macedonian and Greek mercenaries. Because the king paid his mercenaries by allotting them pieces of land, these forces were partly self-perpetuating. Numerous military colonies were established in which the lands of the father customarily passed on to a son, who also inherited his father's obligation to serve in the king's army.

The Hellenistic kingdoms were centralized, efficient and autocratic. The king ruled by means of highly complex and efficient bureaucracies, staffed, like the armies, by Greeks and Macedonians. Hellenistic bureaucracy enabled the government to achieve a degree of centralization and control seldom equaled in history.

Cities were the centres of government and culture in the Hellenistic world. All the Hellenistic kings, beginning with Alexander the Great, established cities as centres of administration and trade. The city governments supplemented but in no way superseded the jurisdiction of the king. Most major public actions required royal assent. The king had his own tax collectors and often maintained a garrison within the city. Even cities which were given their freedom by the king held it only as long as the king wished.



Tip

The Hellenistic kingdoms were centralized, efficient and autocratic. The king ruled by means of highly complex and efficient bureaucracies, staffed, like the armies, by Greeks and Macedonians.

4.4 The Hellenistic Diplomacy

Intercity relations became increasingly important, and leagues of cities with mutual interests were common. Many cities were highly

cosmopolitan international centres. The Hellenistic era witnessed the apogee of interstate diplomacy among the peoples of the ancient Mediterranean world. Although Alexander the Great's empire was short-lived, the Hellenistic civilization it produced shaped the course of political, social, and cultural development on three continents (Africa, Asia, Europe).

Two other political institutions developed as by-products of Hellenistic civilization: the Achaean and Aetolian Leagues. The states of the Peloponnesus, with the exception of Sparta and Elis, were united in the Achaean League, while the Aetolian federation included nearly all of central Greece with the exception of Athens. The organization of these leagues was essentially the same in both cases. Each had a federal council composed of representatives of the member cities with power to enact laws on subjects of general concern. An assembly which all of the citizens in the federated states could attend decided questions of war and peace and elected officials. Executive and military authority was vested in the hands of a general, elected for one year and eligible for re-election only in alternate years. Although these leagues are frequently described as federal states, they were scarcely more than confederacies.



Tip

The Hellenistic era witnessed the apogee of interstate diplomacy among the peoples of the ancient Mediterranean world.

ITQ

Question

The Hellenistic civilization shaped the course of political, social, and cultural development on three continents. Which continents are they?

Feedback

Africa, Asia, Europe.

Study Session Summary



Summary

In this Study Session, we discussed the Macedonian and the Hellenistic empires.

Assessment



Assessment

SAQ 4.1 (tests learning outcome 4.1)

What do you understand by Macedonian Empire?

SAQ 4.2 (tests learning outcome 4.2)

Highlight the geography of Hellenistic world.

SAQ 4.3 (tests learning outcome 4.3)

Describe the political structure of Hellenistic society.

SAQ 4.4 (tests learning outcome 4.4)

Discuss the diplomacy of the Hellenistic world.

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Study Session 5

Historical Precursor to the International State System 2: The Political Empire 2: Roman Empire

Introduction

In this study session, you will learn about the Roman Empire as a precursor to the international states system. The Empire dominated most nations around the world and brought them into a close interaction, which was partly sustained during the Middle Ages under the Holy Roman Empire, which in turn created the basis for the emergence of the modern nation state and ultimately the modern international state system.

Learning Outcomes



Outcomes

When you have studied this session, you should be able to:

- 5.1 discuss the rise of Rome
- 5.2 discuss the growth of Rome from republic to empire
- 5.3 explain the government of Roman Empire
- 5.4 analyse Roman diplomacy

5.1 The Rise of Rome

While the city-states in Greece were struggling for mastery, following the fall of Macedonian Empire, another civilization was developing in Italy. Tribes from various points of the compass entered the Peninsular gradually overcame or drove out the original inhabitants, and settled there. Among the newcomers were Aryans, Kinsmen of the Greeks. About the middle of the 8th century B.C. Aryan tribes founded a village called Rome, near the mouth of the Tiber.

For a period the Romans were subject to the Etruscan, who occupied the part of Italy now known as Tuscany. About 500 BC they shook off the Etruscan yoke, and ceased to be ruled by kings.

From embracing only a portion of central Italy, Rome grew to become supreme in the peninsula. In the meantime, Rome was sacked by the Gauls (France) in 390 BC; but the city was rebuilt. The power of Rome increased until towards the end of the third century B.C. The Gauls were overpowered, and the last of the Greek colonies in Italy surrendered. It extended her boundaries until the city embraced the seven neighbouring hills and was surrounded by strong walls and became the master of Italy. By 509 BC, Rome had become a republic with a social division between the patricians (upper class) and the plebs (lower class). The plebeians were at last admitted to share in the government.

5.2 Expansion of Rome: From Republic to Empire

After the conquest of Carthage (Tunisia) in 146 BC, Rome continued to expand. Macedonia and all that was left of Greece came under her sway. Her armies went through Asia Minor and Syria into Palestine. After a struggle lasting thirty years, Egypt became a Roman province (30 BC). Northward, the Roman legacies pushed—through Gaul and finally into Britain. As Rome extended her borders, the Senate, comprised chiefly of patricians proved to be incapable of controlling dominions so wide. It was General Julius Caesar whom saw that the rule of one man was best suited to the task. In 60 BC, three men made themselves masters of Rome—Pompey, Crassus, and Caesar, who was the most powerful. As the idol of the populace, he was offered the crown—an honour he declined. A number of conspirators jealous of his power, resolved to put an end to him. He was assassinated in the Senate House. Octavius the adopted son of Caesar proved the strongest among the contenders, Mark Anthony and Lepidus. Octavius, who assumed Augustus, became the first Roman Emperor.



Tip

After the conquest of Carthage (Tunisia) in 146 BC, Rome continued to expand. Her armies went through Asia Minor and Syria into Palestine. After a struggle lasting thirty years, Egypt became a Roman province (30 BC). Northward, the Roman legacies pushed—through Gaul and finally into Britain.

5.3 The Government of the Roman Empire

In the Republican Rome, the structure of government evolved over several centuries toward an awkward system that gave overwhelming power to a group of prominent, mainly patrician families. These families provided candidates of the consulate, the supreme executive and military office, and dominated the Senate, the main legislative body. The senate was constituted of 300 former magistrates chosen for life. The popular assemblies can check the

powers of the senate in some cases, but were often dominated by it. These popular assemblies included the Centuriate and the Tribal Assemblies. The Centuriate Assembly was based upon the elements of the army (patricians, army, elected consuls and other magistrates), while Tribal Assembly was based upon regional groupings in Rome and was more responsive to the less influential classes (the plebians who made decisions or binding law for all Romans). Under the Centuriate Assembly were the Praetor (judicial interpreters of law, who were second in power only to the Censors), Quaestor (financial tax collectors and record keepers and paymasters for the army), Censor (office in charge of census of citizens) and other magistrates elected for one year.

The system broke down in the first century B.C. under the burdens of imperial expansion and the power struggles of the great families. In Roman Empire, Julius Caesar gathered into his own hands the powers of the major republican officials: consul, praetor, tribune, and dictator—the ancient title of sole magistrate, which had been granted in the past for very short periods of emergency. When in 44 B.C. Caesar was made dictator for life, he was an absolute monarch in everything but name. He combined in his person the leadership of the state and the army and possessed all the authorities needed to fulfil his roles. Upon his emergence, Augustus Caesar had the control of the state. He was the constitutional embodiment of all republican political authority. Rather than claiming monarchical prerogative, he took over—much as had Julius Caesar—all the powers of the republican magistrates and thus could curb the Senate and assembly while ruling as the legal holder of Roman's *imperium*.



Tip

The Republican system of Rome broke down in the first century B.C. under the burdens of imperial expansion, giving rise to dictatorship and totalitarianism of the Emperor.

5.4 Diplomacy of the Roman Empire

Rome inherited what the Greeks devised and adapted it to the task of imperial administration. This was the use of negotiations and treaties. As Rome expanded it often negotiated with representatives of conquered areas to which it granted partial self-government by way of a treaty. In conducting diplomacy, treaties were made with other states under Greek international law which emphasized sanctity of contract. During the Roman Republic, the senate conducted foreign policy, though a department for foreign affairs was established. Later under the empire, the emperor was the magnificent and their aides were granted immunity.

Roman envoys were sent abroad with written instructions from their government. Sometimes a messenger, or *nuntius* was sent usually to towns. For large responsibilities, a *legatio* (embassy) of 10 to 12 *legati* (ambassadors) were organized under a president. The *legati*, who were leading citizens chosen for their skill or oratory, were inviolable. Roman law which stressed the sanctity of contracts became the basis of treaties.

ITQ

Question

Though by adoption, whose descendant became the first Emperor?

Feedback

Octavius, the adopted son of Caesar.

Late in the Republican era, the laws applied by the Romans to foreigner and to foreign envoys were merged with the Greek concept of natural law, an ideal code applying to all people, to create a law of nations. The sanctity of treaties and the law of nations were absorbed by the Roman Catholic Church and preserved in the centuries after the Western Roman Empire collapsed and a foundation was thus provided for the more sophisticated doctrines of international law that began to emerge along with the European nation-state a millennium later.



Tip

As Rome expanded it often negotiated with representatives of conquered areas to which it granted partial self-government by way of a treaty. In conducting diplomacy, treaties were made with other states under Greek international law which emphasized sanctity of contract.

Study Session Summary



Summary

In this Study Session, we discussed the growth of Rome from republic to empire. We also explained the government of Roman Empire with its diplomacy.

Assessment



Assessment

SAQ 5.1 (tests learning outcome 5.1)

Describe the rise of Rome?

SAQ 5.2 (tests learning outcome 5.2)

Describe the development of Rome from Republic to Empire

SAQ 5.3 (tests learning outcome 5.3)

Analyse the political structure of Roman Empire

SAQ 5.4 (tests learning outcome 5.4)

Briefly discuss the diplomacy of Roman Empire

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Study Session 6

Historical Precursor to the International State System 2: The Political Empire 3: Chinese Empire

Introduction

Here, you will learn about ancient Chinese empire as one of the historical precursor to modern International State System.

Learning Outcomes



Outcomes

When you have studied this session, you should be able to:

- 6.1 examine the historical development of the Chinese empire.
- 6.2 identify the political units of the Chinese empire.
- 6.3 describe the system structure of the Chinese empire.
- 6.4 analyze the unifying elements of the empire.

6.1 Historical Development of Chinese Empire

Civilization

The process by which a society or place reaches an advanced stage of social development and organization.

Dynasty

A sequence of rulers from the same family, stock, or group

With thousands of years of continuous history, China is one of the world's oldest **civilizations**. Much of Chinese culture, literature and philosophy further developed during the Zhou dynasty (1045–256 BC). The Zhou **dynasty** began to bow to external and internal pressures in the 8th century BC, and the kingdom eventually broke apart into smaller states, beginning in the Spring and Autumn period and reaching full expression in the Warring States period.

The states of the Spring and Autumn only gradually formed an articulated system. They were at first weak, and the territories of some were still shared with native peoples. The Spring and Autumn multi-state system was not culturally uniform. It included Sinitic and non-Sinitic states on a basis of functional equality. Interstate diplomacy was ruler-based.

China was eventually united under one of the regional kings, the first emperor Qin Shi Huang, in 221 BC. The Qin Dynasty he founded only lasted for 12 years, but the emperor wielded absolute power over all of China. The emperor was despotic, ordering the

burning of books to remove all evidence of any earlier dynasties and burying many scholars alive by ceiling them in a room. His tight control of China allowed him to conscript massive labour forces, allowing him to construct ambitious projects like the Great Wall of China.

The Qin Dynasty had gained control over the mass of peasants by abolishing the landowning lords whom they had formerly served and by also abolishing agricultural output and allowed for larger military forces. The Han Dynasty that followed the Qin ruled over a golden age in Chinese history. Their aggressive policy towards the “barbarian” nomads greatly expanded their frontiers in all directions. They had used the nomads, mounted strategies against them, pushing into central Asia and making contact with the Persians. This connected the Roman, Persian and Chinese trade routes, creating the great Silk Road. China’s traders and government prospered from the government held monopoly on silk.

The following dynasties created a feudal system but continued to be autocratic monarchies. Civil wars also fractured China into different kingdoms periodically throughout the 2200 years of dynastic rule. Eventually, the nomadic tribes got the upper hand in the endless struggle between them and China and they created Dynasties of their own.

Eventually, Chinese military fell behind in the development of firearms and ruling dynasties lost much of its influence and control. In 1911 the last dynasty was overthrown.

Thousands of years of dynastic government had ended, China would now be known as the Democratic Republic of China, but heavy handed rule persists throughout the modern Chinese state as in the ancient eras.



Tip

The Zhou dynasty bowed to external and internal pressures in the 8th century BC, and the kingdom eventually broke apart into smaller states. China was eventually united under one of the regional kings, the first emperor Qin Shi Huang, in 221 BC

6.2 Heterogeneous Political Units: Kingdoms, Republics, Tribes and Provinces

Ancient China had a government ruled by dynasties, sometimes united under one dynasty but often competing dynasties in controlling different regions. The government was dynastic. It was sometimes united under one dynasty, and often times there were competing dynasties controlling different regions. In a situation where one of these regional dynasties became dominant, their king

would become the emperor. The government these dynasties created tended to be very autocratic and even despotic, ruthlessly enforcing their rule and conscripting massive armies and labour forces. The resources, large areas and large populations of ancient China demanded a strong central government. Thus, the governments were absolute monarchies, led by the patriarch of a ruling dynasty, and warfare was endemic. Instead of letting local kings run local government, Ch'in sent out governors and judges that he had chosen himself, who were loyal to China and not to the local king.

Chinese empire system structure comprised Direct Rule, Indirect Rule, and Local Autonomy.



Tip

The government tended to be very autocratic and even despotic, ruthlessly enforcing their rule and conscripting massive armies and labour forces. The system structure comprised Direct Rule, Indirect Rule, and Local Autonomy.

6.3 Unifying Elements

Military: The Qin Dynasty had gained control over the mass of peasants by abolishing the landowning lords whom they had formerly served. The abolishing also agricultural output and allowed for larger military forces.

Commerce: The Qin also standardized weights and measures, and even standardized axel lengths for carts to ensure their roads were the right width. This increased all had the effect of increasing trade.

Culture: China (or at least its core) had a central, unifying culture built around philosophers such as Confucius and Lao-tse that was attractive to people over a wide land area. Also, the Chinese written language was developed from pictograms that represented "words," which although pronounced differently in different locations, could have the same meaning over wide land areas.



Tip

The unifying factors in ancient Chinese empire were military, commerce and culture.

6.4 Ancient Chinese Diplomacy

The first records of Chinese diplomacy date from the 1st millennium bc. By the 8th century bc, the Chinese had leagues,

missions, and an organized system of polite discourse between their many “warring states” including resident envoys who served as hostages to the good behaviour of those who sent them.

This tradition of equal diplomatic dealings between contending states within China was ended by the country’s unification under the Qin emperor in 221 bc and the consolidation of unity under the Han dynasty in 206 bc.

Once each succeeding Chinese dynasty had consolidated its rule at home and established its borders with the non-Chinese world, its foreign relations with the outside world were typically limited to the defense of China’s borders against foreign attacks or incursions, the reception of emissaries from neighbouring states seeking to ingratiate themselves and to trade with the Chinese state, and the control of foreign merchants in specific ports designated for foreign trade.

ITQ

Question

During the dynastic rule of China for 2200 years, there were civil wars that fractured the kingdom. One of the factions were nomadic tribes. True or false?

Feedback

Yes. It is true that there were civil wars. The nomadic tribes, during the civil wars, got the upper hand eventually in the endless struggle.

Study Session Summary



Summary

In this Study Session, you learnt:

- the historical development of the Chinese empire.
- the political units of the Chinese empire.
- the system structure of the Chinese empire.
- the unifying elements of the empire.

Assessment



Assessment

SAQ 6.1 (tests learning outcome 6.1)

What were the dynasties that existed in ancient Chinese empire?

SAQ 6.1 (tests learning outcome 6.1)

What was the nature and system structure of the ancient Chinese Empire?

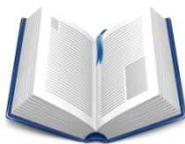
SAQ 6.1 (tests learning outcome 6.1)

What were unifying factors in ancient Chinese Empire?

SAQ 6.1 (tests learning outcome 6.1)

Describe the nature of the diplomacy of the ancient Chinese Empire.

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Study Session 7

Historical Precursor to the International State System 2: The Political Empire 4: Indian Empire

Introduction

In this study session you will learn about India state system.

Learning Outcomes



Outcomes

When you have studied this session, you should be able to:

- 7.1 outline the boundaries of ancient Indian system
- 7.2 highlight the brief history of ancient India
- 7.3 discuss the main characteristics of political units of ancient India
- 7.4 identify the political and system structure of ancient Indian empire
- 7.5 discuss the forms of interaction among the component units.
- 7.6 identify the system regulator and institutions of conflict resolution in India state system

Terminology

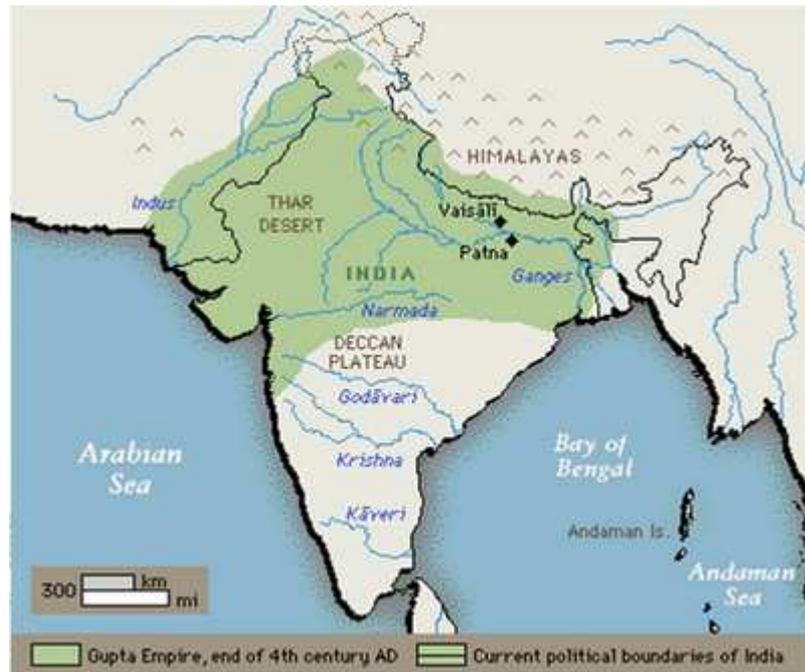
Conflict resolution	A way for two or more parties to find a peaceful solution to a disagreement among them.
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7.1 Boundaries of Ancient Indian System

The Gupta Empire was an ancient Indian empire, founded by Maharaja Sri Gupta, which existed from approximately 320 to 550 CE and covered much of the Indian Subcontinent. The Indian subcontinent is a southerly region of Asia, mostly situated on the Indian Plate and projecting southwards into the Indian Ocean.

The Gupta Empire

The Gupta Empire was an ancient Indian empire, founded by Maharaja Sri Gupta, which existed from approximately 320 to 550 CE and covered much of the Indian Subcontinent, embracing a southerly region of Asia, mostly situated on the Indian Plate and projecting southwards into the Indian Ocean



Definitions of the extent of the Indian subcontinent differ but it usually includes the core lands of India, Pakistan, and Bangladesh. The Empire of the Mauryas was founded in 322 BC by King Chandragupta Maurya, who initially conquered Magadha by dethroning the Nanda ruler, Dhana Nanda. He then invaded and annexed most of Central India and Western India. With the fall of Alexander the Great's Empire, the local rulers could offer Chandragupta Maurya little resistance. Chandragupta's son Bindusara and grandson Ashoka continued the policy of imperial expansion until the Mauryan Empire covered over three million square miles. All the land between eastern Iran and the Himalayan state of Assam was under Mauryan dominion. North to south, the kingdom stretched from beyond Kashmir to parts of Tamil Nadu - one of the mightiest empires of the time. The region within which this system operated was separated from its neighbours by deserts, seas, and the Himalayas.

7.2 Phases of Indian Civilization

Indus valley civilization can be divided into three phases; the early food gathering era, integration era and the localization era, with the arrival of Aryans. Early food gathering era started from 6300 BCE and lasted till 2600 BCE. During this era the civilization consisted of small groups of hunter gatherers and early village farming communities. The integration era (2600 BCE- 1900BCE) started with the incorporation of all the cultures and clans into a single terrain dominated by the “relative similarity of cultural traits”. The integration era was interrupted with the arrival of Aryans around 2000 BCE. The Aryans adopted “conflict ridden symbiosis” with

the local population. This was an uncomfortable and hostile relationship between Aryans and the local population and ended with the complete dominance of Aryans (Younis & Parmar, 2003). This age can be defined as the Localization age (1900 BCE-1500BCE). This age ended with the Triumph of Aryans over the local population and the Vedic age started. During the early Vedic period, due to changes in environment Aryans migrated to Gangetic valley and permanently settled there. After settling down small kingdoms emerged on the banks of Ganges. Religion started to emerge that further influenced the socio-political standards. This gave birth to the caste system and resulted in the diverse stratification of society. Soon in the north, semi republics replaced the small kingdoms. Aryans introduced a political system very similar to democracy with small political institutions. However, in other parts, kingdoms remained autocratic.



Tip

Indus valley civilization can be divided into three phases; the early food gathering era, integration era and the localization era.

7.3 Characteristics of Political Units of Ancient India: From Kingdom to Empire

By about 1500 BC, after the Aryan invasion, all of the people in India seemed to have been divided up into castes. We know this from the Rig Veda. Only men from the highest caste - the Brahmins - could be rulers in the government, or even ministers or clerks in the government. These men did not allow women to rule either. Most of India continued to be divided into small kingdoms, each with their own king.

ITQ

Question

Why was the Chinese empire system structure comprised of direct rule, indirect rule, and local autonomy?

Feedback

Because the local kings tended to be very autocratic and even despotic, ruthlessly enforcing their rule and conscripting massive armies and labour forces.

Beginning in the 300s BC, however, some of these kings began to form larger empires in India, especially in the north. During the

300s BC, Chandragupta conquered a lot of northern India and made it into one big empire. The Mauryan Empire lasted until about 200 BC, but then the small kingdoms of India regained their independence. The same thing happened again in 319 AD, when Chandragupta II formed the Guptan Empire. And then in 455 the Guptan Empire also collapsed.

After that, the most important kingdom in India was the Chola kingdom, which ruled all of south India and east India along the coast. Then in the 1100s AD the Abbasids invaded and made northern India part of the Islamic Empire. So during the medieval period, India went back and forth between being ruled by small kings and being ruled by larger empires.

ITQ

Question

Indian civilisation spanned through three eras. What names are they?

Feedback

The early food gathering era, integration era, and the localization era.

7.4 Political System Structure of Ancient Indian Empire

Within the Mauryan and Guptan empires, and in the Chola kingdom, the kings appointed a lot of administrators to help them govern. The empires were divided into many smaller provinces, and each province had a governor to rule it.

In the beginning of the Vedic age people did not have a settled life and were nomads but with development in agriculture people started to settle down in groups. The organization was mainly tribal and the head of the tribe was supposed to be the raja or the King, though the concept of King had yet not developed. With the passage of time large kingdoms started to grow and by the 6th century BC there were 16 Mahajanapadas (Kingdoms).

There were many small republics also in ancient India. These republics had some elements of democracy in their administration. The king (raja) was the supreme head of the legislative, executive and judiciary branches. He was assisted in administration by a number of officials. The members of the council of minister could give advice to the king, but final decisions were left to the king. The ministers and other officials were directly appointed by the king.

The empire was divided into many provinces and each one of these provinces was governed by a governor and council of ministers. In the provinces there were local officials called rajukas, who became more powerful during the reign of Ashoka. There were certain departments which decided certain important matters of administration. There existed a standing army which was again controlled by certain committees.



Tip

Within the Mauryan and Guptan empires, and in the Chola kingdom, the kings appointed a lot of administrators to help them govern. The empires were divided into many smaller provinces, and each province had a governor to rule it.

During the Gupta period also the administration was more or less like the Mauryas. The most important difference between the Gupta and Mauryan administration was centralization and decentralization of administration. In the Gupta administration, the governors of the provinces were more independent as compared to the Mauryans, where the administration was highly centralized.

7.5 Forms of Interaction among Component Units of Ancient India

Diplomatic contacts, trade, types of rivalries, and organized violence or warfare

Ancient India was home to an equally sophisticated but very different diplomatic tradition. India had very little political connection to the affairs of other regions of the world until Alexander the Great conquered its northern regions in 326 bc. The subsequent establishment of the native Mauryan empire ushered in a new era in Indian diplomatic history that was marked by efforts to extend both Indian religious doctrines (i.e., Buddhism) and political influence beyond South Asia.

The Mauryan emperor Ashoka was particularly active, receiving several emissaries from the Macedonian-ruled kingdoms and dispatching numerous Brahman-led missions of his own to West, Central, and Southeast Asia. Such contacts continued for centuries until the ascendancy of the Raiput kingdoms (8th to the 13th century ad) again isolated northern India from the rest of the world.

Outside the Chola dynasty and other Dravidian kingdoms of South India, which continued diplomatic and cultural exchanges with Southeast Asia and China and preserved the text and memories of the Artha-shastra, India's distinctive mode of diplomatic reasoning and early traditions were forgotten and replaced by those of its Muslim and British conquerors.

ITQ

Question

Indian civilisation which took different phases was halted by the arrival of the Aryans.

Feedback

Yes. During the integration era, Aryans' emergence, also referred to as the localization era triumphed.

7.6 System Regulator and Institutions of Conflict Resolution

The ruthlessly realistic state system codified in the Artha-shastra insisted that foreign relations be determined by self-interest rather than by ethical considerations. It graded state power with respect to five factors and emphasized espionage diplomatic maneuver, and contention by 12 categories of states within a complex geopolitical matrix. It also posited four expedients of statecraft (conciliation, seduction, subversion, and coercion) and six forms of state policy (peace, war, nonalignment, alliances, shows of force, and double-dealing).



Tip

The system regulator of Indian state system was codified in the Artha-shastra.

Study Session Summary



Summary

In this Study Session, you learnt about the India state system. The main characteristic of ancient India state system was a movement from kingdom to empire.

Assessment



Assessment

SAQ 7.1 (tests learning outcome 7.1)

Describe the boundaries of ancient Indian empire

SAQ 7.2 (tests learning outcome 7.2)

What are the phases of Indian civilization?

SAQ 7.3 (tests learning outcome 7.3)

Identify the main characteristic of ancient Indian state system

SAQ 7.4 (tests learning outcome 7.4)

What was the system structure of ancient Indian Empire?

SAQ 7.5 (tests learning outcome 7.5)

Describe the form of interaction among the components of Indian Empire

SAQ 7.6 (tests learning outcome 7.6)

State the four expedients of statecraft and six forms of state policy in ancient Indian diplomacy.

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Study Session 8

Historical Precursor to the International State System 2: The Political Empire 5: Christendom/Byzantium and Carolingian Empire

Introduction

In this study session you will learn about the empires that succeeded the Roman Empire after its collapse in 476 AD. In the sixth century, two civilizations divided the Mediterranean world. One was the surviving Roman Empire in the East, centre on Constantinople and called Byzantine Empire; the other was Carolingian empire comprising the various Germanic successor kingdoms to the Roman Empire in the West. After the expansion of Islam in the seventh and eight centuries, the southern and eastern shores of the Mediterranean, and Spain as well, came under the sway of Muslim, Arabic-speaking peoples. This study session will deal with the first two empires, Byzantine and Carolingian. The third one, Islamic Empire, will be treated in a subsequent study session.

Learning Outcomes



Outcomes

When you have studied this session, you should be able to:

- 8.1 discuss the historical developments of Byzantine and Carolingian empires.
- 8.2 analyse the Nature of the political units
- 8.3 examine the structure of the two state systems
- 8.4 diplomacy of the systems

8.1 Historical Development of Christendom



Byzantine empire was a bastion of Christendom. The status of Christianity changed in the fourth century because of Emperor Constantine I, who officially permitted and promoted Christianity in Roman Empire, following his conversion in 312 AD. The emperors who followed Constantine I continued his legacy. A little later in the century, Theodosius (379-395) required that all of his subjects be Christian. Now the former persecuted church was in danger in becoming a worldly and oppressing church.

Shortly after his victory over Licinius near the ancient city of Byzantium in 324, Constantine founded the 'New Rome' on the site of Byzantium. The new capital city became known as Constantinople (it is now Istanbul in Turkey). Constantine made Constantinople his imperial headquarters.

As the Western Empire disintegrated into feudal kingdoms and principalities (discussed further in Study Session 10), the concept of Christendom changed as the western church became one of the five patriarch of Pentarchy and the Christians of the Eastern Roman Empire (Byzantine Empire) developed. The Byzantine Empire was the last bastion of Christendom.

Similarly, Western Europe and the Mediterranean countries suffered wave after wave of invasion from the fifth through the ninth centuries. The first wave of invasion, of the Latin-speaking provinces of the Roman Empire by Germanic peoples in the fifth century led by Odovacar, inaugurated a far-reaching transformation of government, society and culture.



Tip

In the sixth century, two Christian civilizations divided the Mediterranean world.

- One was the surviving Roman Empire in the East, centre on Constantinople and called Byzantine Empire after the old Greek name for the golden city on the Bosphorus,

- the other was Carolingian empire comprising the various Germanic successor kingdoms to the Roman Empire in the West.

Theology and governmental structure were therefore fixed parts of the Byzantine world, while Germanic Europe was dominated by warriors.

During the sixth century another wave of Germanic incursions (by the Lombards) rolled over Western Europe. The most durable of the Germanic kingdoms arose in Gaul at the end of the fifth century, when an exceptional leader, Clovis I (481-511) established himself at the head of the Franks. He converted to Christianity and reduced all of Gaul to subjection and established the Merovingian dynasty, which lasted for nearly three centuries. The Carolingian rose to power in the Frankish kingdom in the late seventh century, under the leadership of Charles Martel. His son, Pepin III, was able to displace the Merovingians. Boniface crowned the Carolingian chieftain with a diadem in the Byzantine manner. Three years later the pope came to France and repeated the anointing and crowning ceremony so as to leave no doubt that Pepin had assumed the throne by the grace of God. In return, Pepin confirmed papal rule over “the Patrimony of St. Peter,” the Papal States in the region of Rome that popes since Gregory the Great had claimed as their secular kingdom.

ITQ

Question

After the collapse of the Roman Empire in 476 AD, three empires emerged.

Feedback

The Byzantine Empire, Carolingian Empire, and Islam Empire.



The Carolingian Empire created a definition of Christendom in juxtaposition with the Byzantine Empire, that of a distributed versus centralized culture respectively.

8.2 Political Units of Byzantium

There were three major aspects of Byzantine environment, namely, an intense Christian culture, commercial prosperity, and imperial authority. These religious, economic, and political factors

conditioned and circumscribed the life of Byzantium. The fundamental principles were that Christ was the ruler of the universe, that He offers salvation through the sacraments of His Church, that the emperor was His representative and image on earth, and that unquestioning obedience to state and Church was demanded by God. Theology and governmental structure were therefore fixed parts of the Byzantine world. Although there were theological disputes and palace revolutions, the masses generally accepted the authoritarian tradition that had assumed its definitive form in the fourth century and directed their creative capacities in other directions.

The Germanic Europe was an almost completely rural world impoverished, underdeveloped, violent, and disordered. Its so-called towns were mere administrative and ecclesiastical centres. Germanic Europe was dominated by warriors. The heroic ideal in this society was the chieftain riding to new conquests at the head of his cavalry or armoured knights. Constant fighting and brawling typified the early medieval environment. There were no cities to provide an alternative way of life. The only security for the individual lay in joining and supporting a great lord who could triumph over his rivals. The king was no austere demigod but simply the fiercest warrior and most lavish provider of booty. Even the monastic churches and monastic chapels reflected the circumstances and assumptions of warrior society.

8.3 System Structure of Byzantium

8.3.1 Centralized Culture of Byzantium

This is the empire of one God, one Empire, One Religion. Constantinople was the sole capitol of the Empire. The imperial goals in the East were to centralized governments and impose legal and doctrinal conformity. Religion as well as law served imperia centralization.

The centre of the Byzantine world was the emperor and his court. Drawing upon Hellenistic and Persian source, Byzantine emperors elaborated the concept of theocratic (sacred) kingship, a concept which was highly influential in medieval Europe. The emperor was appointed by God to protect the people, to punish them if necessary, and to establish peace and order on earth. The Byzantine emperor was the head of the universal Christian Roman Empire. All secular power rested with him, and his legal authority was not diminished throughout the long history of Byzantium.

The Byzantine Empire had a complex of aristocracy and bureaucracy, inherited from the Roman Empire. At the apex of the pyramid stood the Emperor, sole ruler and divinely ordained. But

beneath him a multitude of officials and courts functionaries operated the administrative machinery of the Byzantine state. Below the emperor, the Byzantine aristocracy was divided into three groups: bureaucrat, clergy and military officers.



Tip

Centralized governments imposed legal, and doctrinal conformity emerged from the empire of one God, one Religion.

8.3.2 Distributed Culture in Carolingian Empire

The institutions and ideals of the Carolingian monarchy became an image of Christian society. In 800 AD, the Carolingians held the kinship in France and worked closely with the Church, while other aristocratic families dominated many of the local regions and acted in a satellite capacity to the Carolingian ruler. The *missi dominici* investigated the activities of these local leaders, who, as royal vassals, were bound to the king by feudal ties. Monks served in the royal chancery (writing office) and the king's household officials manage his estates.

8.4 Diplomacy of Byzantium

Eastern Roman Empire continued for nearly 1,000 years as the Byzantine Empire. Its courts were in Constantinople. It had a department of foreign affairs and bureau to deal with foreign affairs. It produced first professional diplomats. They were enjoined to be polite, to entertain lavishly as fund permitted and to sale Byzantine wares to lower their costs and encourage trade. From the 12th century, their role was to gather information about the condition of their host states. Intelligence from Byzantine diplomats enabled the emperor to play foreign nations off against each other.

Study Session Summary



Summary

In this Study Session, we discussed the developments of Byzantine and Carolingian empires.

Assessment



Assessment

SAQ 8.1 (tests learning outcome 8.1)

What empires constituted the Christendom?

SAQ 8.2 (test learning outcome 8.2)

Describe the main characteristics of the political units of Byzantine and Carolingian Empires

SAQ 8.3 (test learning outcome 8.3)

What nature of system structure existed in Christendom?

SAQ 8.4 (test learning outcome 8.4)

Summarize the diplomacy of Christendom

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Study Session 9

Historical Precursor to the International State System 2: The Political Empire 6: Holy Roman Empire

Introduction

In the previous Study Session, you studied Christendom centred in Byzantium and Frankish kingdoms of the Carolingian Empire. In this study session, you will learn about Holy Roman Empire, which emerged out of the Carolingian empire in 800 AD as a parallel of the Byzantine Empire in the East.

Learning Outcomes



Outcomes

When you have studied this session, you should be able to:

- 9.1 identify the boundaries of the Holy Roman Empire
- 9.2 explain its historical antecedents
- 9.3 identify the main characteristics of its political units
- 9.4 analyze the structure of its political system
- 9.5 outline its forms of interaction among the components units

9.1 Scope of Holy Roman Empire

The Holy Roman Empire territories included the kingdom of Germany or Germanic lands and some territories in northern Italy. Expansion took place late through marriage and diplomacy to include Styria, Bugundian territories of Holland, Belgium and Luxemburg (the low countries of the 17 provinces of Netherland), Spain and Americas through Spain.



At the centre of Europe was the Holy Roman Empire. The territories included the kingdom of Germany or Germanic lands and some territories in northern Italy. Expansion took place late through marriage and diplomacy to include Styria, Bugundian territories of Holland, Belgium and Luxemburg (the low countries of the 17 provinces of Netherland), Spain and Americas through Spain. It claimed to be a successor of the Roman empire of the Caesars. However it did not include Rome despite the name.

9.2 The Emergence of Holy Roman Empire

In 799, for the third time in half a century, a pope is in need of help from the Frankish king. After being physically attacked by his enemies in the streets of Rome, Leo III makes his way through the Alps to visit Charlemagne at Paderborn. Charlemagne travels to Rome in 800 to support the pope. In a ceremony in St Peter's, on Christmas Day, Leo was due to anoint Charlemagne's son as his heir. But unexpectedly (it is maintained), as Charlemagne rose from prayer, the pope placed a crown on his head and acclaimed

him emperor. Charlemagne expressed displeasure but accepted the honour. The displeasure was probably diplomatic, for the legal emperor was undoubtedly the one in Constantinople. Nevertheless this public alliance between the pope and the ruler of a confederation of Germanic tribes now reflected the reality of political power in the west. And it launched the concept of the new Holy Roman Empire which played an important role throughout the Middle Ages.



Tip

On Christmas day 800 AD, Pope Leo II crowned Charlemagne resulting in the creation of another Christian king beside the emperor in the Byzantine state.

9.3 Political Unit of Holy Roman Empire

Each Germanic state, over three hundred in all, was rule by a prince or church dignitary. In the late Middle Ages, the Holy Roman emperorship was held successfully by several members of the Habsburg dynasty, which had its domain in Austria and southern Germany. Hapsburgs fell heir to the Bugundian lands in northern France and the Low Countries. Charles inherited Burgundy itself, as well as the kingdom of Spain, and in 1519 he was elected Holy Roman emperor. To these domains were appended the kingdom of Naples, the duchy of Milan in Italy, and the old family lands in Austria and southern Germany.

The Habsburg ruling House of Austria, a Germanic state was at the centre of international politics. According to Princewill, Her house provided the emperor for the whole Germanic states as from the 14th century. It began to extend her authority far beyond Germanic lands through marriage and diplomacy.

ITQ

Question

The new Holy Roman Empire became reality as a result of public alliance between who and who?

Feedback

The pope and the ruler of a confederation of Germanic tribes.

9. 4 Structure of Holy Roman Empire Political System

It was headed by an emperor which was an elective title and all European monarchs vied with each other for the post. But from the

14th century the post had consistently gone to the Habsburg ruling family of Austria. There were seven German electors who elected the emperor and consequently were very powerful. There were ecclesiastical estates, whose rulers were bishops. There were secular states as well as cities and towns forming leagues—Hanseatic Leagues and Swabian League for defensive, trade and offensive. Each German state, over 300 in all, was ruled by a prince or bishop. There was German Diet (assembly) presided over by emperor.



Tip

Each Germanic state, over three hundred in all, was ruled by a prince or church dignitary. In the late Middle Ages, the Holy Roman emperorship was held successfully by several members of the Habsburg dynasty, which had its domain in Austria and southern Germany.

It was headed by an emperor which was an elective title and all European monarchs vied with each other for the post.

There was no centralized administration. However, despite the formal unity of the kingdom under Charles, each area retained its distinct constitutional and legal structure. The emperor depended on each prince to maintain law and order in his domain and raise an army to help the emperor in case of external aggression, as there was no standing army. The princes were unanimously in their desire to render the rule of the emperor as ineffective as possible. Germany was scattered and divided. There was no national consciousness or unity except when they teamed together to frustrate the administration of the emperor. Communication was poor.



Tip

The Holy Roman Empire was potentially Europe's greatest state. However, by 1600 the Holy Roman Empire was a mere shadow of its former glory. The heart of the Holy Roman Empire had become split into a mass of princes and states who had done what they could to extend their independence and power at the expense of the emperor. The real power within Germany lay with the princes.

Study Session Summary



Summary

In this Study Session, you learnt about the Holy Roman Empire.

Assessment



Assessment

SAQ 9.1 (tests learning outcome 9.1)

What was the spatial scope of the Holy Roman Empire?

SAQ 9.2 (tests learning outcome 9.2)

How did Holy Roman Empire emerge?

SAQ 9.3 (tests learning outcome 9.3)

Describe the political unit of the Holy Roma Empire

SAQ 9.4 (tests learning outcome 9.4)

Summarize the system structure of the Holy Roman Empire.

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Study Session 10

Historical Precursor to the International State System 2: The Political Empire 7: Islam

Introduction

In Study Session 8, we learned that there were three successor states to the Roma Empire, which fell in 476 AD, namely, the Byzantine and Carolingian empires as well as Islamic empire. There, you examined the Byzantine and Carolingian empires. In this study session, you will learn about Islamic state system as one of the precursor of the international state system.

Learning Outcomes



Outcomes

When you have studied this session, you should be able to:

- 10.1 discuss the historical development of Islamic state.
- 10.2 analyse the political units of Islamic state system.
- 10.3 describe the structure of the Islamic state system.
- 10.4 identify the unification elements in Islamic state system.

Terminology

Islam	

10.1 The Historical Developments of Islam as an Empire

After the fall of Rome, Europe was in chaos for several centuries. Islam emerged out of the crisis of the fall of Rome, founded by

Prophet Mohammed. His successors, the caliphs under the leadership of Moslem armies conquered in all direction—Syria and Palestine, Egypt and north Africa, and in 637 Jerusalem fell into their hands. They crossed Bosphorus and laid siege to Constantinople, which later fell to the Turks in 1453. It passed westward into Egypt, and Alexandria fell before them in 641. They conquered across North Africa. Early in the eight century they crossed into Spain. Eastward they overran Persia. In about 11th century, the Turks of Afghanistan entered on the conquest of India.



Reflection

Islam, founded by Prophet Mohammed, emerged out of the crisis of the fall of Rome.

10.2 Main Characteristics of Islamic Political Unit

The Arab conquest was carried out under the leadership of the Umayyad dynasty. The Umayyad set up the capital of their empire at Damascus in Syria. In the new empire the Arabs formed a military aristocracy with special privileges, which included the collection of tribute from unbelievers. Non-Arabs everywhere in the Umayyad Empire, from Persia to Spain, rapidly converted to Islam. The converts were at first second-class members of the community, inferior to the conquering Arab tribes. Within a century and half of Arab expansion, however, the new Muslims had become first-class citizens and a racial mixture had occurred. This allowed the religious communities they conquered to continue under their own laws, in return for tribute. Infidels were denied the privilege of Islamic law. Throughout its history, the Islamic Empire held flourishing communities of Jews, Christians, and Zoroastrians. These tolerated sects formed a third class of citizens, suffering some financial and legal disabilities. The first class was that of the slaves.

The Persians were particularly disaffected by the continued treatment as second-class citizens after their conversion to Islam, but there were other potential sources of rebellion against Umayyad rule. In the eight century the Muslim religious community began to split into two groups, the Sunnites and the Shiites. In 749 the Umayyad dynasty fell victim to conflicts among the conquerors. The new Abbasid dynasty was truly international, no longer resting exclusively on the might of the Arab tribes nor subject to vicissitude of intertribal conflicts. The centre of the Empire was moved eastward from Damascus to Baghdad, and the policies of the Abbasid rulers reflect their adoption of Persian traditions.

ITQ**Question**

Why did the community of Islam aspire a single human society?

Feedback

To avoid unnecessary governance from secular institutions.

10.3 System Structure of Islam

At the head of the Arab community was the Caliph, the ruler of the Empire. The caliph was the titular head of the Islamic world, in religion as well as in secular affairs, but he was never a religious leader in the sense that the emperor at Constantinople was the head of the church. Islam did not develop a highly organized hierarchical ecclesiastical structure, and therefore the religious authority of the caliph remained for the most part informal. In reality the caliph was the military and administrative head of the Empire, responsible for organizing and leading the army, collecting taxes, and appointing administrative officials to govern the provinces. He maintained a postal service throughout the empire which served as an imperial intelligence service.

The tribes of the northern Arabs were essentially warrior bands without formal laws or institutions. Decisions were made in council by the respected men of the tribe, and the chief, or sheik, of the tribe was chosen by common consent. His tenure of office and selection of his successor were dependent on the will of the tribal warriors.



Tip

The political unit of Islam was the Caliphate, which was the political-religious state that encompassed the Muslim community and the land in which they reside.

The caliph was the head of state. The legislative powers of the caliph were always restricted by the scholarly class, the Ulama (the guardian of the law).

10.4 Islamic Diplomacy

The community of Islam aspired to a single human society in which secular institutions such as the state would have no significant role. There could be political interaction but no requirement for diplomatic missions between one ruler and another. Theoretically, since non-Muslim states eventually would accept the message of Islam, the need for diplomatic exchanges between them and Islamic communities also would be purely temporally.

Study Session Summary



Summary

In this Study Session, we discussed the historical development of Islamic state. We also examined the following:

- the political units of Islamic state system.
- the structure of the Islamic state system.
- the unification elements in Islamic state system.

Assessment



Assessment

SAQ 10.1 (tests learning outcome 10.1)

Describe the emergence of Islamic system

SAQ 10.2 (tests learning outcome 10.2)

What was the political unit of Islam?

SAQ 10.3 (tests learning outcome 10.3)

State the system structure of Islam

SAQ 10.4 (tests learning outcome 10.4)

Summarize the Islamic diplomacy

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Study Session 11

Immediate Predecessors of Modern International State System 1: Feudalism

Introduction

In this study session, you will learn about feudalism.

Learning Outcomes



Outcomes

When you have studied this session, you should be able to:

- 11.1 define feudalism
- 11.2 explain the historical development of feudalism
- 11.3 discuss the political units of feudalism
- 11.4 analyze the system structure of feudalism
- 11.5 identify the axes of conflict in feudalism

Terminology

Feudalism	The social system, developed in Europe, wherein vassals are protected by their lords who they had to serve in war.
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11.1 Meaning of Feudalism

Feudalism is the precursor of modern political systems. The feudal system was established in the 9th century and was used mostly in Western and Central Europe. It was a hierarchical arrangement of society based on a system of vassalage, by which a free man voluntarily commended himself to a lord in homage. It is a grouping of legal and military customs, prevalent in Europe during the Middle Ages, which flourished between the 9th and 15th centuries, or any similar grouping of legal and military customs. Simply defined, it was a system for structuring society around relationships derived from the holding of land in exchange for

service or labour.

Feudalism is a construct of post-medieval scholars, referring to a system of political organization, in which an elite individual called a "lord" has control over several common people, or "vassals" who till the land, serve as warriors, and conduct other work for the lord.

Feudalism was characterized by a system of loyalties and protection with a ruling military class in Medieval Europe. It offered little or no movement for the lower class and wealth was based on power.

11.2 Historical Development of Feudalism

The feudal system had its roots in the economic social structure of the later Roman Empire. Under the Roman practice of *patrocinium*, a lord took a man under his protection in return for the surrender of his client's prerogatives as a free man. In the German world the chieftain acquired followers on the principle of *Gefolge*, which involved the loyalty and service of a man to his lord in return for protection. Both these practices were forerunners of medieval feudalism.

About 500 CE, much of Western Europe was left without a strong centralized government due to the breakdown of the Roman Empire. With little organized resistance, Germanic invaders raided western European cities and monasteries. During the invasions of the Roman Empire, the primordial bonds of tribal kinship were weakened to allow men to follow a great chieftain outside their kin, who could provide protection and plunder. Because kings were often too weak to repel the invaders, many city dwellers moved into the countryside in hopes of greater safety. As a result of the invasions, and a weak central government, a new social and political system known as feudalism developed. Strong local lords formed a strict code of behavior and allegiances, which became the foundation of feudal life.

11.3 Characteristic of Political Unit in a Feudal System

The early medieval economy was based almost exclusively on agrarian pursuit; the primary source of wealth was land. The aristocracy was composed of holders of large estates, supported by the servile labour at their disposal. Most medieval estates, or manors, were composed of a number of small holdings worked by serfs and a varying amount of land (called the lord's *demesne*) whose product went to the landlord. The land was likewise worked by serfs who owed the landlord a stipulated amount of service. The

serf legally agreed to some of these obligations, but many more were imposed upon him by the superior power of the manorial lord. In return, he often received more land than he had previously held, and he was protected by his lord from outside threats.

11.4 System Structure of Feudalism

Dependent status existed in the early medieval world in two distinct forms: serfdom and vassalage. Serfdom was the condition of most of the peasants who worked on the land; vassalage was primarily the relationship between a warrior, or knight, and his lord. The distinction can be made in terms of farming class and a military class.

The structure of feudal system is neither hierarchy nor anarchy. There were multiple allegiances and obligations as well as overlapping religious and secular authorities.

The basic structure of government in a feudal system involves the exchange of land for military service. A hierarchical ranking system was developed with men ranked by military power. In this way, there were secular and religious authorities.



Tip

The feudal system built the political and diplomatic power blocks with every player's ties to his liege lord and his vassals. The Roman Catholic Church conducted an active diplomacy, especially at Constantinople and in its 13th-century struggle against the Holy Roman emperors.

11.4.1 Secular Structure

Kings: At the centre of the feudal system was the king. The nobility was essentially a military class. The king granted ownership of land to lords who in return provided warriors. These knights or vassals swore allegiance to their lord who provided protection and justice. For example, the king controlled huge tracts of land. He would give his support and a large piece of land, called a fief, to a powerful lord in return for loyalty and military support. This meant the lord was now a vassal of the king.

Lords: 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 the land was known as a fief. 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 form the basis of the feudal relationship. The Lord would then divide up that land among his supporters, usually

less powerful lords, obtaining vassals of his own. The Lesser Lords would do the same, dividing up the increasingly smaller land holdings to their knights. Finally, the knights would be left in direct control of the land and the peasants or townsfolk who lived there.

Serfs: Before a lord could grant land (a fief) to someone, he had to make that person a vassal. This was done at a formal and symbolic ceremony called a commendation ceremony, which was composed of the two-part act of homage and oath of fealty. During homage, the lord and vassal entered into a contract in which the vassal promised to fight for the lord at his command, whilst the lord agreed to protect the vassal from external forces. Once the commendation ceremony was complete, the lord and vassal were in a feudal relationship with agreed obligations to one another. The vassal's principal obligation to the lord was to "aid", or military service. The peasants were expected to grow food, tend the land, and provide military support to the feudal lords. Under European feudalism, there was very little opportunity for social advancement.

It could also involve the vassal providing "counsel", so that if the lord faced a major decision he would summon all his vassals and hold a council. At the level of the manor this might be a fairly mundane matter of agricultural policy, but also included sentencing by the lord for criminal offences, including capital punishment in some cases. Concerning the king's feudal court, such deliberation could include the question of declaring war.

11.4.2 Religious Structure



Pope: The pope was the representative of God on earth. He is the religious ruler of the church.

Religious nobility: This class included the cardinals, Archbishops. They are appointed by popes and as a body, the cardinals advise the pope and, on his death, elect a new pope. An archbishop is a bishop of a main or metropolitan diocese, also called an archdiocese. A cardinal can concurrently hold the title.

Bishop: A bishop, like a priest, is ordained to this station. He is a teacher of church doctrine, a priest of sacred worship, and a minister of church government.

Priest: An ordained minister who can administer most of the sacraments, including the Eucharist, baptism, and marriage. He can be with a particular religious order or committed to serving a congregation.

Deacon: A transitional deacon is a seminarian studying for the priesthood. A permanent deacon can be married and assists a priest by performing some of the sacraments.

Pope Leo X with his cousins Giulio de' Medici (right, the future Pope Clement VII) and Luigi de' Rossi (left), whom he appointed as cardinal-nephews.

11.5 Diplomacy in Feudal System

The feudal system built the political and diplomatic power blocks with every player's ties to his liege lord and his vassals, and they are put to the test in times of monarchy versus monarchy warfare. It would involve every player in the formation of a monarchy as opposed to guild/clan formation where it's a few guild leaders and recruiters doing everything.

Similarly, the Roman Catholic Church conducted an active diplomacy, especially at Constantinople and in its 13th-century struggle against the Holy Roman emperors. Popes served as arbiters, and papal legates served as peacemakers. The prestige of the church was such that at every court papal emissaries took precedence over secular envoys.

Axes of Conflict

Vertical: Kings vs Lords

Horizontal: Religious vs secular authorities

Study Session Summary



Summary

In this Study Session, you learnt that:

1. Feudalism was characterized by a system of loyalties and protection with a ruling military class in Medieval Europe.
2. The feudal system had its roots in the economic social structure of the later Roman Empire.
3. The nobles would allow poor people to live and work in their lands to make them produce food in order to sell it, and in change for their work, these landlords would guarantee these people protection.
4. The structure of feudal system is neither hierarchy nor anarchy. There were multiple allegiances and obligations as well as overlapping religious and secular authorities.

Assessment



Assessment

SAQ 11.1 (tests learning outcome 11.1)

Define feudalism

SAQ 11.2 (test learning outcome 11.2)

Highlight the historical background of feudalism

SAQ 11.3 (tests learning outcome 11.3)

What is the characteristic of the political units in feudalism?

SAQ 11.4 (tests learning outcome 11.4)

Describe the structure if feudal system

SAQ 11.5 (tests learning outcome 11.5)

What nature of diplomacy existed in feudal system?

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Study Session 12

Immediate Predecessors of Modern International State System 2: Rise of Nation States in Europe

Introduction

In this study session, you will learn about the rise of states system in Europe. Over the centuries, the kings and lesser rulers successfully extended their rule over the disparate rural and frontier areas of Europe. They slowly gained the authority to tax and usually through bribery, war and extortion they effectively disarmed their vassals, undermined the ancient rights and independence of free cities and created effective bureaucracies throughout their realms. Already, in the early fourteenth century some of these secular rulers began to challenge the authority of the Holy Roman Empire under the doctrine of *in regno suo* (the king is emperor in his own realm). These early claims of independent authority, led to a cascade of both theological and political independence.

Learning Outcomes



Outcomes

When you have studied this session, you should be able to:

- 12.1 explain the political conditions that gave rise to the emergence of nation states.
- 12.2 analyse the nation states that emerged.
- 12.3 highlight the characteristics of a nation state.
- 12.4 discuss the system structure of a nation state.
- 12.5 summarize the diplomacy of nation state.

Terminology

Nation	A large body of people united by common descent, history, culture, or language, inhabiting a particular state or territory
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State	A territory occupied by a group of people comprising the government.
Nation-state	A political entity (a state) associated with a cultural entity (a nation).

12.1 The Emergence of Nation States

Let's start by examining the political conditions in Europe that gave rise to the emergence of nation states. In Europe, there were scattered territories with capitals ruled by monarchs. The political authority of the monarch did not reach the provinces. Boundaries were shifted in accordance with the outcomes of wars, because the idea of territorial integrity did not exist. States could go into extinction as they were taken over and swallowed up by bigger ones. Administration was decentralized and disorganized.

12.2 European Nation States

12.2.1 Germany



Throughout the third quarter of the fifteenth century, there was no German emperor, as the national politics of Germany was submerged in a morass of internal wars and disputes. By the 14th century, the centre of Germany had moved noticeably eastward, and the magnates at the top of the feudal hierarchy were more powerful than ever. In dealing with the French and the papacy, a strong German emperor could be useful, and the continued disorder within Germany also called for the establishment of some central authority. In the eyes of the German magnates, then, the emperor should be able to assert the rights of Germany in international affairs while at home he served the interests of the princes who elected him. A number of factors combined to prevent the emperor from consolidating their gains. The internal resistance was aided by foreign powers opposed to the establishment of a strong German monarchy. Germany at the end of the 15th century remained a geographical rather than a political designation.

12.2.2 Spain

The Iberian peninsula was divided into several kingdoms: Portugal, Castile, Aragon, Valencia, Catalonia, Navarre and Granada in the south. Jews and the Moors lived and traded in Granada. During the early Middle Ages the Muslim conquest introduced the Arabic language and Arabic institutions to the Roman-Visigothic society that had prevailed in the Iberian Peninsula. The first rebirth of classical learning in western Europe was on the Iberian peninsula.

To the north of Muslim Spain, there existed some Spanish Christian kingdoms. In the twelfth century, the Christian princes began the movement of expansion into Muslim territory, what has been known in history as the *Reconquista*. For two centuries the Spanish Christian kings, the nobility, and the Church cooperated in a battle against the Muslims for control of Spain. The princes provided the unity and direction of the movement, while the Church preached a crusade against the Muslims. By the fourteenth century, most of Spain had been conquered for Christendom, except the small kingdom of Granada on the southern coast of Spain.



Tip

In Europe, boundaries were shifted in accordance with the outcomes of wars, because the idea of territorial integrity did not exist.

Between 15th and 16th centuries, there emerged nation-states in various territories in Europe.

The nobles, unrestrained by a highly developed feudal system, were a constant threat to the development of a centralized political system. The great magnates as well as the lesser nobility shared legal and extra-legal privileges which made the difficult to control. The cities and the clergy also formed separate social and political elements, jealous of their autonomy and aggressive in the pursuit of privileges and immunities.

Parliamentary institutions appeared in Spain earlier than in the rest of Europe, but they did not effectively limit the power of the sovereign. The composition of the *Cortes* (estates) depended upon the king, who could call as many or as few of the nobles, clergy, and burgesses as he wished. Through the marriage of Ferdinand, the heir to the throne of Aragon and Isabella the heiress to the throne of Castile, the two kingdoms were joined together in 1479. This resulted in the birth of Spain. Only the tiny kingdom of Navarre in the north, Portugal in the west, and Muslim Granada in the south remained outside the jurisdiction of Aragon and Castile when the two joined into one kingdom.

The reign of these two monarchs had a decisive influence on the institutions of sixteenth-century Spain. Through their efforts the territorial aggrandizement of Spain was accompanied by the development of national political institutions and by economic expansion which placed Spain in the front rank of European states. The conquest of Granada, which was completed in 1492, removed the Muslims from Spain as an independent political force. It also served to develop an effective national army under the control of the sovereign.

12.2.3 England

The necessity and desirability of national government and of monarchy were firmly entrenched in the political consciousness of thirteenth-century England. Effective power of the English Crown was still dependent upon the personality and ability of the monarch. With the accession of Edward I (1272-1307), England found itself again under the leadership of a popular and ambitious monarch. He produced legislation dealing with every aspect of government. During his reign, the central courts of Common Pleas, King's Bench, and Exchequer became clearly distinct as the functioning of the common law was made more efficient. In foreign as well as domestic affairs, Edward I tried to expand the domain of English government. Wales proved a much easier prey than Scotland, where English aggression only aroused Scottish nationalism. Military ventures demanded increased taxation. Edward found the calling of a general Parliament the most effective way to publicize his need for money and gain the commitment of the nation to an increase in royal revenue. Parliament served the royal purposes, but it also allowed the subjects to make demands upon the king.

12.2.4 France

The reign of Philip IV the Fair of France (1285-1314) marked a high point in the development of national monarchy. Philip the Fair built upon the territorial and institutional base left by his predecessors to extend the royal domain and to increase the powers of the monarch in the nation at large. His ministers, many of them lawyers, fought with all the legal and illegal tools available to the monarch against those who remained outside his authority. Governmental institutions advanced in efficacy and sophistication under Philip the Fair and his ministers.

England, France and the Hundred Years' War

The most highly developed national states in the 14th and 15th centuries were England and France, where foundation of monarchical government had been laid in the thirteenth century. The two countries were similar in the form of government, and until the middle of the fifteenth century much of what became western France was held by the English king. The great war between the two countries encouraged nationalism and drastically reduced English territorial holdings in France. By the end of the fifteenth century, English language replaced French in the government and among the nobility of England. At the same time, the menace of English invasion had heightened French national consciousness, and the consolidation of royal power made the French nation more of territorial and governmental reality.

The aggressive nature of the French monarchy and the Continental ambitions of the English king brought on the long conflict known as the Hundred Years' War. Much of the basis of the conflict rested in the feudal relationship which brought the two sovereigns face to face in the duchy of Aquitaine.

12.2.5 Italy

Italy was an exception to the pattern of political and social development that existed in medieval Europe. The most sustaining attempt to bring some overriding unity to the entire Italian peninsula was undertaken by the Hohenstaufen house, which had the tragic good fortune in the last decade of the twelfth century to inherit both the kingdom of Sicily in southern Italy and Holy Roman Emperorship.

12.3 The Characteristics of the Modern Nation-state in Europe

The distinguishing factor of the nation-state from other forms of political organization was the concentration of power in the hands of the monarchs that is the emergency of royal power or sovereign as a centre of political allegiance. The nation-states became the recognized political units.

12.4. The Consequences of the Rise of Nation-states

By the end of the fifteenth century, European political life was dominated by the national state, limited in its territory but increasingly powerful within its domain. As feudal forms of authority became obsolete, the central authority of the Crown became responsible for the well-being of the kingdom. As the functions of the state expanded, public institutions grew to fill the new needs of society. The early modern period gave rise to that clear distinction between public and private authority which is a fundamental characteristics of the modern state. The state asserted authority in economics and other areas which the medieval state had been unequipped to touch. Above all, it finally—and not without difficulty—subordinated all elements in society to a centralized authority through the assertion of a monopoly on the right to physical coercion.

ITQ

Question

What are the characteristics of the modern state?

Feedback

Public institutions could meet the new needs of society, asserted authority in economics and other areas, and subordinated all elements in society to a centralized authority.

12.5 Diplomacy of the Nation States

The establishment of the monarch as the head of the national state did, however, transform international politics. Just as the state was the fundamental economic unit of the society, so was it the fundamental political division. The attempt of Charles V to revive the medieval ideal of the universal emperor went aground upon the rock of royal absolutism. The international scope of his authority could no longer penetrate the national and local structures within his wide domains. Thenceforth, the smaller and more homogenous nation-state predominated in international affairs. The power of the Holy Roman emperor was gone, and France—the state which most successfully developed royal absolutism—moved to the forefront of European politics.

Study Session Summary



Summary

In this Study Session, you explored the rise and structures of states system in Europe.

Assessment



Assessment

SAQ 12.1 (tests learning outcome 12.1)

What was the situation in Europe before the emergence of nation-states?

SAQ 12.2 (tests learning outcome 12.2)

Give example of the nation states that emerged in Europe

SAQ 12.3 (tests learning outcome 12.3)

What was the characteristic of the modern nation-state?

SAQ 12.4 (tests learning outcome 12.4)

What was the consequence of the rise of the nation-state in Europe?

SAQ 12.5 (tests learning outcome 12.5)

What was the new structure of diplomacy in Europe after the rise of the nation-states?

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Study Session 13

Immediate Predecessors of Modern International State System 3: Wars of Religion in Europe (30 Years War)

Introduction

In this study session, you will learn about the thirty years war, known as the wars of religion. Nothing has so shaken Europe to foundation like the Reformation. Lutheranism was sweeping Europe, ex-students of the University of Wittenberg took the Reformation to their countries, Calvinism continued to spread even to a place where reconciliation was impossible, Calvinism was most uncompromising, most dangerous heresy and difficult to combat: it was a democracy, while Catholicism, like Lutheranism, was autocratic. Due to the nature of Calvinism, war was inevitable.

Learning Outcomes



Outcomes

When you have studied this session, you should be able to:

- 13.1 explain the meaning of war
- 13.2 outline the causes of the wars of religion
- 13.3 highlight the phases of the war
- 13.4 discuss the effects of the war

Terminology

Reformation	Religious revolution, the religious movement in the 16th century that had for its object the reform of the Roman Catholic Church, and that led to the establishment of the Protestant churches.
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13.1 Overview of the Thirty Years War

It was a series of wars (rather than one single continues conflict) that involved significant European countries. Initially it was fought

largely as a religious conflict between Protestants and Catholics in the Holy Roman Empire. Later, disputes over the international politics and balance of power within the Empire played a significant part. Generally, the war became more a continuation of the Bourbon-Habsburg rivalry for European political pre-eminence.

13.1.1 Occasions for the Thirty Years War

The issues of the Empire

The Habsburg Holy Roman emperor sought to decrease the autonomy of the princes and increase the centralization of government in Germany. With their holdings in Austria, Germany, Italy, Spain, and Low Countries, the Habsburgs also represented a dynamic coalition capable of playing a predominant role in European politics. The Emergence of the balance-of-power principle in European politics and the rise of the Bourbon dynasty brought the rest of Europe into the battle against Habsburg predominance.

Religious Issues which had divided Germany

The denominational controversy brought about by the Protestant Reformation was at the root of the religious dimension of the conflict. The settlement of 1555 had set forth the principle that the religion of the prince determined the religion of his territories, thus establishing the division of the empire into Lutheran and Catholic camps. It was the appearance of Calvinism in Germany and the simultaneous development of counter-reformation which made that settlement untenable in the seventeenth century. Unlike Lutheranism, Calvinism was a highly expansive religious force. Religious and political relations within the empire were at a point of high tension.



A thirty year long war initially started as a religious conflict grew into disputes over the international politics and balance of power.

Revocation of the Edicts of Nantes

The tension broke into open conflict in Bohemia when its Habsburg king, Ferdinand (who was about to become Holy Roman emperor) allowed his Catholic advisers to enact a revocation of the privileges of the Protestants. Bohemia had a very large Protestant population, and the existing religious antagonism between the population and the king was heightened by resentment at such an extension of royal authority. The angry Bohemians declared the king deposed and threw three of his advisers out of a window high in the royal castle in Prague. The news of his deposition got to him just after his election as Holy Roman Emperor. The rebellion became a civil war

in Germany when the elector Fredrick of the Palatine accepted the crown of Bohemia from the Diet of the rebellious nation.

13.2 Phases of the Thirty Years War

13.2.1 The First Phase (1618-1625)

This was between the emperor and his allies against a number of Protestant princes. In the east an imperial victory at the Battle of Winter Hill in 1620 settled the fate of Bohemia; in the west the Palatinate forces were ravaged by internal dissension as well as the imperial armies. The war was protracted only by foreign invasion on behalf of the Protestants.

13.2.1 The Second Phase (1625-1629)

Here the Protestant king of Denmark, Christian IV intervened on the side of the German Protestants, with a view to gaining territorial concessions in the northwest part of Germany. With the intervention of Denmark, the religious division of the forces was subordinated to territorial and political considerations. In 1629, the imperial party again stood victorious over the opposition.

13.2.2 The Third Phase (1630-1635)

It was external rather than internal conditions which brought a renewal of the war. Both Sweden and France had been watching the course of events in Germany for some time, but Sweden, under the brilliant leadership of Gustavus Adolphus, was engaged in a war with Poland which took precedence over intervention in Germany. France, under Richelieu, used money where it was not yet ready to use troops. With a French subsidy, the Swedes were able to wind up affairs in Poland and raise an army for a German war, leading to the third phase of the war. And it ended in another defeat for the anti-imperial forces. The Swedish army was routed by their more numerous imperial adversaries in 1634, and the Treaty of Prague of 1635 ended the third phase of the conflict.

ITQ

Question

Who amongst these intervened the second phase of war?

Feedback

- a) Gustavus Adolphus
- b) the Protestant king of Denmark
- c) Richelieu of Germany

It was the Protestant king of Denmark that intervened, but with a view to gain territorial concessions in the northwest part of

Germany.

13.3 Levels of Involvement of European Powers

- a. **Ottoman support:** In the East, the Protestant Hungarian Prince of Transylvania, Bethlen Gabor led a spirited campaign into Hungary with the support of Ottoman Sultan, Osman II. Fearful Ferdinand requested a protectorate by Osman so that Ottoman Empire became the one and only ally of great-power states which the rebellious Bohemian states could muster after shaking off Habsburg. They exchanged ambassadors in 1620 and Ottoman provided 60,000 cavalry to Fredrick plans to invade Poland. This triggered off Polish-Ottoman war. Ottoman defeated Poland who were supporting Hapsburg at the battle of Cecora. Ottomans were not able to intervene efficiently before Bohemians were defeated at the battle of White Mountain in November 1620.
- b. **1621-1625 Spanish support:** The Spanish sent an army from Brussels to support the emperor.
- c. **Danish Intervention:** The Danes helped Lutheran rulers of the neighbouring Lower Saxony by leading an army against the Imperial force. Denmark had feared that its Protestant sovereignty was threatened by the recent Catholic succession. Denmark wanted territory in Saxony and to restore the Palatinate. Denmark attacked first, against Tilly who led the imperial forces at the time and latter it was led by Wallenstein. Denmark latter sued for peace in the treaty of Lubeck in June 1629 and left the war.
- d. **Swedish Intervention:** Sweden almost dreamt of controlling the Baltic Sea and areas along it and turn it into a Swedish Lake. Lutheran Swedes, financially and politically encouraged by Catholic France, joined the war. The army was personally led by King Gustavus Adolphus. Victories accompanied the Swedes everywhere against Catholic forces in Germany. In 1632, falling from horse, in a fog and wounded Adolphus was killed. His army withdrew. Wallenstein himself the leader of the imperial forces was killed in 1634, ending another phase.
- e. **French Intervention (1635-1648):** France a Catholic and led by a Cardinal of the Catholic Church joined the war on behalf of the Protestants against Habsburg. Helped protestant Holland which joined the war against Catholic Spain to obtain its independence. France tried to shake off the yoke of Habsburg encirclement. French General Louis de Baubon defeated the Spanish at the Battle of Rocroi in 1643 which led to negotiations.

13.4. Effects of the War

1. It destroyed a good portion of Central Europe and led to population decline.
2. The Rise of France

Study Session Summary



Summary

In this Study Session, you learnt that:

1. The wars of religion was a series of wars (rather than one single continues conflict) that involved significant European countries.
2. Religious and political relations within the empire were at a point of high tension.
3. There were three major phases in the war
4. Spain, Sweden, Denmark, France, and the Ottoman Turks all intervened in the war.

Assessment



Assessment

SAQ 13.1 (tests learning outcome 13.1)

What is the nature of the Thirty Years' War?

SAQ 13.2 (tests learning outcome 13.2)

What were the occasions for the war?

SAQ 13.3 (tests learning outcome 13.3)

How many phases were there in the war?

SAQ 13.4 (tests learning outcome 13.4)

What was the level of the involvement of European powers in the war?

SAQ 13.4 (tests learning outcome 13.4)

What were the impacts of the Thirty Years' war?

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Study Session 14

Immediate Predecessors of Modern International State System 4: The Peace of Westphalia

Introduction

In Study Session 13, we discussed the Thirty Years' War in Europe, waged over religious and constitutional issues in the Holy Roman Empire. That was when religion occupied an important political position and was the main sub-system of the then international society. In this study session, you will learn about the Peace of Westphalia which ended the wars of religion in Europe, and created the basis for the international state system.

Learning Outcomes



Outcomes

When you have studied this session, you should be able to:

- 14.1 outline the background to the Peace of Westphalia.
- 14.2 explain the Peace of Westphalia.
- 14.3 state the provisions of the Peace Treaty.
- 14.4 point out the effects of the Peace Treaty.

Terminology

Treaty	A formal agreement between two or more states
Treaty of Westphalia	The peace treaty that ended the Thirty Years' War in 1648

14.1 Background to the Peace of Westphalia

The main obstacles to a general peace in Germany after 1635 were the ambitions of France and Sweden and changing military fortunes. Sweden wanted territorial and financial compensation while France, under the cardinals (Richelieu to 1642, Mazarin thereafter), envisaged something altogether more ambitious that

involved a considerable reduction in both Spanish and Austrian Habsburg power. In addition, matters were complicated by the individual ambitions of various German princes and separate negotiations between the Spanish and the Dutch.

Despite these problems, negotiations had been discussed since 1641. Both sides stalled for time, insisting on endless discussion of legal trivialities in the hope that the fortunes of the war would improve their bargaining positions

14.2 The Peace of Westphalia

The Peace of Westphalia has been described as a model of how to deal successfully with deep religious disagreements on a constitutional plane. It contained constitutional norms for the Holy Roman Empire as well as international legal norms for Europe.

On 24 October 1648, two treaties were signed in Westphalia that ended the Thirty Years' War: one between the Holy Roman Empire and Sweden at Osnabruck, the other between the Empire and France at Munster. The treaties had been negotiated since 1644, when the various delegations of the Empire, Sweden, France, Spain, and the Netherlands first convened, with the Spaniards, the Dutch and the French assigned to Munster and Sweden to Osnabruck.

The Empire was represented at both places by delegations of the Emperor as well as the estates (which effectively meant that the Westphalia Congress) was not purely an international one, but had an imperial constitutional element built in. Also present at the negotiations were the three Reichstag Councils that constituted the empire's parliament (the Diet), comprising: six of the seven electors, the nearly two hundred other princes, lords and prelates, and the more than fifty free imperial cities.

ITQ

Question

What remarkable event happened on 24 October, 1648?

Feedback

Treaties that ended the Thirty Years' War between the Holy Roman Empire and Sweden, also the Empire and France.

14.3 The Major Provisions of the Peace Treaties

The peace negotiations led to the two treaties, known as the Peace of Westphalia, and they had major consequences on the subsequent

character of relations between states. The outcomes of the treaties include the following:

1. The treaties declared papal authority no longer extended into the realms of the sovereigns on secular issues.
2. The treaties held that the members of the Holy Roman Empire were free to make alliances with other states (so long as they were not directed against the Emperor). This is a grant of freedom of states to conduct their own foreign relations.
3. The Emperor was prohibited from ‘molesting’ (interfering in the internal affairs of) the Empire’s members.
4. The treaties guaranteed some rights for religious minorities and, following these principles, implied that sovereigns could no longer become involved in the religious issues of other states.
5. The treaties helped to entrench several major principles that came to serve as the legal foundation for sovereignty and the relations between sovereigns.
6. They also provided the concept of territorial integrity and Balance of Power.



Reflection

Since 1648, religious disagreements settlement need to only consult how peace was ensued at Westphalia.

14.4 Consequences of the Treaties

- a. Westphalia marked the transition from a system of overlapping feudal loyalties towards a system, incorporating the principle of sovereignty.
- b. It consolidated and popularized the authority of the nation-states independent of the Holy Roman Empire, as it enshrined the state as the sole form of authority in Europe that neither the Holy Roman Empire nor the Pope could challenge.
- c. It gave rise to the emergence of the international state system

ITQ

Question

Can we say that the autonomy to govern nation-states as stipulated in the 1648 treaties was helpful in a war system, such as the Roman Empire?

Feedback

Yes, it was. Because it provided authority for the nation-states to be independent of the Holy Roman Empire

Study Session Summary



Summary

In this Study Session, you learnt that:

1. The Peace of Westphalia has been described as a model of how to deal successfully with deep religious disagreements on a constitutional plane. The treaties had been negotiated since 1644 up till October 24, 1648 when two treaties were signed in Westphalia that ended the Thirty Years' War: one between the Holy Roman Empire and Sweden at Osnabruck, the other between the Empire and France at Munster.
2. The treaties declared papal authority no longer extended into the realms of the sovereigns on secular issues and that the members of the Holy Roman Empire were free to make alliances with other states.
3. It gave rise to the emergence of the international state system.

Assessment



SAQ 14.1 (tests learning outcome 14.1)

What was the precursor to the Peace of Westphalia?

SAQ 14.2 (tests learning outcome 14.2)

Assessment

Describe Peace of Westphalia

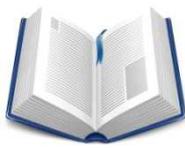
SAQ 14.3 (tests learning outcome 14.3)

Give example the two major provisions the treaties

SAQ 14.4 (tests learning outcome 14.4)

What were the consequences of the treaties?

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Study Session 15

Emergence of the International State System

Introduction

The previous study sessions constitute the evolutionary process that culminated in the emergence of the international state system. In this study session, you will learn about the emergence of the international state system.

Learning Outcomes



Outcomes

When you have studied this session, you should be able to:

- 15.1 explain international system.
- 15.2 discuss international state system.
- 15.3 discuss the emergence of modern international state system.
- 15.4 identify the characteristics of modern international state system.
- 15.5 analyze the consequence of the emergence of the international system.

Terminology

System	A set of things working together as parts of a mechanism
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15.1 The International System

A **system** is made up of interacting parts. For a system to exist there must be the existence of units, among which significant interaction takes place. These interactions must be arranged and structured along some ordering principle. Thus, the International system connotes the integration of previously isolated peoples and political communities into regular contact with each other. The International system existed because the projection of European power brought previously isolated peoples and political communities into regular contact with each other.

15.2 The International State System

The units of international system are states (or independent political communities), hence international state system. Put differently, international state system is the unit of the modern international system.

ITQ

Question

Why should we regard the European power as an international system?

Feedback

Because it brought previously isolated peoples and political communities into regular contact with each other.

15.3 The Emergence of Modern International State System

The interaction among political communities before the emergence of the nation-states was between the imperial powers and their subordinate and conquered territories, not among independent political communities.

The merger between Isabella and King Ferdinand that created Spain gave impetus for the emergence of nation-states in Europe. This example was imitated by Italy, France, and England among others and encouraged by such political philosophers as Machiavelli, Bodin, Hobbes and Lock.

The rise of the nation-states was also coincided with and mediated by the wars of religion in Europe, most especially in France and Germany. The desire to create a peaceful atmosphere culminated in the campaign for the shift of loyalty from the Christendom typified by the Holy Roman Empire to the states.

The Peace of Westphalia initiated the modern fashion of diplomacy as it marked the beginning of the modern system of nation states. Subsequent wars were not about issues of religion, but rather revolved around issues of state. This allowed Catholic and Protestant Powers to ally, leading to a number of major realignments.

15.4. The Characteristics of Modern International State System

- a. Territorial integrity: This is a principle that nation-state should not attempt to promote secessionist movements or to promote border changes in other nation-states.
- b. Equality of all states: This is a concept in which every sovereign state possesses the same legal rights any other sovereign state in international law.
- c. Non-intervention of the States: This is the principle that no state or group of states has the right to intervene directly or indirectly, for any reason whatever, in the internal or external affairs of any other state.
- d. Balance of Power: This refers to equilibrium among countries or alliances to prevent any one entity from becoming too strong and thus gaining the ability to enforce its will upon the rest. It is the idea that national security is enhanced when military capabilities are distributed so that no one state is strong enough to dominate all others. It is therefore the distribution of power in which no single nation is able to dominate or interfere with others.

15.5 The Consequence of the Evolution of the International System

The international system gave rise to the modern international society. While a system comprises interacting parts, society is self-conscious and in part self-regulating. This distinction between system and society is important. System is logically the more basic and prior idea; an international system can exist without a society, but the international society cannot exist without an intentional system. The expansion of Europe starting in the fifteenth century created an international system long before an international society came into being.

International society is closely associated with the idea of international order, where order means an arrangement of social life such that it promotes certain goals and value. In this modern sense, international order means a community of institutions covering much of their interaction. Put differently, international order means cooperate interdependence.

International society has a sub-system. In this way, there must be a degree of cultural unity among its members.

Study Session Summary



Summary

In this Study Session, you learnt that:

1. A system is made up of interacting parts.
2. The units of international system are states (or independent political communities).
3. The Peace of Westphalia initiated the modern fashion of diplomacy as it marked the beginning of the modern system of nation states.
4. The characteristics of the international state system include territorial integrity, non-intervention, and balance of power.
5. The international system gave rise to the modern international society.

Assessment



Assessment

SAQ 15.1 (tests learning outcome 15.1)

Define international system

SAQ 15.2 (tests learning outcome 15.2)

What is international state system?

SAQ 15.3 (tests learning outcome 15.3)

What situation provided for the emergence of the international system?

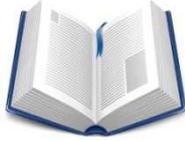
SAQ 15.4 (tests learning outcome 15.4)

Identify the characteristics of the international system

SAQ 15.5 (tests learning outcome 15.5)

State a consequence of the emergence of the international state system

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Notes on Self Assessment Questions

SAQ 1.1:

- a. Evolution is the development from less to more complex form.
- b. A system is an assemblage of units, objects, or parts united by some form of regular interaction.
- c. State system is composed of politics, whether tribes, city states, principalities, kingdoms, or some combination of them, that maintain relationship at a relatively high degree of intensity over time, and in several sectors, including commerce, culture, diplomacy, and war.
- d. Early state system had been in the form of sedentary empires, varying arrangements of suzerainty or dominion over lesser, subordinate, and dependent political structures
- e. Imperial states system is a situation in which one member of state system asserts unique claims which the others formally or tacitly accept.
- f. A sovereign state is independent political authority that recognizes no superior.
- g. A nation state exists if a nation and a state have the same boundaries.
- h. International State system is a system of relations between politically organized territorial structures that enjoy and exercise a measure of independence from each other and are under a higher authority. It is a transnational structure of political authority that might undermine territorial democracy.

SAQ 1.2:

Boundaries of the system, main characteristics of the political units, system structure, forms of interaction and institutions of conflict resolution.

SAQ 2.1: The city-state was an arrangement of a small territory dominated by a single city.

SAQ 2.2: The Greek city states were a multiplicity of various kinds of political arrangements, namely, monarchy, oligarchy, democracy and tyranny; and they usually preferred independence, in the form of a polis.

SAQ 2.3: The organs of Greek City-states included the Assembly, the Council of Five Hundred, the Courts, the Ten Generals and Local Government.

SAQ 2.4: The diplomacy of the Greek City-States centred on the formation of alliances motivated by a number of reasons, namely, war, religion, culture, games, etc.

SAQ 3.1: Renaissance means rebirth or renewal.

SAQ 3.2: The political organization in Europe before renaissance was characterized by serfdom. The serf stood half-way between the slave and the free man. He possessed land in the sense that he had his own piece of land from which to get his living, but he had to stay on the estate where he lived; he was tied to the land.

SAQ 3.3: The Italian city-states were a political phenomenon of small independent states mostly in the central and northern Italian peninsula between the 9th and 15th centuries.

SAQ 3.4: Most of these republics had been princely states dominated by Signore. The exceptions were Venice, Florence, Lucca, and a few others, which remained republics in the face of an increasingly monarchic Europe.

SAQ 3.5: During the Renaissance groups of guild members, called *boards*, often ruled Italian city-states.

SAQ 3.6: War and trade dominated the diplomacy of the Italian renaissance City-states. Constant conflict was the fate of these vigorous urban societies. In addition to the internal struggle, and the struggles for independence from emperor and pope, there was the constant fighting of the cities against one another.

SAQ 4.1: Macedonian Empire was a product of the conquest and unity of the Greek city-states by king Philip of Macedon.

SAQ 4.2: The geography of Hellenistic system embraces all the regions in which Greek culture spread after the fall of Macedonian Empire. Its influence was felt from Syria to Asia Minor, Africa, and finally Rome.

SAQ 4.3: The Hellenistic kingdoms were centralized, efficient and autocratic. The king ruled by means of highly complex and efficient bureaucracies, staffed, like the armies, by Greeks and Macedonians.

- SAQ 4.4:** Intercity relations became increasingly important, and leagues of cities with mutual interests were common. Many cities were highly cosmopolitan international centres. Two other political institutions developed as by-products of Hellenistic civilization: the Achaean and Aetolian Leagues. The states of the Peloponnesus, with the exception of Sparta and Elis, were united in the Achaean League, while the Aetolian federation included nearly all of central Greece with the exception of Athens.
- SAQ 5.1:** While the city-states in Greece were struggling for mastery, following the fall of Macedonian Empire, another civilization was developing in Italy. Tribes from various points of the compass entered the Peninsular gradually overcame or drove out the original inhabitants, and settled there. About 500 BC they shook off the Etruscan yoke, and ceased to be ruled by kings. From embracing only a portion of central Italy, Rome grew to become supreme in the peninsula.
- SAQ 5.2:** After the conquest of Carthage (Tunisia) in 146 BC, Rome continued to expand. Her armies went through Asia Minor and Syria into Palestine. After a struggle lasting thirty years, Egypt became a Roman province (30 BC). Northward, the Roman legacies pushed—through Gaul and finally into Britain.
- SAQ 5.3:** When in 44 B.C. Caesar was made dictator for life, he was an absolute monarch in everything but name. He combined in his person the leadership of the state and the army and possessed all the authorities needed to fulfill his roles. Upon his emergence, Augustus Caesar had the control of the state. He was the constitutional embodiment of all republican political authority.
- SAQ 5.4:** As Rome expanded it often negotiated with representatives of conquered areas to which it granted partial self-government by way of a treaty. In conducting diplomacy, treaties were made with other states under Greek international law which emphasized sanctity of contract.
- SAQ 6.1:** The Zhou dynasty (1045–256 BC), Qin Shi Huang, in 221 BC and the Han Dynasty.
- SAQ 6.2:** The ancient Chinese had Heterogeneous Political Units: Kingdoms, Republics, tribes, provinces, while the system structure comprised Direct Rule, Indirect Rule, and Local Autonomy.
- SAQ 6.3:** The unifying factors in ancient Chinese empire were military, commerce and culture.

- SAQ 6.4:** the Chinese had leagues, missions, and an organized system of polite discourse between their many “warring states” including resident envoys who served as hostages to the good behaviour of those who sent them.
- SAQ 7.1:** The Mauryan Empire covered much of the Indian Subcontinent, embracing a southerly region of Asia, mostly situated on the Indian Plate and projecting southwards into the Indian Ocean, a circumference of over three million square miles. All the land between eastern Iran and the Himalayan state of Assam was under Mauryan dominion.
- SAQ 7.2:** The early food gathering era, integration era and the localization era.
- SAQ 7.3:** It was characterized by caste system, kingdom and empire.
- SAQ 7.4:** Within the Mauryan and Guptan empires, and in the Chola kingdom, the kings appointed a lot of administrators to help them govern. The empires were divided into many smaller provinces, and each province had a governor to rule it.
- SAQ 7.5:** Indian diplomatic history was marked by efforts to extend both Indian religious doctrines (i.e., Buddhism) and political influence beyond South Asia.
- SAQ 7.6:** 1) conciliation, seduction, subversion, and coercion and 2) peace, war, nonalignment, alliances, shows of force, and double-dealing.
- SAQ 8.1:** The Carolingian Empire created a definition of Christendom in juxtaposition with the Byzantine Empire.
- SAQ 8.2:** Theology and governmental structure were therefore fixed parts of the Byzantine world, while Germanic Europe was dominated by warriors.
- SAQ 8.3:** The political units of Christendom (Carolingian and Byzantine Empires) were that of a distributed versus centralized culture respectively.
- SAQ 8.4:** The Byzantine Empire had a department of foreign affairs and bureau to deal with foreign affairs
- SAQ 9.1:** The territories included the kingdom of Germany or Germanic lands and some territories in northern Italy. Expansion took place late through marriage and diplomacy to include Styria, Bugundian territories of Holland, Belgium and Luxemburg (the low countries of the 17 provinces of Netherland), Spain and Americas through Spain.

SAQ 9.2: On Christmas day 800 AD, Pope Leo II crowned Charlemagne resulting in the creation of another Christian king beside the emperor in the Byzantine state.

SAQ 9.3: Each Germanic state, over three hundred in all, was ruled by a prince or church dignitary.

SAQ 9.4: It was headed by an emperor which was an elective title and all European monarchs vied with each other for the post.

SAQ 10.1: Islam emerged out of the crisis of the fall of Rome

SAQ 10.2: The political unit of Islam was the Caliphate

SAQ 10.3: The caliph was the head of state. The legislative powers of the caliph were always restricted by the scholarly class

SAQ 10.4: Since non-Muslim states eventually would accept the message of Islam, the need for diplomatic exchanges between them and Islamic communities also would be purely temporally.

SAQ 11.1: it was a system for structuring society around relationships derived from the holding of land in exchange for service or labour.

SAQ 11.2: The feudal system had its roots in the economic social structure of the later Roman Empire.

SAQ 11.3: The political unit was manor: The nobles would allow poor people to live and work in their lands to make them produce food in order to sell it, and in change for their work, these landlords would guarantee these people protection.

SAQ 11.4: The structure of feudal system is neither hierarchy nor anarchy. There were multiple allegiances and obligations as well as overlapping religious and secular authorities.

SAQ 11.5: The feudal system built the political and diplomatic power blocks with every player's ties to his liege lord and his vassals. The Roman Catholic Church conducted an active diplomacy.

SAQ 12.1: Boundaries were shifted in accordance with the outcomes of wars, because the idea of territorial integrity did not exist. States could go into extinction as they were taken over and swallowed up by bigger ones. Administration was decentralized and disorganized.

SAQ 12.2: They included Spain, France, England, and Italy.

- SAQ 12.3:** the emergency of royal power or sovereign as a centre of political allegiance.
- SAQ 12.4:** By the end of the fifteenth century, European political life was dominated by the national state, limited in its territory but increasingly powerful within its domain.
- SAQ 12.5:** the smaller and more homogenous nation-state predominated in international affairs. The power of the Holy Roman emperor was gone, and France—the state which most successfully developed royal absolutism—moved to the forefront of European politics.
- SAQ 13.1:** It was a series of wars (rather than one single continuous conflict) that involved significant European countries.
- SAQ 13.2:** Political and religious occasions.
- SAQ 13.3:** There were three main phases of the war.
- SAQ 13.4:** Spain, Sweden, Denmark, France, and the Ottoman Turks all intervened in the war.
- SAQ 13.5:** It destroyed a good portion of Central Europe and led to population decline and resulted in the of France
- SAQ 14.1:** Negotiations had been discussed since 1641 and were actually under way for five years
- SAQ 14.2:** The Peace of Westphalia has been described as a model of how to deal successfully with deep religious disagreements on a constitutional plane.
- SAQ 14.3:** The treaties declared papal authority no longer extended into the realms of the sovereigns on secular issues and that the members of the Holy Roman Empire were free to make alliances with other states.
- SAQ 14.4:** It gave rise to the emergence of the international state system.
- SAQ 15.1:** The International system connotes the integration of previously isolated peoples and political communities into regular contact with each other.
- SAQ 15.2:** International state system is the units of the modern international system.
- SAQ 15.3:** The Peace of Westphalia initiated the modern fashion of diplomacy as it marked the beginning of the modern system of nation states.
- SAQ 15.4:** The characteristics of the international state system include territorial integrity, non-intervention, and balance of power.

SAQ 15.4: A consequence of the international state system is emergence of the modern international society.