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*The evolution of British imperial policy during the mid-nineteenth century: a study of the Peelite contribution,*

The Napoleonic Wars led to an understanding by the major European powers that a general European conflict should be avoided at all costs. The principles accepted at the Congress of Vienna formed the foundation of 19th-century diplomacy. This was particularly so through Revolutions became the greatest threat to European peace, and military interventions to suppress or prevent the exportation of revolution abounded between and Thereafter the origins and course of the Crimean War offered the first major crisis, which threatened to expand into a general European war. The Risorgimento, the movement for Italian unification, failed as a revolutionary idea, but its acceptance by the House of Savoy, the rulers of the Kingdom of Piedmont-Sardinia, became the basis of active diplomacy to force Austria from its Italian possessions. The First War of Italian Unification " began with promise, but the skill of the local Austrian commander in Lombardy-Venetia and the ill-coordinated Italian efforts doomed the campaign of and the foolhardiness of The war in , followed by the Garibaldian and Piedmontese campaigns in , succeeded in establishing a Kingdom of Italy. Most notably, the wars of the mid-century witnessed the employment of modes of transportation and weaponry that were direct products of the Industrial Revolution. European Wars at Midcentury The military history of Europe during the 19th century is ground well trodden at the chronological ends, the Napoleonic Wars " at one end and the Wars of German Unification " and Wars of Imperialism at the other. Nevertheless, there is a shortage of European military histories that address the wider developments of war in the 19th century. The most cogently written is Black McNeill , a classic history of technology and war, remains vital for 19th-century military developments. For more specialized works relating to the two primary conflicts of midcentury, the Wars of Italian Unification and the Crimean War, there are fewer. The latter war has a significant literature, but an excellent general work is Goldfrank Perhaps the best general military history of the Risorgimento is Pieri , followed by the most comprehensive military history of the Kingdom of Piedmont-Sardinia, Paoletti An important overview of Habsburg strategy in Italy at this time is Wawro War in the 19th Century, " An eminently readable account of the transformation of war during the age of the Industrial Revolution, it should be consulted by those unfamiliar with the nature of war in the industrial age. The Origins of the Italian Wars of Independence. This history is a concise one-volume examination of the complicated interplay of European and Italian politics of the Risorgimento. The Origins of the Crimean War. The Pursuit of Power: University of Chicago Press, Tre secoli e mezzo di storia militare piemontese. Ufficio Storico Stato Maggiore dell'Esercito, Storia militare del Risorgimento: It should be a foundation for further research.

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Farnsworth Susan H.. *The Evolution of British Imperial Policy During the Mid-Nineteenth Century: A Study of the Peelite Contribution*, New York: Garland Publishing, Inc

His ideal-typical bureaucracy, whether public or private, is characterized by: Wilson advocated a bureaucracy that "is a part of political life only as the methods of the counting house are a part of the life of society; only as machinery is part of the manufactured product. But it is, at the same time, raised very far above the dull level of mere technical detail by the fact that through its greater principles it is directly connected with the lasting maxims of political wisdom, the permanent truths of political progress. Although politics sets the tasks for administration, it should not be suffered to manipulate its offices". This essay became the foundation for the study of public administration in America. Ludwig von Mises[ edit ] In his work *Bureaucracy*, the Austrian economist Ludwig von Mises compared bureaucratic management to profit management. Profit management, he argued, is the most effective method of organization when the services rendered may be checked by economic calculation of profit and loss. When, however, the service in question can not be subjected to economic calculation, bureaucratic management is necessary. He did not oppose universally bureaucratic management; on the contrary, he argued that bureaucracy is an indispensable method for social organization, for it is the only method by which the law can be made supreme, and is the protector of the individual against despotic arbitrariness. Using the example of the Catholic Church, he pointed out that bureaucracy is only appropriate for an organization whose code of conduct is not subject to change. He then went on to argue that complaints about bureaucratization usually refer not to the criticism of the bureaucratic methods themselves, but to "the intrusion of bureaucracy into all spheres of human life. The former makes for stagnation and preservation of inveterate methods, the latter makes for progress and improvement. Merton[ edit ] American sociologist Robert K. Merton. He believed that bureaucrats are more likely to defend their own entrenched interests than to act to benefit the organization as a whole but that pride in their craft makes them resistant to changes in established routines. Merton stated that bureaucrats emphasize formality over interpersonal relationships, and have been trained to ignore the special circumstances of particular cases, causing them to come across as "arrogant" and "haughty". Elliott Jaques describes the discovery of a universal and uniform underlying structure of managerial or work levels in the bureaucratic hierarchy for any type of employment systems. Number of levels in a bureaucracy hierarchy must match the complexity level of the employment system for which the bureaucratic hierarchy is created Elliott Jaques identified maximum 8 levels of complexity for bureaucratic hierarchies. Roles within a bureaucratic hierarchy differ in the level of work complexity. The level of work complexity in the roles must be matched with the level of human capability of the role holders Elliott Jaques identified maximum 8 Levels of human capability. The level of work complexity in any managerial role within a bureaucratic hierarchy must be one level higher than the level of work complexity of the subordinate roles. Any managerial role in a bureaucratic hierarchy must have full managerial accountabilities and authorities veto selection to the team, decide task types and specific task assignments, decide personal effectiveness and recognition, decide initiation of removal from the team within due process. Lateral working accountabilities and authorities must be defined for all the roles in the hierarchy 7 types of lateral working accountabilities and authorities: They also have a practical application in business and administrative studies.

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A Fruitful and Healthy Land Routledge, Levy and Salvatore Ali. The evolution of the Anglo-Dutch rivalry, The dynamics of enduring rivalries pp Wellington, French East India companies: Corbett, "Migration to a Spanish imperial frontier in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries: Arnade, "Cattle Raising in Spanish Florida, " A North American Border People, " Katherine Harrison and her Neighbours, Wethersfield, Connecticut, " The History of a Southern City Cole Harris; Geoffrey J. Historical Atlas of Canada: From the beginning to Vick, The Congress of Vienna: Manchester, "The recognition of Brazilian independence. Temperley, The Foreign Policy of Canning, By Sword and Plow: France and the Conquest of Algeria. Olson and Robert Shadle, eds. Pletcher, The Diplomacy of Annexation: Texas, Oregon, and the Mexican War The Emergence of Canada, " Stanard, Selling the Congo: Empires in World History: Encyclopedia of the Age of Imperialism, 2 vol. The Rise and Fall of the Great Powers: Economic Change and Military Conflict from to excerpt and text search ; very wide-ranging, with much on economic power Langer, William. An Encyclopedia of World History 5th ed. European Imperialism, , Brief survey focuses on historiography Savelle, Max. Expansion in America, Smith, Tony. The Pattern of Imperialism: The Struggle for Mastery in Europe: The Scramble for Africa, " The partition of Africa, " Praeger, The roots of French imperialism in Eastern Asia Three Faces of Imperialism: Russia and Britain in Persia, France and the exploitation of China, A study in economic imperialism Webster, Anthony. A Critical Appraisal, ed. Informal Empire in Latin America: Business History in Latin America: Britain and Latin America in the nineteenth and twentieth centuries Longman, Main article: Historiography of the British Empire Bayly, C. Atlas of the British Empire Britain, Empire, and the World, , pp Dalziel, Nigel. Highly influential argument that British merchants and financiers imposed an economic imperialism without political control. A Study of Empire and Expansion The Rise and Fall of the British Empire , very highly regarded survey. Low, Andrew Porter; Winks Marshall, P. The Rise and Fall of the British Empire Three Victories and a Defeat: British Imperialism Themes and Perspectives pp. Britain and the World, " A Dictionary of International relations

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University of Copenhagen Citation: Dr Stuart Ward, review of *Empire and Globalisation*: Equally apparent is the influence of new scholarly trends and influences that have emerged since the appearance of Cain and Hopkins seventeen years ago. But as the mounting volume of scholarship makes increasingly plain, the material forces, cultural implications and ideological consequences of European imperialism in centuries past have immediate resonances with the more recent experience of globalisation. Magee and Thompson are alive to the contemporary relevance of their work in the post-GFC era, without allowing this to over-determine their focus or findings. *Empire and Globalisation* seems particularly indebted to A. They argue that the defining characteristics of what is generally understood by globalisation – the world-wide dissemination of goods, capital, labour, information and culture across wide oceans – have their origins in the mass outward migration of British settlers from the mid-century to the outbreak of the First World War. What the authors firmly establish is that the British World needs to be taken seriously as a discrete historical phenomenon that profoundly altered the global landscape. The cornerstone of the argument is the role of culture in forging global networks of trust that were the crucial enabling ingredient in the development of large scale trade, investment and migration patterns across huge distances. The revolution in transport and communications from the 18th century onwards, occasioned by steam power and telegraphy brought new potential for wider, and more integrated networks of global economic activity. But this potential could only be realised by overcoming the profound uncertainty that such a quantum leap entailed. Settler communities were ideally suited to experimentation, because by their very nature they embraced a global network of social familiarity and relatively reliable contacts. One does not need to condone the ethnocentric self-regard of 19th-century settlers to recognise their capacity to exploit their own racially exclusive self-image for commercial and financial ends. The flow of information and news was an important part of this. Knowledge was the handmaiden of investment, and its availability was never distributed evenly – the cultural networks that tied the British world into metropolitan society created an information network that was biased in favour of settler colonies. Thus they account for the steadily growing proportion of migrants seeking a new home in settler colonies; the high levels of British investment in those colonies despite relatively modest returns compared to opportunities elsewhere; the sustained flow of remittances from settler colonies back to the metropole; and the extraordinary capacity of the British World to absorb UK exports with settler consumers spending upwards of three times more of their annual income on British goods than their European counterparts – and still more compared to the United States. In short, Magee and Thompson have made an impressive and lasting contribution, lending shape and depth to a concept that has hitherto been discussed in terms of ideas, beliefs, assumptions and associated generalities. Pursuing the twin aims of charting the contours of the British World, while accounting for the imperial origins of globalisation is an exercise fraught with complexity – and attendant difficulties. Each could have provided the basis for a study in its own right, and their respective needs do not always dovetail neatly. The dual focus also raises a number of analytical problems. By no means all of the features of the 19th-century British world economy can be said to resemble globalisation in the sense we use the term today, and certain aspects seem almost antithetical to the concept. This they freely concede. In their conclusion they pose the dilemma themselves: Here lies a potentially rich seam for future scholars to take up. Two other key issues in the book are likely to provoke further debate and new lines of research. Magee and Thompson are right to emphasise the ever-changing racial dynamics, but they offer little in the way of explanation as to why this was the case, or how this might have influenced or been influenced by the requirements of securing consumer and investor confidence in this early experiment in transoceanic networking. The book has relatively little to say about the ideological and rhetorical articulation of an expansive, racially inscribed Britishness,

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how this changed over time, and how it related to the phenomenon of 19th-century nationalism more generally. The likes of Charles Dilke, J. Seeley make surprisingly brief appearances, yet it would be interesting to explore the relationship between their ideas and the networks they spawned or vice versa, as the case may be. Secondly, there is an inherent “ and perhaps insoluble “ tension around the role of the United States, which is crucial to the question of whether the British settler colonial world is deserving of its own discrete category of analysis. To include the United States in the British World concept would tend to enhance the argument about the origins of globalisation, but at the same time it is disruptive of many key elements in the British World concept. The real problem, as Magee and Thompson demonstrate in impressive detail, is that the suit only partly fits. On the one hand, the United States appears as a model constituent of the British World economy, particularly as a destination for migrants, a major target of investment capital, and a reliable source of remittance payments. Yet the situation is entirely reversed when considering the United States as a market for British exporting industries. This was partly because the American consumer market was far less homogenous ethnically with migrants from other European countries surpassing British arrivals by the close of the century , but more importantly because United States markets did not share the free trade philosophy of their British counterparts. Clearly, the early achievement of separate Republican statehood placed the United States in a different “ and inherently ambiguous “ relationship with the British World. This is because the economic misery of the post-war era saw the British world turn inwards, effectively becoming a barrier to globalisation. Yet there is every reason to see many of the key components and characteristics of the British World surviving down to the s. British migrants continued to choose destinations within the imperial fold; the dominion governments excluding Canada continued to hold massive reserves in Sterling, long past the point when this unambiguously served their economic interests; and ideas about a special relationship of trust continued to influence popular perceptions of commercial and financial dealings throughout the British World. In other words, Empire and Globalisation has far wider applications than the Victorian and Edwardian eras. It offers a rich table of food for thought that will influence future research agendas across a range of disciplines. It is also mercifully accessible, even to the most incurably innumerate. It is sure to be devoured and debated for years to come. Davis and Robert A. Innovation and Expansion and British Imperialism: Crisis and Deconstruction I London, Back to 1 A selection of the most prominent examples would include C. Biographies of Global Modernity, “Present, ed. Britain, Empire and Transnationalism, c. These developments are not confined to studies of British imperialism, see for example Das Kaiserreich Transnational: Back to 2 In particular A. Interactions Between the Universal and the Local, ed. Back to 3 Niall Ferguson, Empire: How Britain made the Modern World London, , p. An earlier symposium was held at the Institute of Commonwealth Studies in London Back to 5 See for example, P. Diaspora, Culture and Identity London, ; P. Transnational Movements and Imperial Cultures, ed. Potter, News and the British World: Back to 7 Belich, Replenishing the Earth Oxford, The Rise and Fall of the British World-System Cambridge, , although he too casts his net wider than the settler colonies. Back to 8 Discussed in Belich, Replenishing the Earth, pp. The Anglospherist perspective can be found in books and essays by James C. Bennett, The Anglosphere Challenge: Back to 9 Formulated elsewhere as: He conveys very clearly and crisply its main avenues of enquiry and lines of argumentation. First, we would perhaps softly challenge the notion that modern globalisation is impersonal in nature, or culturally neutral, or truly global “ albeit we recognise that many contemporary commentators on modern globalisation suggest that it was so. Integral to any proper analysis of globalisation is a full understanding of the role played by the mass movement of people. Nor, would we suggest, is modern globalisation culturally neutral. Indeed, it is often perceived to have been driven largely by American or Western values and initiatives. According to this view, the current intensification of ethnic and religious divisions around the world is in part the product of the globalising forces unleashed by 21st-century advances in transport, technology and communications. Finally, unlike some of the media representations of contemporary globalisation, we do not see it as quite the all-encompassing planetary event, dramatically steamrolling diversity into oblivion, that it is sometimes cracked up to be. We

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acknowledge that our discussion of this important yet emerging literature on regional economic integration was brief. Second, as far as the interaction between identity and economy is concerned we readily accept that our study did not delve into this issue as fully as we might have wished. We were, as Professor Ward explains, keen to emphasise the racially-circumscribed nature of many of the networks we studied, as well as how their racial dynamics shifted over time. Freemasonry would be a good specific example here, and a useful study of the subject appeared during our research. Nonetheless, given the growing separation between cultural and economic histories over the last decade or so, there is, of course, much more that could be done to unpack this relationship between cultural identity, on the one hand, and consumer and investor confidence and behaviour, on the other. We hope our study will be a spur to others to do so. Third, Professor Ward is absolutely right to note how difficult it is to fit the United States into a narrative of the British world, or a narrative of the imperial vision of globalisation pursued by the British. Our response would be that the world is a complex place where not everything fits into neat boxes and never changes. That said, there is considerable scope to develop our understanding of the nature and strength of the Anglo-American connection over the period from the 1820s to the 1890s – a connection which strengthened in some spheres as it weakened in others. Also important are the demographic ties between Britain and the US: Interestingly, several younger scholars have been drawn to the subject of emigration, and a number of recently completed doctoral dissertations are likely to improve our understanding of Anglo-American cultural and political exchanges in the later-Victorian and Edwardian eras. These remained evident until at least the 1880s, after which they started to wane significantly. Notes See, for example, S. Themes and Perspectives, ed. Stockwell Malden, MA, 1998, pp. 1–10. Back to 1 M. Back to 2 We are grateful to Professor Peter Buckley for guiding us through this literature. See, for example, his own essays: Back to 4 Ibid. Back to 5 J. Harland-Jacobs, *Builders of Empire*. Back to 6 J. Thompson, *The Empire Strikes Back? Ward Oxford*, and J. Ward, *The Unknown Nation*. Back to 9 Related reviews.

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