

multi-volume chronicle, based on original manuscripts, which incorporates the chronicler's colloquial idiom, edited out by the Bulaq Press in the late nineteenth century.

Chapters 3 and 4 turn to artisans in Ottoman Egypt. Here, Hanna focuses on textile production, a large and important percentage of artisanal production in Egypt. She presents new and original discoveries on how Egyptian textile-makers undertook a kind of 'import substitution', producing their own versions of cotton fabrics originally imported from India. She also points out the technical innovations that artisans in Egypt introduced in dyeing – innovations that European textile manufacturers were eager to copy. In Chapter 4, which takes on transfers of textile-production technology from Egypt to France, the Egyptian craftsmen of Chapter 3 suddenly become 'Ottoman' craftsmen, and the discussion seems to include textile-workers in other provinces.

Where textiles and other artisanal goods are concerned, the author makes a laudable effort to place them in the context of international trade. Nevertheless, more attention might have been given to the extensive commercial networks that emerged within Ottoman territory. During the Ottoman period, the bulk of Egypt's commercial and demographic exchanges took place with Istanbul or with other parts of the empire. Meanwhile, the inclusion of Anatolia, the Balkans, and much of the Middle East in a single polity broke down barriers to internal migration. Egypt absorbed large numbers of merchants and craftsmen from Syria, Anatolia, and North Africa, as well as soldiers and administrators from Anatolia and the Balkans. Hanna does note immigrant craftsmen from Aleppo, Ayntab (today's Gaziantep), and Diyarbakır (in south-eastern Anatolia, not western Anatolia, as indicated on p. 83) during the seventeenth century. This probably represents an exodus from a discrete region – south-eastern Anatolia/northern Syria – almost certainly in response

to the disruptions caused by the Jelali rebellions. However, the increase in international trade from the same region during this period meant that merchants relocating to Egypt brought valuable commercial connections with them.

Similarly, in defining what commercial developments distinguished the Ottoman period in Egypt from the Mamluk period (1250–1517), Hanna could perhaps have taken into account the great variety of non-luxury goods traded in the earlier era, as demonstrated by S. D. Goitein's *A Mediterranean society* (1967–88). While the Ottoman era unquestionably saw a larger concentration of traffic in quotidian merchandise, the main changes from the earlier period were the much greater scale of trade, the much wider variety of products traded, and the much greater regional integration both within Egypt and in the Red Sea area and the Mediterranean littoral.

In sum, this is a useful introduction to some of the challenges of placing Ottoman Egypt in a global context, though readers will want to supplement it with some of the works cited above. At the same time, it provides a real service to readers wishing to know about textile production in Ottoman-era Egypt and recent secondary literature related to that topic.

Why did Europe conquer the world?

By Philip T. Hoffman. Princeton, NJ: Princeton University Press, 2017. Pp. 272. Hardback £25.95, ISBN: 978-0-691-13970-8; paperback £14.95, ISBN: 978-0-691-17584-3.

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In this book, Philip T. Hoffman provides a compelling and impressively expansive

account of Europe's roughly five-hundred-year rise to global ascendancy. Given its lack of political, cultural, and economic development in relation to thriving societies in China, India, and the Middle East, medieval Europe's transition from a backwater to the conqueror of much of the world is a fruitful topic of research and debate. Hoffman argues that this dominance was far from inevitable and that a forecaster operating in the tenth century would almost certainly have been unable to predict the scope of European military conquests over the centuries that followed.

Hoffman proposes that the key factor allowing western Europe to overtake its other Eurasian rivals and conquer most of the world was a tournament-style competition between Europe's fragmented rulers. According to Hoffman, this 'tournament' stimulated consistent and sustained improvements to gunpowder technology, giving Europeans a decisive edge in their conflicts throughout the Americas, Africa, and Asia. For Hoffman, this tournament model provides stronger explanatory power than earlier theories regarding the divergence between Europe and the rest of the world such as geography, epidemic disease, or a greater frequency of warfare within medieval and early modern Europe. Hoffman successfully refutes many of these older theories and makes a strong case for the importance of continually evolving improvements to gunpowder technology in facilitating Europe's global territorial conquests during the early modern period.

An economic historian, Hoffman relies primarily on secondary sources and detailed theoretical models for his evidence. Although this methodology may be unfamiliar for some historians, he does an excellent job of breaking up the denser material into a series of appendices that can be bypassed by the general reader or studiously examined by the specialist. His use of a wide range of material, spanning centuries and continents, is impressive, and the individual chapters work well together

in telling the story of the evolution of gunpowder technologies in Europe and the world. The central claim of the book – that the high value versus the low cost of war in medieval and early modern Europe incentivized steady and dramatic innovations in the efficacy of gunpowder technology compared to other parts of the world – seems convincing in light of the evidence that Hoffman provides. As he demonstrates, despite the high frequency of warfare in many other parts of the world, it was the particular dynamics of western European warfare, rather than its frequency, that motivated military authorities to invest in improvements to the gunpowder technology. In this reading, European dominance is not the result of any innate advantage but rather the product of a particular congruence of historical accidents that ensured the rapid refinement of a specific type of warfare that proved highly effective around the globe.

The one aspect of the book that would have benefited from further elaboration is Hoffman's somewhat cursory treatment of the modern period. The majority of the text deals with advances in gunpowder technology throughout the late medieval and early modern periods, with only the final chapter covering the nineteenth century and the impact of industrialization on this model and on the global conquest that it seeks to explain. But by Hoffman's own reckoning, Europe obtained its largest and most sustained set of territorial acquisitions during the period from 1800 to 1914. During this period, European territories and former territories expanded from 35% to 84% of the globe. This period also coincided with an exponential increase in the effectiveness of European military technologies, which Hoffman documents in impressive detail. Although he certainly does not ignore the modern period, and indeed adapts his tournament model to account for the 'armed peace' of the long nineteenth century, this section feels

somewhat rushed in relation to the deep analysis and meticulous modelling afforded to the early modern period. Given Hoffman's own conclusions regarding the importance of the nineteenth and twentieth centuries for Europe's global expansion, it seems as though this period receives disproportionately limited attention within the book's narrative.

The book nonetheless provides an important and compelling addition to the burgeoning field of scholarship that seeks to account for Europe's rise to global prominence. Furthermore, Hoffman develops an interesting and useful model for measuring advances in military technologies that could provide fertile ground for further research. It is probably impossible for one book to definitively close the debate on how it is that Europe managed to conquer so much of the world over the course of a few short centuries, given the complexity of the research question and the scope of the relevant material. Nonetheless, Hoffman's rich and highly readable account provides a compelling and well-developed addition to this debate that will be of interest to a wide range of historians.

The global history of the Balfour Declaration: declared nation

By *Maryanne A. Rhett*. Abingdon: Routledge, 2016. Pp. xiv + 168. Hardback £110.00, ISBN 978-1-138-11941-3.

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Zionism – Jewish nationalism – emerged in the second half of the nineteenth century, mostly among eastern European Jews. Although confronted by anti-Semitism and

exclusionary nationalisms, both of which 'othered' Jewish communities, Jews were slow to embrace the doctrine. It is therefore likely that Zionism would have gone the way of Confederate nationalism and hundreds of other nationalisms that burned themselves out before achieving their goals had it not received the approbation of the British government. That government articulated its support for Zionist goals in the Balfour Declaration, which stated, in part, 'His Majesty's government view with favour the establishment in Palestine of a national home for the Jewish people, and will use their best endeavours to facilitate the achievement of this object'. After the First World War, when the British acquired the mandate for Palestine from the League of Nations, they integrated the language of the Declaration into the 'draft instrument' that outlined the procedures that Great Britain would be obliged to follow in administering its new charge. A wartime pledge thus became a legally binding statute for the British government.

The year 2017 marks the hundredth anniversary of the Balfour Declaration, and a sizeable number of publications have already appeared on the topic. More are likely to appear as 2 November 2017 – the anniversary of the exact date of the Declaration's publication in the pages of *The Times* – comes and goes. None, however, is likely to be more innovative, or more important, than Maryanne A. Rhett's small volume. And if anyone has wondered where the strange phrase 'national home' in the Declaration came from and what its meanings are, Rhett provides the answer.

Rhett's book stands out for a number of reasons. Almost all writings about the Balfour Declaration deal with a limited number of questions, the most common of which concerns the British government's motivations in authorizing its dissemination. Was it the influence of the prominent Zionist Chaim Weizmann, the desire to keep the United States