

Chapter 1

Loath This Growth: Sources of Sustainability in the Early Modern World

This chapter focuses on the early history of sustainability and their relationship between several factors. First, the concept of “sustainability” was given a name in the early eighteenth century by a Saxon bureaucrat who coined the term “Nachhaltigkeit” to describe the practice of harvesting timber continuously from the same forest. In the pre-industrialized world the relationship between social well-being, the economy, and the natural world and it becomes the “systems thinking” of sustainability study. Before, the industrial revolution most of the countries in the world faced with the ecological problem such as: deforestation, desertification, soil erosion, silted rivers, urban air pollution, drought, and intermittent crop failure. As a result, the world started to react quickly to these so called “unsustainability” factors and started to focus on sustainability movement from the 18th century although there were some holistic concepts in some parts of the world about sustainability. Two categories to describe competing views of the natural world in the eighteenth century: “Imperialism” and “Arcadianism.” Was introduced in the pages of Donald Worster’s *Nature’s Economy: A History of Ecological Ideas*.

Chapter 2

The Industrial Revolution and Its Discontents

The Industrial Revolution has made us not only more technologically advanced and materially equipped but also better for it is a powerful narrative and one that’s hard to shake. It makes it difficult to dissent from the idea that new technologies, economic growth, and a consumer society are absolutely necessary. To criticize industrial modernity is somehow to criticize the moral advancement of humankind, since a central theme in this narrative is the idea that industrialization revolutionized our humanity, too. By the mid-nineteenth century, the implementation of a laissez-faire (“free”) economy that ran on new machines and was centered around modern factories and an urban working class brought some revolution in European civilizations. This revolution brought some controversy among the people. These controversies have been done by some scientific analysis through the several sectors such as: environment, economic, technological, energy consumption, housing and food resources, pollution and so on. Also, some opponent claimed that this industrial revolution created deep and long-lasting social inequalities between Western Europe (and a few European settler societies) and the colonized world, which became poorer and more urbanized after 1800. The changes that were made by the industrial revolution made the history divided in two areas such as: the industrial and the pre-industrial. There are different schools of thought on the Industrial Revolution, which focus, respectively, on technological changes, the birth of an urbanized working class, and economic growth—from slow, “Smithian” growth to rapid market growth—but none of these changes are mutually exclusive. Sale’s book, *Rebels Against the Future: The Luddites and Their War on the Industrial Revolution*, for his part, has laid out the six most important transformations in England, which brought an end to preindustrial society: The imposition of technology, the destruction of the past, the manufacture of needs, the ordeal of labor, the service of the state and the conquest of nature. Back in Europe, some of the fiercest opposition to laissez-faire industrialism in the 1830s and 1840s came from working-class movements: trade unions, rights activists, and socialist parties. The three themes that represent the leftist critique of the Industrial Revolution were: The critique of social inequality, the critique of the centralization of resources and power and the realization that free trade and economic growth led to environmental degradation. Malthus was the first European political economist to recognize that economic and demographic growth cannot (or should not) continue indefinitely. The debate becomes more polarized in recent years in between those who favor economic and demographic growth and those who tend to see the Industrial Revolution as an “undivided blessing”. However, those who see the Industrial Revolution as ushering in an age of pollution, overconsumption, and overpopulation and those who denounce growth as ecologically destructive and unsustainable tend to see Malthus as enduringly relevant. A second political economist who is still cited by neoclassical and ecological economists is William Stanley Jevons, who became well known later in the nineteenth century for his expertise on coal and for his mathematical approach to economic analysis. In his 1865 book, *The Coal Question; An Inquiry Concerning the Progress of the Nation, and the Probable Exhaustion of Our Coal-Mines*, Jevons did the unthinkable and addressed the prospects of a United Kingdom without ample supplies of coal. The final classical economist of the Industrial Revolution to mention is probably the most important: John Stuart Mill. Mill grew up in an intellectually intense environment, tutored by his overbearing father, James Mill, who was a utilitarian, and surrounded by Jeremy Bentham the founder of utilitarianism and the economists Jean-Baptiste Say and the aforementioned David Ricardo. The ecological economists and other sustainists turn to Mill for insight

and inspiration simply put, because of his belief that a growth-bound economy would and should ultimately culminate in a mature and prosperous state. The sustainability movement thus draws from social conservatives (such as Malthus), capitalist liberals (such as Mill), and socialists (such as Engels) but weaves diverse viewpoints into a coherent philosophy of wisdom and endurance. There were several discussions about industrial revolutions and sustainability since the early nineteenth-century that are focused on this chapter.

Chapter 3

Eco-Warriors :The Environmental Movement and the Growth of Ecological Wisdom, 1960s–1970s

This chapter discusses the environment movement and growth of ecological wisdom in between 1960 to 1970. It begins with the close examination of the differences between discussions of sustainability and environmentalism. In this book, the author Caradonna states that the topic of sustainability is often viewed as “cheery” and argues that the modern concept of sustainability owes its origins to the like of Aldo Leopold and Rachel Carson. The common topic for discussion in this book is that sustainability would not exist if it were not for environmentalism. The seminal work of Rachel Carson’s named “Silent Spring” defined environmentalism as a new kind of worldview that rejected ecosystem destruction and industrial growth in the name of ‘progress,’ and it forced citizens in industrialized countries to take sides on environmental regulation.” Carson, as Caradonna points out, faced war with Monsanto, Velsicol Chemical Company, DuPont, American Cyanamid Company, among others.

The reflective idea of this chapter was to help and guide readers to understand the overall concept of environmental movement, the problems of economic problem growth, the availability of resources of enough stuff, wealth and enough people that can troubled them in industrial society through several discussion and argumentation and examples of previous works.

Chapter 4

Eco-Nomics

Jeremy Caradonna moves to the modern notion of the sustainability “movement” from “economics” closely bound with the environmental movement. He investigated the development of modern sustainability thinking with some well-known organizations such as: World watch Institute, the Rocky Mountain Institute, and the United Nations and authors like as: E. J. Mishan, E. F. Schumacher, Kenneth Boulding, Howard T. Odum, Nicholas Georgescu-Roegen, Herman Daly, Amory Lovins. These authors raised some philosophical questions about ecological economics: What is the point of endless economic growth? What are the environmental costs of a wasteful and fossil-fuel-addicted consumer society? What is the best way to measure the well-being of a society? What is the role of economics in ensuring that human society remains within its ecological limits and avoids overshoot and collapse? How can nature, society, and the economy be studied as a single system? Is modern technology more harmful than beneficial? The main object of criticism, however, was not a command economy but neoclassical economics, symbolized most powerfully in the United States by Milton Friedman and the Chicago School of Economics. The critique of these economists covers several issues such as: The cost of growth, The natural environment ignored, Useless metrics and measurements and Technology worship. During the time of late 1970 to 1990 the concept of sustainability blossomed around the world and several ideas, conferences and organizations were took place on that time. Sustainability at this time grew in the world and especially in the USA sustainability turned out to be a political agenda.