

UNIT SIX

THE TRANSITION FROM MEDIEVAL TO MODERN PERIOD

Introduction

The transition from medieval to modern period was attended by a number of events that brought about significant changes. The earliest of these events was the intellectual and cultural movement which began in Italy and called the Renaissance. The study of Latin and Greek and classical literature was revived during the period.

Reformation was a religious movement of the sixteenth century that led to Protestantism. It had a tremendous impact on the social, political and economic life. As a result of the Reformation, Europe was divided between the Protestant countries of the north and the Catholic countries of the south. The movement back to the Roman Catholic Church is called the Counter Reformation.

Conditions in the later Middle Ages favored the growth of royal power. Three different conditions developed in the later Middle Ages which encouraged one-man power in many parts of Europe (1) New methods of warfare (2) Towns' people willingly supported the man who could preserve law and order (3) Kings made unity possible.

The voyages of exploration and discovery in the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries established new trade routes which linked Europe directly with the whole world. Trade routes and colonial empires added to the wealth of western Europe and made capitalism develop faster.

Objectives

After completing this unit, you will be able to:

- analyse the historical conditions that led to the transformation from the Middle Ages to the modern period;
- examine the nature of the changes during the transformation period from medieval to modern period.

Terms to Know

- | | | |
|----------------------------|-----------------------|----------------|
| - Antiquity | - Humanism | - Nawab |
| - Astrolabe | - Indulgences | - Parish |
| - Baroque | - Inquisition | - Plantation |
| - □Black Hole of Calcutta□ | - Liturgy | Colonies |
| - Corporate Colonies | - Line of Demarcation | - Sacrament |
| - □Factories□ | - Middle Passage | - Scripture |
| - Frescoes | | - World System |

6.1. The Renaissance: A Rebirth of Learning

Exercise Questions

1. Who was the first Renaissance humanist?
2. Who was the first 14th century artist to the portraied nature realistically?
3. What was the work of Dante Alighieri written in 1308?

Renaissance was a series of literary and cultural movements in the 14th, 15th and 16th centuries. These movements began in Italy and eventually expanded into Germany, France, England and other parts of Europe.

Renaissance means the □rebirth□ of learning. Many European scholars and artists especially in Italy, studied the languages, literature and arts of ancient Greece and Rome. The cultures of ancient Greece and Rome are often called classical antiquity. The Renaissance is therefore also known as the

Boccaccio for his collection of stories called the Decameron published in 1353. Both Petrarch and Boccaccio insisted that the duty of intellectuals was to concentrate on human problems. They thought that people could learn how to deal with their problems by studying the lives of individuals of the past.

Renaissance scholars in northern and western Europe were not as interested as the Italians in studying classical literature. Instead, they sought to apply humanistic methods to the study of Christianity. They were especially concerned with identifying and carefully editing Christian texts such as the Bible. These scholars became known as Christian humanists. Desiderius Erasmus and Sir Thomas More were the leading Christian humanists.

Erasmus was born in the Netherlands, educated in Paris and traveled throughout Germany, England and Italy. He had a thorough knowledge of Latin and Greek. Erasmus refused to take sides in any political or religious controversy. He did not support either side during the Reformation. However, Erasmus did attack abuses he saw in the Church in a famous work called 'The Praise of Folly' published in 1511. He criticized the moral quality of Church leaders and also accused them of overemphasizing procedures and ceremonies while neglecting the spiritual values of Christianity.

Sir Thomas More was born in England and devoted his life to serving his country. He gained the confidence of King Henry

VIII and in 1529, the king appointed More lord chancellor, making him England's highest judicial official. In his career, More dedicated himself to the principles that had inspired Erasmus. In his best known work, *Utopia* published in 1516, More described a society in which the divisions between the rich and the poor and the powerful and the weak by a common concern for the health and happiness of every one.

More's strong principles finally cost him his life. He objected to Henry VIII's decision to divorce the queen , Catherine of Aragon, and remarry. More then refused to take an oath acknowledging the king's authority over that of the pope. In 1535 More was beheaded for treason.

Revolution in Art, Literature and Drama

During the Middle Ages painters and sculptors tried to give their works a spiritual quality. They were not concerned with making their subjects appear natural or life like. But Renaissance painters and sculptors wanted to portray people and nature realistically. Architects of the Middle Ages designed huge cathedrals to emphasize the majesty and grandeur of God. Renaissance architects designed buildings on a smaller scale to help make people aware of their own power and dignity.

During the early fourteenth century, the Florentine painter, Giotto di Bondone became the first artist to portray nature realistically. Giotto attempted to create lifelike figures showing real emotions. The architect Filippo Brunelleschi , the painter Masaccio (a nickname for the real name Tommaso Cassai) and the sculptor Donatello were a remarkable group who worked in Florence in the early fifteenth century. Donatello portrayed, the biblical David as a graceful, nude youth, moments after he slew the giant Goliath. The work, which is about 1.5 meters tall, was the first large free-standing made created in western art since classical antiquity.

Arts of the late fifteenth and early sixteenth centuries were dominated by three men. They were Michelangelo, Raphael and Leonardo da Vinci.

Michelangelo excelled as painter, architect and poet. In addition, he has been called the greatest sculptor in history. Michelangelo was a master of portraying the human figure. For example his famous statue of the Israelite leader Moses, painted in 1516, gives an overwhelming impression of physical and spiritual power. The frescoes of Biblical and classical subjects that Michelangelo painted on the ceiling of the Sistine Chapel in the Vatican were painted from 1508 to 1512, and rank among the greatest achievements of Renaissance art.

Raphael's paintings are softer in outline and more poetic than those of Michelangelo. He painted a number of beautiful pictures of the Madonna (Virgin Mary) and many outstanding portraits. One of his greatest works is the fresco School of Athens, painted in 1511. The painting was influenced by classical Greek and Roman models.

Leonardo da Vinci painted two of the most famous works of Renaissance art, the fresco. The Last Supper, painted in about 1497, and the portrait Mona Lisa, painted in about 1503. Leonardo had one of the most searching minds in all history. He wanted to know the working of every thing he saw in nature. In more than 4000 pages of note books, he drew detailed diagrams, and wrote down observations. Leonardo made careful drawings of human skeletons and muscles trying to discover how the body worked. Because of his inquiring mind, Leonardo has become a symbol of the Renaissance spirit of learning and intellectual curiosity.

Dante Alighieri, who wrote during the thirteenth century is often said to represent the transition in literature from the Middle Ages to the Renaissance. His great epic poem La Divine Commedia (Divine Comedy) written in 1308, reflects the powerful interest in all aspects of human life and behavior.

As mentioned above Giovanni Boccaccio's *I1 Decamerone* (The Decameron), published in 1353, is a collection of realistic prose tales famous for their vivid and witty observations of contemporary life. Both Dante and Boccaccio were important in establishing the use of contemporary Italian rather than Latin as the standard language of literature in Italy. The love Sonnets of Petrarch were also written in vernacular Italian and they were widely imitated throughout Europe and further increased the prominence of the Italian language.

During the sixteenth century, Italian literature produced a number of outstanding prose works. Among them is Nicolo Machiavelli's. The 'Prince', a study of the rise of political power.

During the sixteenth century the influence of Italian Renaissance literature was felt throughout Europe. In Spain Miguel de Cervantes Savedra wrote his allegorical novel *Don Quixote*. In France, Francois Rabelais wrote lusty, vigorous caricatures of the world around him. In England of note are the Sonnets of Sir Philip Sidney; the epic. *The Faerie Queen* by Edmund Spenser and plays of Christopher Marlowe, William Shakespeaere, and other dramatists who wrote during the reign of Queen Elizabeth I (1558-1603).

Drama is an art form that tells a story through the speech and actions of the characters in the story. Most drama is performed by actors who impersonate the characters before audience in a theater. Drama, and classical plays were studied for the first time as drama, not just literature.

There were three types of plays-comedy, tragedy and pastoral. Pastoral drama dealt with love stories about woodland goddesses and shepherds in idealized rural settings.

Outside Italy, the use of national languages rather than Latin led to the development of national drama. The first such drama to reach a high level of excellence appeared in England between 1580 and 1642. Elizabethan drama was written mainly during the last half of the reign of Queen Elizabeth I, from about

1580 to 1603. Jacobean drama was written during the reign of King James I (1603-1625). William Shakespeare, the greatest dramatist of the age is considered an Elizabethan playwright. William Shakespeare, like other writers of his time, borrowed from fiction, histories, myths and earlier plays. Shakespeare contributed little that was entirely new, but he developed the dramatic techniques of earlier playwrights. This dramatic poetry is unequalled and he had a genius for probing character producing emotion and relating human experience to broad philosophical issues.

6.2 . The Reformation

Questions for Discussion and Practical Work

1. What is the basic protestant doctrine?
2. Who were the Puritans?
3. What was the essence of the Act of Supremacy which the English parliament passed in 1534?
4. What was Inquisition? Discuss.

Background

Reformation was a religious movement of the sixteenth century that led to Protestantism. Its socio- political and economic impacts were tremendous and its influences are still felt today. The movement began in 1517. In that year Martin Luther, a German monk, protested certain abuses in the Roman Catholic Church. About 40 years later Protestantism was established in nearly half of Europe.

Before the Reformation, Europe had been led together religiously by the Catholic Church. The pope gradually assumed greater importance and authority in the Church and in relation to the secular rulers. But since the early fourteenth century, the secular rulers were growing in power, and the Church was no longer a serious threat to them.

In the 14th and 15th centuries, the Church suffered several serious setbacks. In 1309, a French Pope, Clement V, moved the Papacy from Rome to Avignon, a city on the border of France, where it remained for about 70 years. In 1378, after Pope Gregory XI moved the Papacy back to Rome, a small group of French Cardinals elected and the Pope, called an antipope. For nearly 30 years there were two popes. After 1409 there was a third pope who resided in Pisa, Italy. This split caused great confusion in the Church.

Serious abuses also had appeared in the Church. The large administrative structures of the Church required a great

deal of money to finance it. To obtain this money, the Church used many devices that hurt its spiritual nature. These devices included selling important positions in the Church. In Italy, the popes and higher clergy lived like secular princes. They built lavish palaces and indulged in corrupt financial practices, which greatly undermined the religious life of the Church. The sacraments were often celebrated mechanically, and the Church's spiritual message about God's mercy was weakened by an emphasis on a person's good works.

By the end of the Middle Ages, the kings in western Europe were increasing their power over their own people and against the pope. The monarchies in England, France and Spain were growing stronger, organizing their finances and building their armies. Some people regarded the pope as a political leader of a foreign state and opposed his control and influence in their own counties. After the Reformation began, some monarchs broke away from the pope.

The Revolt of Luther

The Reformation began within the Catholic Church itself. On October 31, 1517, Martin Luther(1483-1546), a monk and professor of theology, wrote his *Ninety Five Theses* and according to tradition posted them on the door of the Castle Church in Wittenberg Germany. The theses were a series of statements that attacked the sale of indulgences (pardon from some of the penalty for sins). Luther later criticized what he considered other abuses in the church. Luther taught that God justifies human beings. By that he meant that God makes them righteous through His kindness to them. The doctrine of "justification by faith in Christ alone" was the heart of Luther's belief. It contradicted the Church's teaching of grace and good works as a way to salvation.

In January 1521, Pope Leo X excommunicated Luther and declared him a *heretic*. In May 1521 Emperor Charles V signed what was called the Edict of Worms. The document declared

Luther to be an outlaw whom anyone could kill without charge. However, Frederick the Wise, Prince of Saxony, feared a revolt and protected Luther. Luther continued to lead the Protestant movement until his death in 1546. In the Peace of Augsburg signed in 1555, the Lutheran churches were officially recognized in the Holy Roman Empire. Each ruler was allowed to choose the religious faith of his land.

Earlier, in the 1520s King Gustavus I of Sweden took over much church property and introduced Lutheranism in Sweden and in Finland which was then under Swedish control. In 1536, King Christian of Denmark made Lutheranism the state religion. They also established it in Norway which was then a Danish province.

Calvin

John Calvin helped establish Protestantism in Geneva, Switzerland. From there he directed efforts to convert the people of France and other countries of Western Europe. Calvin, a refugee from France had an iron will and a great gift for organization. He established the form of Church government called Presbyterianism in which a council of elders rules each church. Calvin's followers in France were called Huguenots.

Henry VIII and the Church of England

In England, as in Scandinavia, the Reformation was established by an act of state. But its success was due in part to anticlericalism among the people. The immediate cause for England's break with the Catholic Church was the refusal of Pope Clement VII to annul (cancel) King Henry VIII's marriage to his first wife, Catherine of Aragon. Catherine had not borne Henry a son, and the king wanted to marry Anne Boleyn in the hope that the marriage would produce a male heir to the throne. The pope refused to grant him a divorce from his Spanish wife. Henry also desired the extensive Church properties in England

In 1534, Parliament passed the Act of Supremacy which instituted an independent Anglican Church of England with the monarch the head of the Church in England. Henry VIII remained basically a Catholic. However Protestantism made great advances under his son Edward VI. Queen Mary I succeeded Edward in 1553. She restored Catholicism as the state religion of England and she suppressed the protestants.

Queen Elizabeth I (r.1558 to 1603), established a moderate form of Protestantism that became known as Anglicanism. English people who followed John Calvin were called Puritans. They opposed Anglicanism because it was episcopal (governed by bishops). The Puritans preferred the Presbyterian form of Church government. Catholicism was officially banned.

In Scotland, John Knox introduced Calvin's teachings and introduced Presbyterian system. In 1560, the Scots made Protestantism their state religion. England forced Ireland to adopt Protestantism as the state religion, but the Irish people remained loyal Catholics. Protestants colonized northern Ireland, also known as Ulster, and the conflict started between Catholics and Protestants.

The Roman Catholic Church and Counter Reformation

Counter Reformation also known as the Catholic Reformation generally refers to a period of Roman Catholic Church history in the 16th century. The Counter Reformation consisted of two related movements (1) a defensive reaction against the Reformation, and (2) a Catholic reform.

The Roman Catholic Church called the Council of Trent partly as a defense against Protestantism. The Council met in sessions between 1545 and 1563 in Trent, Italy. It defined Catholic doctrine on questions disputed by Protestant theologians. The questions included original sin, grace, free will, the seven **sacraments**, the mass and the relation between **Scripture** and tradition. The council arranged for the pope to issue a **catechism** and books on **liturgy** (acts of worship) so there would be greater uniformity in Church teachings. The Church also published a list of books Catholics were forbidden to read because the books were considered harmful to faith or morals. In 1542, the Church reorganized the **Inquisition** in Italy to help the courts fight Protestantism more effectively.

The Council of Trent tried to stamp out abuses by the clergy. It ordered bishops to live in their **dioceses**, visit their parishes and set up seminaries to train priests.

During the Counter Reformation many **religious orders** experienced reform and considerable growth. The **capuchins** played a major role in the renewal movement through this preaching. The Jesuits and the Dominicans led a revival of philosophy and theology at Catholic universities. Jesuit colleges trained many members of upper- class Catholic families in Europe. Prayer and religious donation intensified. Books teaching meditation and personal reform, such as those by Ignatius Loyola and Saint Francis de Sales became popular.

Missionaries brought new peoples to Catholicism. Dominicans, Franciscans, Jesuits and members of other orders worked among the inhabitants of Africa, Asia and the Americas.

Historical Significance of the Reformation

As a result of the Reformation, Europe was divided between the Catholic countries of the south and the Protestant countries of the north. In many parts of Europe the diversity of religious life created the necessity of religious toleration and a respect for the impotence of individual conscience.

The establishment of state Churches as occurred in England, reflected the growth of nationalism. Lutheran regions tended to be conservative and supported strong central governments. Calvinist areas where protestants were often in the minority, tended to support democracy and argued for a citizen's right to oppose tyranny by monarchs.

Luther and other Protestants opposed the **celibate** life of monks and nuns and idealized family life and participation in community activities. The protestant stress on the holiness of a person's daily life encouraged industriousness, thrifty living, and careful management of material things. This attitude became known as the protestant ethic. It may have contributed to the growth of industry and commerce during the 18th and 19th centuries.

Protestant leaders also emphasized education. They promoted literacy, an educational curriculum based on ancient Greek and Roman literature, and a high respect for teachers and learning.

Art During Reformation

Baroque is a term applied to many forms of art created in western Europe and Latin America. The style first appeared in Rome in the late 16th century. Baroque art is large in scale and filled with dramatic details.

Three elements in the cultural life of western Europe helped form the baroque style. First artists in the late 16th century rebelled against the art of the Renaissance. Renaissance art was restrained and orderly and generally systematically balanced. Baroque painters, architects and sculptors achieved

balance in a more dramatic and exciting way. For example, a Renaissance architect might use rectangular areas to achieve balance and beauty. The more dramatic baroque architect would replace the rectangular areas with curved areas.

Second many rulers wanted an art style that would glorify their reigns. Magnificent baroque palaces such as Versailles in France and the Zwinger in Germany expressed the power and authority of the head of state.

Third, the Counter- Reformation stirred a sense of religious enthusiasm in Europe during the late 16th and 17th centuries. Baroque churches expressed the drama and emotion of this movement.

6.3. The Rise of Absolute Monarchs and National States

Questions for Discussion and practical Work

1. Who was the English king that forced to sign the Magna Carta?
2. With which country did England unit during the reign of Henry VIII?

Rise of Absolute Monarchs

How do you account the introduction of western monarchies in Europe? The most prominent European monarchs have wielded absolute power, sometimes based on their presumed divinity. By the Middle Ages, the monarchical system of government had spread over Europe often based on the need for a strong ruler who could raise and command military forces to defend the country. European monarchies were dynastic with the throne usually being passed on to the eldest son or nearest male descendant. Many medieval rulers obtained soldiers and weapons from the feudal lords and thus were dependent on the **allegiance** of the nobility to maintain their power.

By the 15th and 16th centuries absolute monarchs such as King Henry VIII of England and King Louis XIV of France ruled the countries of Europe. Abuses of power, as well as growing dissatisfaction among the growing middle class or bourgeoisie, helped bring about the end of many absolute monarchies. Revolution in England in the seventeenth century and in France in the eighteenth century, were major landmarks in the limitation of absolute power.

Beginning of National States England

Early English history was the story of invasions. In the days of Rome's greatest power, Roman legions controlled what is now England. As soon as the Roman legions had withdrawn in the fifth century, however, other invaders rushed in. Teutonic

tribes from northwestern Germany first raided, then conquered and finally settled in England and Scotland. These peoples were called Anglo- Saxons; because the two main invading tribes were the Angels and the Saxons. The Anglo-Saxons established several small kingdoms in England. Then invaders from Denmark overran the island in the late ninth century, when they were halted by Alfred the Great, a great Saxon king. Under Alfred's descendants, England was united into one country.

In 1066, the Normans led by William, Duke of Normandy in northern France, defeated the Anglo- Saxons at the Battle of Hastings. William who became known as William the Conqueror, was crowned king of England. In time, the Normans and the Anglo-Saxons became a united people. The Normans spoke French at first. But eventually, their language blended with that of the Anglo Saxons to make the beginning of the present day English language. William I established a strong central government in England. He took the lands of the Anglo-Saxon nobles and divided them among his Norman followers. At his death, the king had established royal power over the country.

About a hundred years after William's time, England was ruled by another remarkable king, Henry II. He was well- known as a builder of the English government and law. The jury system grew under Henry II. In time trial by jury came into use in England in cases where persons were charged with crimes.

King John, Henry's youngest son, brought troubled times to England. He was treacherous and cruel. John tried to overthrow his father and also plotted against his older brother, Richard the Lion- Hearted.

John became king after Richard's death in 1199. During his reign John made enemies among the barons and religious leaders; lost much of the land England held in France; and quarreled with Pope Innocent III. In an attempt to reduce John's power, a group of barons and Church leaders demanded reform and then rebelled. They forced John to agree to a document in

1215 that became known as Magna Carta (Great Charter). The charter placed the king under English law and limited his power.

House Parliament became important in the late 13th century, during the reign of John's grandson, Edward I. It had two branches: the House of Lords which was made up of leading nobles and Church leaders and the House of Commons that consisted of knights, lesser landowners, less important Church leaders and the representatives of the towns. In 1297, Edward agreed not to collect certain taxes without the consent of parliament. Parliament slowly developed into a lawmaking body in England.

In 1283, Edward brought Wales under English control and gave the title prince of Wales to his son who later became Edward II. Edward I also tried to conquer Scotland but the Scots defeated his force and assured their independence for more than 300 years.

In the 400 years between William's victory at Hastings in 1066 and the time when the Tudor family assumed power in 1485 England had become more unified and royal power had increased. For over a hundred years (1485-1603) the Tudor family ruled England and strengthened its power. Henry of Tudor won his crown in 1485, and became King Henry VII. He was opposed by Richard III who opposed him. Following Henry VII's death, his son Henry VIII. Then Henry VIII's daughter Elizabeth.

Henry VIII was crowned king in 1509. He was talented and popular, but he was also selfish and wasteful. He married six times in all; twice he dissolved his marriage; twice he had his



Fig 6.2 Henry VIII

wives beheaded; one wife died a natural death; one outlived him. In 1534, Henry VIII had Parliament pass a law declaring that the king, not the pope was supreme head of the Church in England. These actions occurred while the Reformation was spreading across northern Europe. Following Henry's actions, English Church leaders made changes in Roman Catholic services that gradually led to the formation of the Church of England (Anglican Church).

During

Henry VIII's reign, England and Wales were finally united. The Welsh people had revolted against the English several times after Edward I had conquered Wales in the 1280's. But Henry joined both countries under one system of government. Henry VIII left England a mightier nation than he found it. In 1547, after a reign of nearly forty years, Henry VIII died. Edward VI, his sickly son, ruled only a few years. Then Mary, Edwards half sister, became queen. She was an ardent Catholic, and as queen, she reestablished Catholicism as the state religion. Mary ruled only five years. Then her half sister, Elizabeth I became queen in 1558.

The reign of Elizabeth I is often called the Golden Age of English history. Elizabeth was a strong but cautious ruler who played her enemies off against one another. One of her first acts was to reestablish the Church of England.

Under Elizabeth England advanced in many areas. Merchants formed a great trading company, the East India

Company, in 1600. Sir Francis Drake, Sir Walter Raleigh and other daring English adventurers explored the West Indies and the coasts of North and South America. English literature flowered during Elizabeth's reign with the works of such great writers as Francis Bacon, Ben Johnson, Christopher Marlowe, Edmund Spenser and above all- William Shakespeare.

In 1588, England won a great sea battle against Spain, the most powerful nation in Europe. King Philip II of Spain built a huge fleet called the **Armada** to conquer England. But an English fleet led by Admiral Lord Howard defeated the Spanish Armada.

After Elizabeth I died in 1603, her cousin James VI of Scotland inherited the English throne. James belonged to the House of Stuart which had ruled Scotland since 1371.



Fig 6.3 Elizabeth I

France

Many historians mark the beginning of the French nation from the coronation of Hugh Capet in 987. He was the Count of Paris when he was chosen as king by the more powerful lords of the time. Most of France was controlled by great nobles and Hugh Capet actually ruled only his own section of the country. For many years the Capetian kings controlled only their royal domain (land), between Paris and Orleans. But the captain kings gradually added more territory to their personal lands and became stronger than any of their rivals.

Philip II, called Philip Augustus, was the first great Capetian king. After he came to the throne in 1180, he more than doubled the royal domain and tightened his control over the nobles. Philip built up a large body of government officials, many of them from the middle classes in the towns. He also developed Paris as a permanent expanding capital.

The handsome Philip IV, called Philip the Fair, rebelled against the pope's authority. He taxed Church officials and arrested a bishop. In order to gain support in his dispute with the pope, Philip the Fair called together representatives of all estates, or classes of people in France in 1302. This council of the estates was called the Estates-General. It was made up of representatives from the three estates, or classes- the clergy, the nobility, and the commoners. Philip won public approval for his actions in the first Estates-General. In 1305 through Philip's influence, a French archbishop was elected pope and became Pope Clement V. After four years, Clement moved the pope's court from Rome to Avignon, where it remained until 1377.

The last king of the Capetian dynasty, Charles IV died in 1328 without a male heir. A cousin succeeded him as Philip VI. King Edward III of England, a nephew of the last Capetian king also claimed the French throne. In 1337 Edward landed an army in Normandy. This invasion started a series of wars between France and England which become known as the Hundred Years War (1337-1453). The English won most of the battles. But the French, after their victory at Orleans under Joan of Arc, drove the English out of most of France.

During the Reformation, many French people became Protestants. They followed the teachings of John Calvin and were called Huguenots. After 1540, the government persecuted the Huguenots severely, but they grew in number and political strength. In the late 16th century, French Roman Catholics and the Huguenots fought a series of civil wars that lasted over 30

years. In 1572, thousands of Huguenots were killed during the Massacre of Saint Bartholomew's Day.

The power of the kings and their ministers grew steadily from the 16th to the 18th centuries. France became a strong nation largely through the efforts of such ministers as Cardinal Richelieu who as a prime minister of Louis XIII had increased royal power more than any other individual.

Louis XIV was the outstanding example of the absolute French king. He is said to have boasted: "I am the State" After his Prime minister died in 1661, Louis declared that he would be his own prime minister. In 1685, Louis persecuted the Huguenots savagely. About 200,000 Huguenots fled France which

weakened the country's economy. Louis' minister of finance, Jean Baptiste Colbert promoted a strong economy. But the construction of Louis', magnificent Palace of Versailles and a series of major wars drained France's finances. Louis tried to rule supreme in Europe. He was stopped by military alliances that included England, Spain, the Holy Roman Empire, and other nations.

Spain

In 1469 Prince Ferdinand of Aragon married Princess, Isabella of Castile. Isabella became queen of Castile in 1474 and Ferdinand became king of Aragon in 1479. Almost

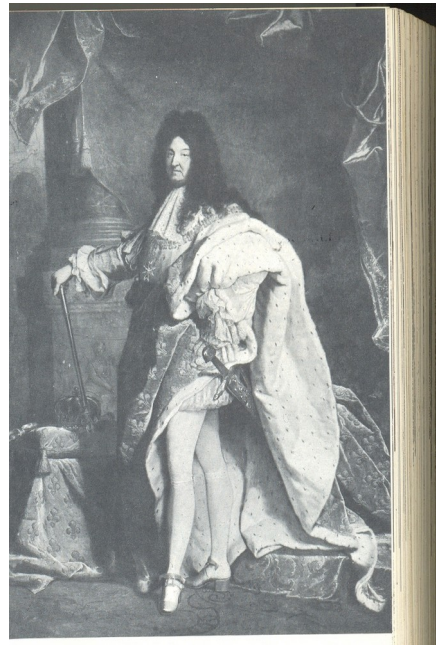


Fig 6.4 Louis XIV

all of what is now Spain thus came under their rule.

Ferdinand and Isabella wanted to create a strong united Spain. They considered Jews and Muslims to be a threat to this goal. In 1480, they established the **Spanish Inquisition**, a court that imprisoned or killed people suspected of not following Roman Catholic teachings. The Inquisition continued for over 300 years. Also in the 1480s, Ferdinand and Isabella began to drive the Muslims from Granada. Their troops defeated the Muslims in 1492. That same year, the last of the Spanish Jews who would not convert to Catholicism were driven from the country. But some Jews who had converted practiced Judaism in secret. This situation continued for generations. Ferdinand seized the small kingdom of Navarre in 1512 to complete the union of Spain.

Russia

After the rise of Moscow its grand prince came to be called **czar**. In 1547, Ivan IV also known as Ivan the Terrible became the first ruler to be crowned czar. He made the power of the czar over all Russia complete.

Ivan was brutal, extremely suspicious and perhaps at times, insane. Under him, a special police force was formed and a reign of terror began in which hundreds of aristocrats were arrested and murdered. Ivan gave his victims's estates as payment to the service gentry (landowners serving in the army and government). He burned many towns and villages, and killed church leaders who opposed him. In a fit of rage, he even struck and killed his oldest son.

Ivan and later czars passed a series of laws that bound the peasants to the land as serfs. **Serfdom** became the economic basis of Russian power.

Ivan fought Tatars and Kazan to the southeast, and won their lands. Russian forces then crossed the Ural Mountains and conquered western Siberia. He also tried to win lands north

west to Baltic Sea, but he was defeated by Lithuanian, Polish, and Swedish armies.

In 1610, Polish invaders occupied Moscow and they ruled through a powerless council of **boyars** (high ranking landowners) until 1612. However, the Polish control of Moscow led the Russians to unite their forces and drive out invaders. They recaptured the capital in 1612.

After the Poles were defeated, there was no one of royal birth to take the throne. In 1613, a kind of parliament with little power, called the Zemski Sobor (Land Council), elected Michael Romanov czar. The Romanov czars ruled Russia for the next 300 years, until the February, Revolution of 1917 which ended the czarist rule.

During the 17th century, Russia annexed much of Ukraine and extended its control of Siberia eastward to the Pacific Ocean.

In 1682, a struggle for power resulted in the crowning of two half brothers- Peter I (later known as Peter the Great) and Ivan V- as co-czars. Both were children, and Ivan's sister Sophia ruled as regent. Peter's followers forced her to retire in 1689. Peter made close contact with the many Western Europeans living in Moscow and absorbed much new information from them. He came into full power in 1696, when Ivan died.

Peter was greatly influenced by ideas of commerce and government then popular in Western Europe. A powerful ruler, he improved Russia's military and made many important conquests. During Peter's reign, Russia expanded its territory to the Baltic Sea. In 1703, Peter founded St. Petersburg on the Baltic. The capital was moved from Moscow to St. Petersburg in 1712. After traveling throughout Europe, he introduced Western- type clothing, factories and schools in Russia, and reorganized Russia's government to make it run more efficiently.

Peter forced Russia's nobility to adopt many Western customs. He also increased the czar's power over the aristocrats, church officials and serfs. He dealt harshly with those who opposed these changes. Under Peter the legal status of serfs further deteriorated. After Peter's death in 1725, a series of struggles for the throne took place.

Prussia

The rulers of Prussia, headed by the royal family of **Hohenzollern**, controlled lands originally peopled by Slavs, and conquered and colonized by Germans in the Middle Ages. There were about 200 families of hereditary aristocrats of **Junkers**, who owned most of the land. Men served in the Prussian army about eight or nine months each year. Prussian armies were among the most rigidly drilled and disciplined in the world.

The main cities of Prussia were Berlin, the capital, and Konigsberg(now Kaliningrad) in East Prussia.

The story of the rise of the Hohenzollern family is the story of Prussia. The Hohenzollerns were a family of German counts. In 1415, the Hohenzollerns became rulers, or **margraves** of the large district, or mark, of Brandenburg. When they came to take part in the election of the Holy Roman Emperor, they received the title Elector of Brandenburg. In the 1600's, the Hohenzollerns added the districts of East Prussia and Pomerania to their territory.

Prussia was greatly strengthened during the rule of the Great Elector, Frederick William, from 1640 to 1688. His son, Frederick I was crowned the first king of Prussia in 1701. He built a strong army.

Frederick the Great or, Frederick II, came to the throne of Prussia in 1740. He helped form the Prussian theory of government based on discipline and authority. Frederick believed in the idea "might makes right". His tax collectors

were called war commissars, and all the members of his cabinet were called war ministers.

Using the strong army his father had organized, he seized Silesia from Austria in 1740. In the late 1740s he expanded Prussia further by taking part of Poland.

Austria

In the late eighth century, Austria came under the rule of Charlemagne, king of Germanic people called the Franks. After Charlemagne's death in 814, the Frankish empire broke up. In the tenth century, tribes of Magyars overran Austria. But the king of Germany, Otto I, defeated them in 955. Austria then came under his rule. In 962, the pope crowned Otto emperor of what later became known as the Holy Roman Empire. German emperors ruled the Holy Roman Empire until 1806 when it came to an end. Austria was to become the empire's most important state.

In 976, Emperor Otto II gave control of north eastern Austria to Leopold I of the Babenberg family. In 1156, Emperor Frederick I increased the importance of this area by declaring it a **duchy**, a territory ruled by a **Duke**.

The last Babenberg duke died without an heir in 1246. King Ottokar of Bohemia then gained control of the Babenberg duchies of Austria and Styria, plus some lands to the south. In 1273, the princes of Germany elected Rudolf I, a member of the Habsburg family of Switzerland, as Holy Roman Emperor. Rudolf defeated Ottokar in battle in 1278 and began to acquire for his family the lands that the king had taken.

In the 14th century, the Habsburgs lost the Holy Roman crown. In 1359, the great grandson of Rudolf I, Rudolf IV, claimed the title of **archduke** of Austria. But his claim was not recognized by other European rulers until 1453. In that year, the Duchy of Austria became the Archduchy of Austria. In time, the Habsburgs acquired the other regions that make up present day Austria.

Strong Monarchs and Hundred Years War (1337-1453)

Hundred Years War extended over the reigns of five English and five French kings who fought for control of France. This struggle between England and France actually consisted of a succession of wars broken by truces and treaties. The English loss of Normandy in France in 1204 developed as the basic cause of the war. The war had several contributing causes. The English were angered by the efforts of the French kings to control the English-held province of Gascony in southwest France. The French supported the Scots against England, and the French attempted to control Flanders and the English wool trade there. English and French sailors and fisher men quarreled over rights in the English Channel. Edward III of England, whose mother was the sister of three French kings, formally claimed the throne of France in 1337. He landed an army in Normandy to begin the Hundred Years War.

In the fighting that followed, the English won most of the battles. But the French won the war. English resources in man power, supplies, and wealth were about a third as great as those of the French. Several events hindered the course of the war. These included peasant rebellions; pillaging in France by unemployed soldiers; the Black Death, (a form of **bubonic plague**, in the two countries); a peasants' revolt in England in 1381. The war weakened the powers of the nobility and strengthened centralized government in both countries. It also marked the decline of feudalism, the rise of French unity, the development of new military tactics, and the growth of English sea power.

English archers and infantry won the war's greatest victory in the Battle of Crecy in 1346. The English also won the Battle of Poitiers in 1356. The Treaty of Bretigny in 1360 began a brief period of peace. But Henry V of England renewed the fighting and emerged triumphant at the Battle of Agin court in 1415. Henry V was made heir to the French crown by the Treaty of Troyes in 1420.

After Henry V died in 1422, the French disputed the English claim to the throne, and war flared again. By 1428, the English had swept through northern France and laid siege to Orleans. Joan of Arc, led a French army in raising the siege in 1429. Joan of Arc (1412 -1431), was a French national heroine who became a saint of the Roman Catholic Church. She was a simple peasant girl who rescued France from defeat in the Hundred years. War with England. Her first great triumph was to lead a French army against the English who had laid siege to the city of Orleans. She became a prisoner of the English, who later burned her as a witch. The French continued to win battles. By 1453, England had lost all its territory on the continent of Europe except Calais. The French took Calais in 1558.

6.4. European Expansion Over Seas

Questions for Discussion and Practical Work

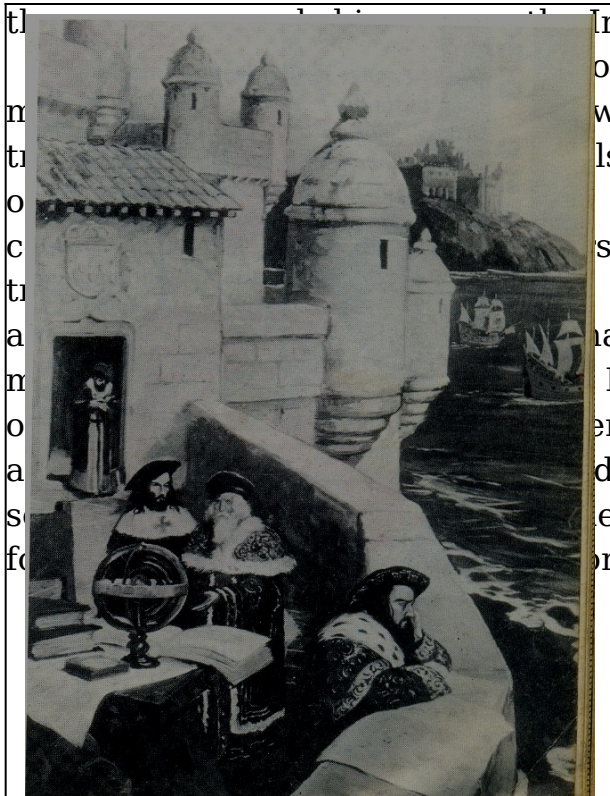
Fact

1. Why did Spain and Portugal sought all-water routes to the East in the 15th century?
2. Which European power controlled Brazil as its colony?
a) Spain b) Portugal c) Holland d) France
3. Who were the European power that fought the Seven Years War.
a) Spain b) Portugal c) Holland d) France
4. Why did the European powers sought to by-pass the Muslim traders and higher prices for the Eastern products. The major European trading nations were

and find a direct sea route to the Indies, as the Europeans then called the eastern part of Asia.

Two hundred years before Columbus discovered America, the Venetian Marco Polo had told strange, exciting stories as to how he traveled to distant lands in Asia and had become rich. There was also the yarn about Prester John, a rich Christian king who ruled somewhere in Asia or Africa. Such tales of travelers fascinated Europeans and dramatically increased their curiosity about the Far East.

Exploration and discovery took place in a large scale in the 15th and 16th centuries, because of the development of more efficient sailing ships and availability of navigation instruments like the compass, the quadrant and astrolabe. These kind of instruments made long distance voyages across oceans possible for European seamen for the first time. Sailing ships were entirely dependent on the wind. The discovery that the winds of the globe blow in a regular pattern across the oceans of the world also made regular oceanic voyages possible. For example, the "trade winds" moved sailing ships across the Atlantic and back, and the monsoon winds, changing directions according to



the Indian Ocean and back.

Prince Henry of Portugal (1394-1460) did not want to expand Portugal's territory. He also hoped to find the source of the gold that had been carrying north from the Sahara. Henry devoted himself to the study of navigation. He brought together the best cartographers, makers, astronomers and navigators. He collected maps, records and instruments such as compasses and sextants to build better ships. Then on the 14th of July 1498, the Navigator opened a school of navigation.



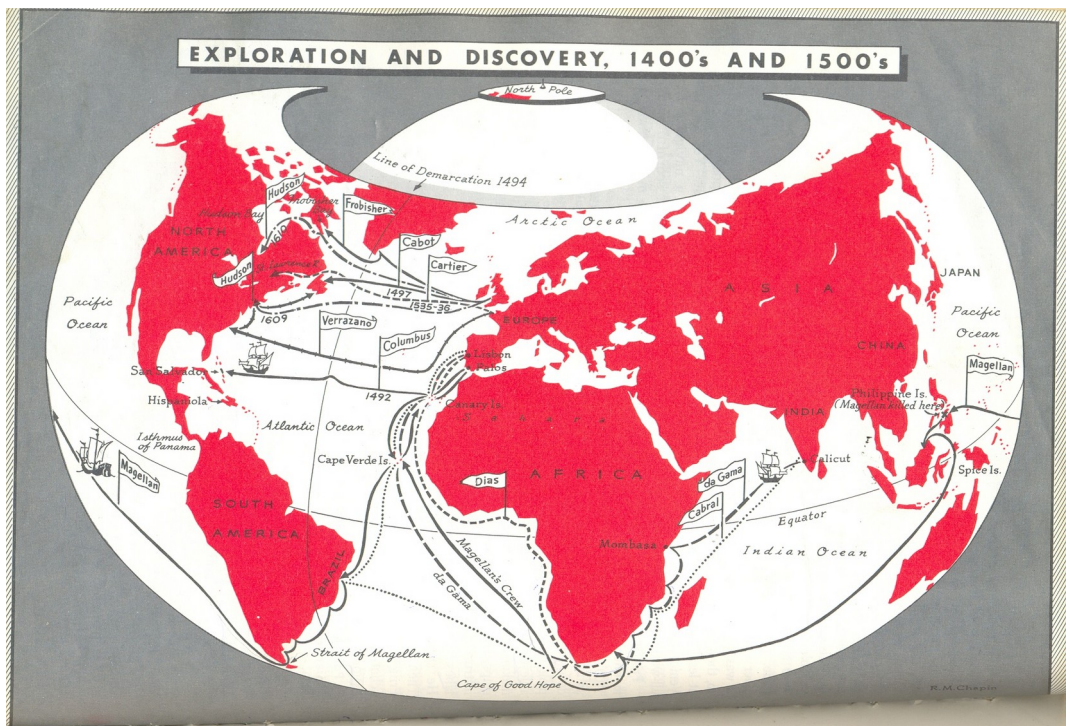
Fig 6.6 Astrolabe

Fig 6. 5 Henry the Navigator

Let us now look at the principal voyages of exploration. By the middle of the 15th century, the Portuguese were trying to find a way round Africa to open a direct sea route to the valuable spice trade of the East. In 1497-98, Vasco da Gama sailed to India and back; and the "Cape route" round Africa and across the Indian Ocean to the East was open. In 1492, Christopher Columbus, an Italian in the service of Spain, crossed the Atlantic Ocean and reached the islands now called the West Indies. He was trying to sail round the world to reach India, China and the East. He did not know that the American continents were across his route. On his first and later voyages, Columbus had in fact reached not the East as he thought, but the Caribbean islands and the main land of the American continents. Other Spanish voyages soon confirmed that a new continent had been discovered. In 1519-22, Magellan's

expedition first sailed round the world. At the head of 241 men and a fleet of 5 ships, Magellan sailed across the Atlantic Ocean to the coast of Brazil. He and his crew resumed the voyage through a passage to the Pacific a passage known ever since as the strait of Magellan. Magellan named the ocean Pacific across which he and his crew sailed, and then reached the Philippines where Magellan was killed in April, 1521. The Victoria, one of the five ships, with the surviving members of the crew finally reached Spain on Sept 6, 1522 nearly 3 years after the voyage had begun.

The Spanish and Portuguese led the voyages in the 15th and 16th centuries. The Dutch, the French and the English followed in the 17th and 18th centuries. By about 1800, the coasts and oceans of the world were well known and had been accurately put on maps. The interior of much of the American continents, Africa and much of Asia were still little known, however.



Map 6.1 Map of Exploration and Discovery

European Colonial Empires in Asia (16th to the 18th centuries)

In the 15th and 16th centuries, no large colonial empires were established in the East, that is, India, China, Japan and South East Asia. Asian states were still too strong to be conquered. European colonial empires, as in India, appeared only later. Europeans, first the Portuguese and then the Dutch, English and French came to trade. They established trading posts called "factories". These "factories" are not the same as European factories of the Industrial Revolution. "Factories" in the East were places to store and exchange goods in the eastern trade. Until the Industrial Revolution, there was not much which Europe produced that Asian customers wanted to buy. Asia had its own goods and manufactures which in fact Europe wanted to buy, such as spices, cotton goods, silks and later (from China) tea. European merchants had to buy these eastern goods with gold or silver.

Portugal was more interested in developing a network of profitable trading posts in Africa and Asia than in colonizing the New World. The Portuguese established trading posts in Asia and during the 16th century controlled most of the profitable Far East trade. But in the late 16th century, the chief blow to the Portuguese came when this country was annexed by Spain for over sixty years. Meanwhile, Portuguese ports in the Far East were preyed upon by other nations particularly the ambitious Dutch. Nevertheless, the Portuguese managed to keep control of such points as Macao and Goa. The Dutch also controlled the

islands that became the Dutch East Indies (now Indonesia), while the English became a strong influence in India.

The British gained a strong foothold in India. Trading companies were responsible for the founding of several of the most important British colonies. One of the most famous trading companies was the British East India Company. In 1608, a representative of this company arrived in India. His purpose was to make arrangements with the local rulers for trading rights. By the later 17th century, however, the British East India Company controlled most of the trade in northern India. It also had a firm hold over such cities as Bombay (present Mumbai).

Englishmen began to be disturbed when news reached them that Frenchmen had opened up trading centers in parts of Southern India. By 1689, it was clear that England and France would some day fight it out for control of India and its rich trade.

Religious conflict between the Muslims and Hindus also helped to split India apart. This confused state of affairs made it easier for Europeans to gain control of India's rich trade. In the absence of any strong central government, Europeans were able to make deals with local rulers and obtain positions of authority. By the late 17th century, English and French trading companies had a foothold in India.

Employees of both the British and French trading companies took advantage of the disorder prevailing in India. French traders supported some of the quarreling local rulers, while English traders took sides with others. Finally, an able Frenchman named Dupliex managed to win most of the **rajahs** of southern India over to the French side. On the other hand, a young Englishman named Robert Clive set out to defeat Indian rulers supported by the French. Leading a small force of 300 native troops and 200 English, Clive captured the Indian city of Arcot. In spite of efforts to retake Arcot, Clive held out for 54 days until other English led forces drove off the enemy. Clive

soon made the British East India Company master of southern India.

Meanwhile, since the Seven Year's War had begun in Europe, Englishmen in Calcutta improved the defenses of this trading post. This move angered the Indian ruler of the state of Bengal who was friendly to the French. The **nawab**, as he was called, gathered 50,000 men and seized Calcutta. Then the angry nawab locked up 146 English subjects in a small cell less than 20 feet square. Next morning 123 of the English were dead of suffocation in what had ever since been called the "Black Hole of Calcutta".

When Clive heard the news, he led a small army to Calcutta and recaptured the city. In the campaign that followed, the nawab's army was twenty times as large as Clive's. Nevertheless, Clive destroyed the enemy army on the battle field of Plassey in 1757. By appointing a native ruler to rule Bengal for the British East India Company.

English control of India was nearly complete at the end of the Seven Yersars' War in 1763. This control, however, did not operate directly but was carried out by the East India Company through local rulers. France kept a few trading posts in India, but no forts or armies.

The East India Company had been formed merely to carry on trade. As a result of Clive's victories, however, it faced the job of ruling far more people in India than lived in Great Britain. In 1784, the East India Company

was placed under control of the English government.

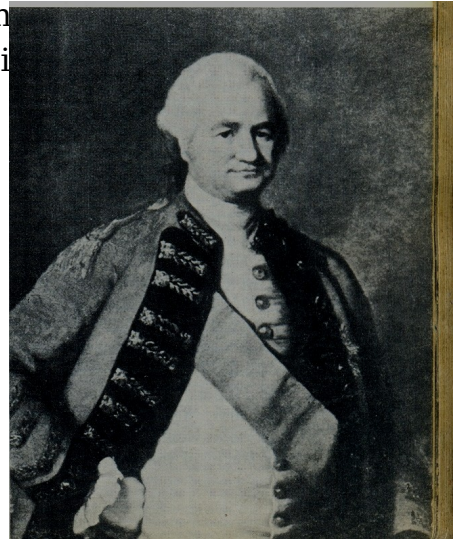


Fig 6.7 Robert Clive

Portugal, Spain, Holland, France, England in the New World

Portugal

In the New World, Portugal claimed Brazil as a result of Cabral's discovery. In 1500, a Portuguese captain named Cabral set out from Portugal with 13 ships. He meant to follow da Gama's route to India. But strong winds blew Cabral's fleet from the west coast of Africa to the east coast of the South American country we call Brazil. Promptly Cabral claimed Brazil for Portugal. Then he turned eastward again, rounding Africa and sailing on to India. Years later, Portuguese colonists in large numbers settled in Brazil. This is the reason why Portuguese remained to this day the language most widely used in Brazil.

Spain

In the early 16th century, Spanish explorers pushed across most of Central America and South America. After them came waves of conquering armies and settlers.

One of the most important expeditions of Spain in the New World began in 1519. That year, Hernando Cortes, who commanded an army of about 600 Spaniards, sailed from Cuba to the east coast of what is now Mexico. After landing on the coast, he learned that the rich Aztec Indians ruled a great civilization some distance inland.

Cortes marched his army to the Aztec capital at Tenochtitlan (now Mexico City). There the Aztec and their emperor, Montezuma, welcomed the strange white visitors as gods. But Cortes took Montezuma captive and put the empire under his control. This led to the Spanish conquest of Central America and made Mexico one of Spain's most important bases in the New World.

In 1533, the Spanish explorer and conqueror, Francisco Pizarro conquered the wealthy empire of the Inca Indians in what is now Peru.

During the 16th century, Spaniards also explored what is now the southern part of the United States. In 1539, an army of about 600 Spaniards commanded by Hernando de Soto sailed from Cuba to the west coast of Florida. In search of gold, this expedition traveled through what are now Georgia, South Carolina, North Carolina, Tennessee, Alabama, Mississippi, Arkansas and Louisiana. They found no gold but they became the first Europeans to reach the Mississippi.

Holland

The Dutch West India Company was founded in 1621 to trade in the New World and western Africa. In 1624, the company colonized New Netherlands, which consisted of parts of present day New York, New Jersey, Connecticut, and Delaware. In 1626, Dutch colonists bought Manhattan Island from the Indians for goods worth about \$24. They had established New Amsterdam (now New York City) there the year before.

The Netherlands fought three naval wars with England between 1652 and 1674. The English hoped to seize the shipping and trading leadership from the Dutch; but failed. During this period, the Dutch won what is now Suriname from the English, and the English gained New Netherlands.

France

French fur traders played a leading role in the exploration of North America. They traded for the skins of beaver, fox, mink, and other small animals.

In 1603, the French explorer Samuel de Champlain followed the route up to St. Lawrence River. Champlain founded the city of Quebec as a fur trading post in 1608.

The French had a thin line of settlements, trading posts, and forts scattered from Quebec in eastern Canada to New Orleans near the Gulf of Mexico. These dotted the St. Lawrence Valley, the shores of the Great Lakes, and the valleys of the Ohio and Mississippi Rivers. The French also had some islands in the West Indies. The headquarters of the governor of New France (as the French settlements and ports in North America were called) were in Quebec, on the banks of the St. Lawrence River. Even to this day Quebec is more French Canadian than it is English- Canadian.

England

The first permanent English settlement in North America was founded at Jamestown Island in Virginia in 1607. Plymouth was the second permanent English settlement in America. A group of men, women, and children who had separated from the Church of England established the colony in 1620 on the south eastern shore of what is now Massachusetts.

After English colonists had settled Jamestown and Plymouth, large areas of the Atlantic Sea coast were colonized. The colonies are generally grouped according to location: (1) the Northern or New England Colonies, (2) the Middle Colonies, and (3) the Southern Colonies.

The Northern Colonies were Connecticut, Massachusetts, New Hampshire, and Rhode Island. The Middle Colonies were Delaware, New Jersey, New York and Pennsylvania. The Southern Colonies were Georgia, Maryland, North Carolina, South Carolina and Virginia.

There were three major types of American Colonies (1) royal, (2)proprietary, and (3) corporate. A royal colony was under the direct control of the king. A proprietary colony was controlled by a prominent individual- the proprietor- under a grant from the king. A corporate colony was operated, as a rule, under a charter obtained from the king by a company's stock holders. All the 13 English colonies were founded either as proprietary or corporate colonies. By the time the American War of Independence began in 1775, however, eight of them had become royal colonies.

Colonial Rivalries and Wars

In the mid-16th century, Spaniards settled some of the many islands in the Philippines, which were named in honor of Spanish King Philip II. But the Spanish claim to the islands was disputed by Portugal. Portugal was already in possession of the nearby Moluccas and could invoke the Treaty of Tordesillas of 1494, (this treaty established the so-called Line of Demarcation, which set the boundaries between areas that would become

Spanish territories and those that would be Portuguese). In 1542, however, a Spanish expedition reasserted Spain's claims and named the archipelago, Philippine Islands. In 1571, a colonial capital was established at Manila, from which Spain ruled the Philippines for more than 300 years.

During the 1600's the Dutch and the English also took control of the Asian trade from the Portuguese. The Dutch gained control of the islands that became the Dutch East Indies (now Indonesia), and the English became a strong influence in India. The Dutch, English and French also took over parts of Latin America chiefly the West Indies.

The English and French moved into parts of Canada as well. The Dutch, English, and French claimed sections of what became the United States. There the English eventually established the Thirteen Colonies between 1603 and 1733. In 1424, the Dutch settled New Netherlands, which included parts of what are now Connecticut, Delaware, New Jersey and New York. The English took over New Netherlands in 1664.

Seventeenth-century colonists fought wars with the coastal Native American peoples upon whom they had intruded. Eighteenth century colonial wars, in contrast, usually began in Europe, and they pitted the English colonies against French and Spanish empires in North America. These empires posed a number of problems for English colonists. Spanish Florida offered refuge to run away slaves from the south eastern colonies. The French built an interior arc of settlements from Quebec to New Orleans; they also made trading, agreements with Native Americans. The French trading empire impeded the expansion of English settlements, and the strength of the French and their Native American allies was a constant concern to the British and to American settlers.

The English and French fought frequently: in King William's War (1689-1697, (known in Europe as the war of the League of Augsburg); in Queen Ann's War (1702-1713), (the War of the

Spanish Succession); in King Georges War (1744-1748), (War of the Austrian Succession); and in the French and Indian War (the Seven Years War), which began in America in 1754 and ended in Europe in 1763. In all these wars, which took place in North America, the French had the assistance of most Native Americans of the interior.

The French and Indian War (1754-1763) concluded a global series of Wars (1689-1763), as mentioned above, between Britain and France. The two European powers teamed with their respective allies in a quest for domination of North America. During the course of these wars, the English gained strength in relation to their French and Spanish rivals, and in the French Indian War, with strong help from colonial militia, they expelled the French from mainland America. In 1763, Britain became the lone European imperial power in North America between the Atlantic Ocean and the Mississippi River. (The Spanish, allies of the French, gave up Florida but took over French claims in New Orleans and in lands west of the Mississippi as compensation).

Victory in the French Indian War gave the British an enlarged mainland empire but also brought new problems. First, the war had been expensive. Second, the acquisition of French and Spanish territory gave the British new administrative tasks. They acquired not only vast tracts of land, but also the French settlers and indigenous peoples who lived there.

The Commercial Revolutions and its Effects on World Trade

The foundations of European sea-board empires were laid during the 16th and 17th centuries. By the 18th century, these empires had become powerful. To understand these empires, it is helpful to break them up into regional networks or world systems. A World System is an area where different cultures are related through commercial and other interactions. The boundaries of a world system are not restricted to territory

controlled by any one country. The Atlantic Ocean is an example of a world system, as is the Indian Ocean.

For the Atlantic Ocean, there are two fairly distinct, but connected World Systems. The North Atlantic system included Western Europe, Russia, the Baltic, Scandinavia, the abundant fishing areas near Newfoundland and New England, and what became Canada and the northern states of the United States. Its main products were timber, fish, and fur. The South Atlantic system included the Spanish colonies in South and Central America, the Portuguese colony of Brazil, the sugar producing islands of the Caribbean, West Africa, and the southern colonies in North America. The most prominent products were silver, sugar, tobacco, African slaves, and after 1800, cotton.

The North Atlantic World System relied heavily on the French, Dutch and English colonies in North America. By the beginning of the 18th century, conflicts between competing Europeans had intensified in that area. Along North America's eastern seaboard the British gained control of Dutch areas, and the French and British entered into a series of wars. The French and Indian War determined that British, rather than French ideas and institutions would dominate North America.

In the South Atlantic World System, slavery was crucial as a source of labour. The plantation system also became the main form of agricultural production in the South Atlantic system. The plantation system was particularly prominent in the sugar producing areas of the Caribbean islands and Brazil and in the southeastern colonies of mainland North America, where cotton and tobacco were important.

Around the world, in the Indian Ocean World System, British power was growing. The English East India Company, which had established a presence in India during the 1600's, had gradually taken over the entire Indian subcontinent. The Company accomplished this by hiring an Indian army, over seen by British officers, which was paid for with taxes collected from

Indians. This army formed the main British military weapon in Asia, until India achieved independence from Britain in 1947.

In the Indian Ocean World System, trade was primarily in spices, silk, and other luxury goods. This trade had existed for thousands, providing Asian countries with economies featuring large, sophisticated markets, credit systems, and manufacturing techniques. Before the Industrial Revolution of the 18th century, Europeans produced little that Asians wanted, so they were able to participate in the Indian Ocean World System only because they possessed a great deal of silver from America.

All these developments led to the emergence of Britain as the dominant economic and political power in the world. Left unchallenged on the seas, the British were often able to extend their power through informal influence without necessarily asserting formal political control, which would add administrative and defensive costs and responsibilities.

The push for informal influence became known as the imperialism of free trade. The British did not establish many formal colonies, but they controlled other nations in order to increase their economic power. Britain gained a great deal of informal power both in Asia and Latin America. Because Britain's power and influence were so vast, a popular saying was, "The sun never sets on the British Empire".

Negroes in Africa Transported to the New World

The Atlantic Slave trade developed after Europeans began exploring and establishing trading posts on the Atlantic (west) coast of Africa in the mid- 15th century. The first major group of European traders in West Africa were the Portuguese, followed by the British and the French. In the 16th and 17th centuries, these European colonial powers began to pursue plantation agriculture in their expanding possessions in the New World (North, Central and South America, and the Caribbean Islands), across the Atlantic Oceans. As European demand grew for products such as sugar, tobacco, rice, indigo, and cotton, and as

more New World lands became available for European use, the need for plantation labour increased.

West and west central African states, already involved in slave trading, supplied Europeans with African slaves for export across the Atlantic. Africans tended to live longer on the tropical plantations of the New World than did European laborers (who were susceptible to tropical diseases) and Native Americans (who were extremely susceptible to "Old World" diseases brought by the Europeans from Europe, Asia and Africa). Also, enslaved men and women from Africa were inexpensive by European standards. Therefore, Africans became the major source, and eventually the only source, of the New World plantation labour.

The Africans who facilitated and benefited from the Atlantic slave trade were political or commercial elites, generally members of the ruling apparatus of African states or members of large trading families or institutions. African sellers captured slaves and brought them to markets on the west. At these markets Europeans and American buyers paid for the slaves with commodities including cloth, iron, firearms, liquor, and decorative items that were useful to the sellers.

The Africans who were enslaved were mostly prisoners of war or captives resulting from slave raids. Africans captured in raids were marched down well-worn paths, sometimes for several hundred miles, to markets on the coast.

From the mid-15th to the late 19th century, Europeans and American slave traders purchased approximately 13 million slaves from west and west central Africa. Most were shipped across the Atlantic for sale in Portuguese- administered Brazil; the British, French, Dutch and Danish islands of the Caribbean; Spanish- controlled South and Central America; and British North American mainland (Later United States and Canada). About 65 percent of the slaves were brought to Brazil, Cuba, Jamaica, Saint Domingue (now Haiti), and other sugar colonies. Brazil alone received about 38 percent. North America got about 6 percent.

The slave trade took several triangular routes. Over one route, ships from Europe transported manufactured goods to the west coast of Africa. There, traders exchanged the goods for slaves. Next, the slaves were carried across the Atlantic Ocean to the West Indies and sold for huge profits. This part of the route was called the middle passage. The Atlantic crossing was night marish for slaves, who were poorly fed, subject to abuses at the hands of the crew, and confined to cramped storage holds in which diseases spread easily. Historians estimate that between 1.5 and 2 million slaves died during the journey to the New World.

Summary

Between the 14th and 17th centuries, Western Europe experienced great and rapid changes. Many of these changes were connected in some way with the rebirth of learning, or the Renaissance. So important was progress during the Renaissance that some historians used to say it marked the end of the Middle Ages and the beginning of modern times.

The movement which Luther started is sometimes called the Protestant Reformation, or more briefly the Reformation. When the Holy Roman emperor tried to crush it, there was widespread protest. Those who protested were called protestants. The Protestant movement split the Catholic Church into two, in the 16th century. Protestant leaders established various protestant churches. People who followed Luther's particular religious teaching were called Lutherans. The most dynamic and effective Protestant alternative to Luther's teachings was the teaching of John Calvin whose followers became known as Calvinists. The movement back to the Roman Catholic Church is called the Catholic Reformation or sometimes the Counter-Reformation.

By the 16th century, profound changes had taken place in the way of life which was common throughout Europe during the Middle Ages. Separate nations were becoming stronger under the rule of kings. These monarchs not only gained the

upper hand over feudal nobles but questioned the powers and privileges long claimed by the Church.

Voyages of exploration and discovery on a large scale took place in the 15th and 16th centuries with Portugal and Spain as leaders. The Dutch, the French and English followed in the 17th and 18th centuries. By the 19th century, the coasts and oceans of the world were well known and had been accurately put on maps. In the New World, discovery was very soon followed by colonial conquests.

Review Questions

I. Choose the correct answer

1. Identify the leading Christian humanists.
 - a) Petrarch and Boccaccio
 - b) Erasmus and More
 - c) Dante and Cervantes
 - d) Marlowe and Shakespeare
2. The fresco School of Athens was painted by
 - a) Raphael
 - b) Michelangelo
 - c) da Vinci
 - d) Giotto
3. The heart of Luther's belief was
 - a) the sale of indulgences
 - b) grace
 - c) justification by faith in Christ alone
 - d) good works
4. Which English ruler established Anglicanism?
 - a) Henry VIII
 - b) Edward VI
 - c) Mary I
 - d) Elizabeth I
5. In 1066, at the Battle of Hasting, the Anglo-Saxons were defeated by the
 - a) Normans
 - b) Vikings
 - c) Scots
 - d) Spaniards
6. Which English ruler had parliament pass a law declaring that the king not the pope, was supreme head of the Church of England?
 - a) Henry VII
 - b) Henry VIII
 - c) Edward VI
 - d) Elizabeth I
7. In Russia, which event took place first?
 - a) Polish invaders occupied Moscow

- b) Ivan the terrible killed his oldest son
 - c) Peter the Great assumed full power
 - d) Sophia, the sister of Ivan V, ruled as regent
8. The history of the rise of the Hohenzollern family is the history of
- a) Austria
 - b) Russia
 - c) Prussia
 - d) Holy Roman Empire
9. Which of the following was a consequence of the Hundred Years War (1337-1453) between France and England ?
- a) It weakened the powers of the nobility in both countries
 - b) It strengthened the central government in both countries
 - c) It marked the rise of French unity
 - d) All are possible answers
10. Which of the following leaders did much to encourage exploration?
- a) Prince Ferdinand of Aragon
 - b) Princess Isabella of Castile
 - c) Prince Henry of Portugal
 - d) Edward III of England

II. Match the items of column 'A' with their appropriates under 'B'

- | | |
|---------------------------|--|
| 1. Zemski Sobor | a) Discovered Brazil for Portugal |
| 2. Junkers | b) The Seven Year's War (1754-1763) |
| 3. □Factories□ | c) Land Council inside Russia |
| 4. Robert Clive | d) Conquered the Incas for Spain |
| 5. Cabral | e) Emperor of the Aztecs |
| 6. Tenochtitlan | f) Place to store and exchange goods in the eastern trade. |
| 7. Montezuma | g) A French explorer who founded Quebec |
| 8. Francisco Pizarro | |
| 9. Champlain | |
| 10. French and Indian War | |

- h) Hereditary aristocrats
inside Prussia
- i) He made British East India
Company master of
Southern India.
- j) Capital city of Aztecs