

## PERIOD 4: Global Interactions, c. 1450–c. 1750 C.E.

**Chapter 15** *Western Europe Extends Its Influence*

**Chapter 16** *The Americas in the Early Colonial Period*

**Chapter 17** *Africa in the Early Colonial Period*

**Chapter 18** *Russia Unifies and Expands*

**Chapter 19** *Islamic Gunpowder Empires*

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### Period Overview

The voyage by Christopher Columbus in 1492 that connected the Eastern and Western Hemispheres set off dramatic changes around the world. Europeans and Africans carried to the Americas plants such as sugar and rice as well as horses and other animals that transformed indigenous cultures. Most important, Europeans brought germs of diseases such as smallpox and measles that ravaged the native population. From the Americas, Afro-Eurasia received nutritious new plants such as corn, tomatoes, and potatoes that led to population growth, which in turn led to greater economic growth.

The technological innovations, such as the astrolabe and improved ship designs, that made Columbus's voyage successful also made transoceanic trade between Europe, Africa, and Asia easier. Through these links, Buddhism, Christianity, Islam, and Neoconfucianism spread to new regions, often blending with existing beliefs and traditions. For example, Latin Americans combined indigenous beliefs with Christianity. As belief systems spread, they often changed the relationships between men and women and family structures.

The expansion of global trade reshaped relationships among classes. Coerced and semi-coerced labor, including slavery in the Americas, serfdom in Russia and Japan, and the hacienda system in Latin America, spread. In many urban areas, a growing class of merchants and entrepreneurs emerged. The mixing of ethnic groups resulted in groups such as mestizos, mulattos, and creoles that had not been common in earlier history.

The increase in trade resulted in new states and empires. In West and Central Africa, trade-based states emerged. Along the coasts of Africa and South Asia, Europeans established webs of trading posts that were the beginnings of maritime empires. In the Americas, Europeans settled more widely, seizing more land. In China, South Asia, the Middle East, and Russia, land-based empires expanded.

The expanding connections among cultures and the increase in wealth created changes in the arts. For example, Europe experienced the Renaissance, a rebirth of interest in classical culture that resulted in impressive new styles in painting and sculpture. Miniature paintings became a highly regarded art form in the Middle East and South Asia. New forms of literature produced great writers, such as Shakespeare and Cervantes in Europe, as well as new forms of expression, such as kabuki theater in Japan.

### Key Concepts

#### 4.1. Globalizing Networks of Communication and Exchange

- I. In the context of the new global circulation of goods, there was an intensification of all existing regional trade networks that brought prosperity and economic disruption to the merchants and governments in the trading regions of the Indian Ocean, Mediterranean, Sahara, and overland Eurasia.
- II. European technological developments in cartography and navigation built on previous knowledge developed in the classical, Islamic, and Asian worlds, and included the production of new tools, innovations in ship designs, and an improved understanding of global wind and currents patterns—all of which made transoceanic travel and trade possible.
- III. Remarkable new transoceanic maritime reconnaissance occurred in this period.
- IV. The new global circulation of goods was facilitated by royal chartered European monopoly companies that took silver from Spanish colonies in the Americas to purchase Asian goods for the Atlantic markets, but regional markets continued to flourish in Afro-Eurasia by using established commercial practices and new transoceanic shipping services developed by European merchants.
- V. The new connections between the Eastern and Western Hemispheres resulted in the Columbian Exchange.
- VI. The increase in interactions between newly connected hemispheres and intensification of connections within hemispheres expanded the spread and reform of existing religions and created syncretic belief systems and practices.
- VII. As merchants' profits increased and governments collected more taxes, funding for the visual and performing arts, even for popular audiences, increased.

#### 4.2. New Forms of Social Organization and Modes of Production

- I. Traditional peasant agriculture increased and changed, plantations expanded, and demand for labor increased. These changes both fed and responded to growing global demand for raw materials and finished products.
- II. As new social and political elites changed, they also restructured new ethnic, racial, and gender hierarchies.

#### 4.3. State Consolidation and Imperial Expansion

- I. Rulers used a variety of methods to legitimize and consolidate their power.
- II. Imperial expansion relied on the increased use of gunpowder, cannons, and armed trade to establish large empires in both hemispheres.
- III. Competition over trade routes, state rivalries, and local resistance all provided significant challenges to state consolidation and expansion.

Source: AP® World History Course and Exam Description.

## Western Europe Extends Its Influence

*Paris is well worth a Mass.*

—Henry of Navarre, King of France (ruled 1589–1610)

The year 1453 is a useful starting date for the early modern period in European history. That year, Constantinople fell to the Turks and the Ottoman Empire became a major power. The mid-1400s saw the end of a wave of plagues, the conclusion of the Hundred Years' War between France and England, and the invention of the Gutenberg printing press followed by an increase in literacy. The Italian Renaissance was well underway by this time. The artist and inventor *Leonardo da Vinci*, painter of the *Last Supper* and *Mona Lisa*, was born in 1452, while fellow artist *Michelangelo*, painter of the ceiling of the Sistine Chapel in Rome and sculptor of the *David*, would be born in 1475. After the long, slow political and economic development of the Middle Ages and recovery from numerous challenges, several countries in Europe of 1453 were becoming hegemonic powers as increasingly wealthy nations launched major explorations and established colonies around the world.

Christianity, a dominant force in Western Europe, would split into many factions in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries. The quote above was attributed to French king *Henry IV*, often known as *Henry of Navarre*, after he converted to Catholicism for the sake of solidifying his throne. His action demonstrates the willingness of monarchs to think like the *Politiques*, moderates who approached ruling with practicality rather than theology. Henry IV's rule saw increasing emphasis on national sovereignty, which became more and more absolute in France until reaching a high point with Louis XIV (ruled 1643–1715). Henry IV also sanctioned religious toleration of the *Huguenots*, French Calvinists. The forms of government that developed in this period varied from the absolutism of France to parliamentary government in England.

Many important developments of the period 1450–1750 involved European expansion overseas. Two of these will be covered in Chapter 16: new maritime empires in the Americas and the establishment of the Columbian Exchange.

### Protestant Reformation

The Roman Catholic Church faced many challenges in the European shift from feudalism to nationalism. International in organization and influence,

and boasting a large bureaucracy of its own, the Church was also noted for corruption. Efforts to curb corruption resulted in numerous Church councils and reform movements, such as the *Cluniac Reforms* (950–1130). Efforts at reform, however, were unsuccessful.

Theological disagreements began to surface as well. *John Wycliffe* and the *Lollards* in England in the late fourteenth century argued that priests were unnecessary for salvation. Wycliffe was vilified for translating parts of the Bible into the English vernacular to make it available to the mass of believers, who neither read or understood Latin. The *Hussites*, followers of *Jan Hus* in Bohemia, were declared heretics for beliefs similar to Wycliffe's. Jan Hus himself was burned at the stake. *Huldrych Zwingli* in Geneva campaigned for a religion that would follow the exact teachings of the scriptures. He was opposed, for example, to such ideas as celibacy of the clergy because the rule was imposed long after the scriptures were written.

The power of the Church suffered during the so-called Babylonian Captivity (1309–1378), when the papacy was located in France rather than in Rome. The "Captivity" gave French rulers greater influence over the Church, even the ability to decide who should be pope. Newly centralizing rulers who coveted Church lands and authority began confiscating wealthy Catholic monasteries and sometimes established their own churches. In the eyes of believers, the Church suffered further when it failed to stop the Black Death. (Test Prep: Write a paragraph connecting the Reformation with the problems of the medieval Church. See pages 224–225.)

**Lutheranism** In 1517, *Martin Luther*, a monk in Wittenberg, Germany, a part of the Holy Roman Empire, presented his *95 Theses* to Church leaders at the university there. Luther objected to the sale of *indulgences*, which granted a person absolution from the punishments for sin. Along with theological interests, the Church had economic and political interests in continuing the sale of indulgences: the Church needed the money generated by the practice. Moreover, the Elector of Brandenburg needed money to maintain his position in the Holy Roman Empire. Luther also hoped to reform other abuses within the Church, such as *simony*, the selling of church offices. Pope Leo X excommunicated Luther in January 1521. Luther and his followers, who were known as Protestants because of their protests against Church practices, soon established a separate church, which became known as the Lutheran Church.

Luther was not a political revolutionary. He did not threaten to replace any government. Nor did he respond to pleas from German peasants to support their rebellions. He was a theological revolutionary. His ideas had social impact on the clergy, as well as on women. Lutheranism taught that women could have direct access to God just as men could and that women had significant roles in the family. However, Protestants generally did not organize convents. As a result, Protestant women did not have the opportunity to become leaders in convents the way Roman Catholic women did.

**Calvinism** The French theologian *John Calvin* broke with the Church around 1530. In 1536, he authored *The Institutes of Christian Religion* and helped reform the religious community in Geneva, Switzerland. *The elect*, those *predestined* to go to heaven, ran the community, which was based around plain living, simple church buildings, and governance by the elders of the church. Calvin's followers in France were called Huguenots. Other offshoots of Calvinism included the *Reformed Church of Scotland*, led by John Knox, and the *Puritans* in England and later in Boston, who wanted to purify the Church of England of Catholic remnants. Historian and sociologist Max Weber pointed out that an important socio-economic impact of Calvinism is contained in the phrase "Protestant work ethic." Calvinists were encouraged to work hard and reinvest their profits; prosperity ostensibly showed their position among the elect.

**Anglicanism** The last of the three major figures of the Reformation was the king of England *Henry VIII* (ruled 1509–1547). Henry wanted a male heir to succeed him. So after his wife gave birth to several daughters, Henry asked the pope's permission to annul his first marriage so he could marry another woman, *Anne Boleyn*. But the pope, worried about the reaction of the very powerful emperor of the Holy Roman Empire, *Charles V*, who was the nephew of Henry's wife, refused. Henry, with the approval of the English Parliament, went his own way by setting himself up as head of the new Church of England, or *Anglican Church*, one that would be free of control by the pope in Rome. Two of Henry's daughters, Mary Tudor and Elizabeth I, would later rule.

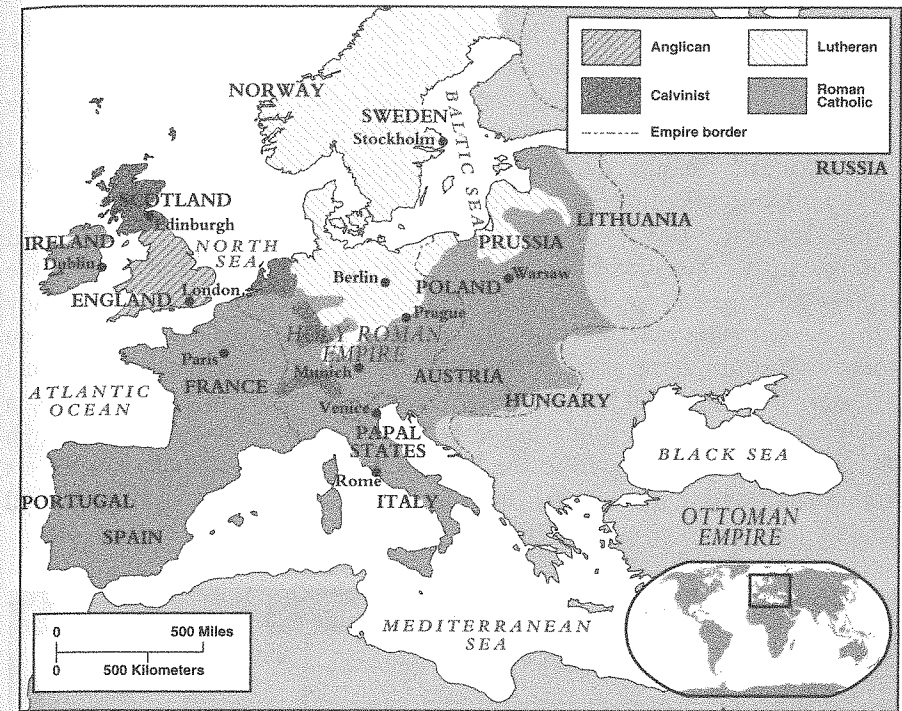
## Counter-Reformation or Catholic Reformation

The Roman Catholic Church, all-powerful in Europe since the fall of Rome, did not sit quietly by and let the Reformation groups take over. Instead, it embarked on a vigorous *Counter-Reformation* to fight against the Protestant attacks. A three-pronged strategy yielded such gains for the Church that it remains the largest Christian denomination in the world:

- The Church increased the use of the *Inquisition*, which had been established in the late twelfth century to root out and punish nonbelievers. The Inquisition sometimes allowed the use of torture to achieve its ends.
- The *Jesuits*, or Society of Jesus, a religious order founded in 1540 by Ignatius of Loyola, undertook missionary activity in Europe and abroad.
- The *Council of Trent* (1545–1563) corrected some of the worst of the Church's abuses and concentrated on reaffirming the rituals such as marriage and other sacraments improving the education of priests, and publishing the *Index of Prohibited Books*, writing that the Church considered dangerous to one's faith if read.

The Counter-Reformation was successful in that Catholicism remained predominant in the areas of Western Europe near the Mediterranean Sea. Moreover, later colonies of the European powers often followed the lead of the home country in religion. Therefore, most of the people in the Spanish, Portuguese, and French colonies became Catholic.

DOMINANT FAITHS IN WESTERN EUROPE IN 1560



Charles V abdicated as ruler of the Holy Roman Empire in 1555, discouraged by his inability to stop the spread of Lutheranism. He left Spain to his son *Philip II* and the Holy Roman Empire to his brother Ferdinand. Philip II took the Catholic crusade to the Netherlands and ruled its 17 provinces from 1556 to 1581. He later tried to conquer and convert England, but in 1588, English naval power, aided by bad weather, famously defeated his *Spanish Armada*.

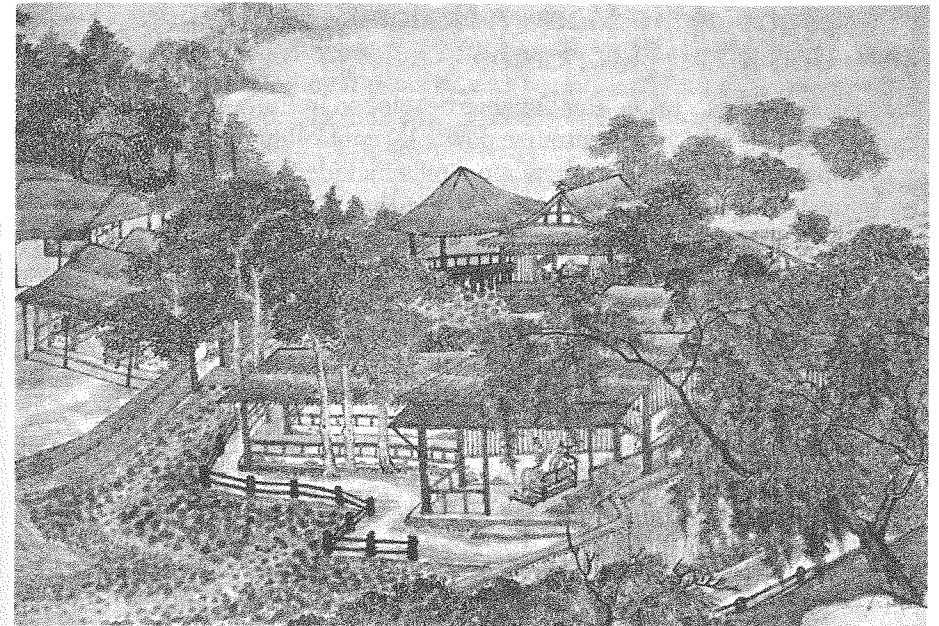
## Wars of Religion

Europe's growing religious diversity often led to wars. In 1546 and 1547, the forces of Charles V fought the German Lutheran *Schmalkaldic League*. This conflict resulted in the 1555 *Peace of Augsburg*, which allowed each German state to choose whether its ruler, and therefore its inhabitants, would be Catholic or Lutheran. Those subjects who did not wish to accept a ruler's choice of religion could move to another state where their preferred religion was practiced.

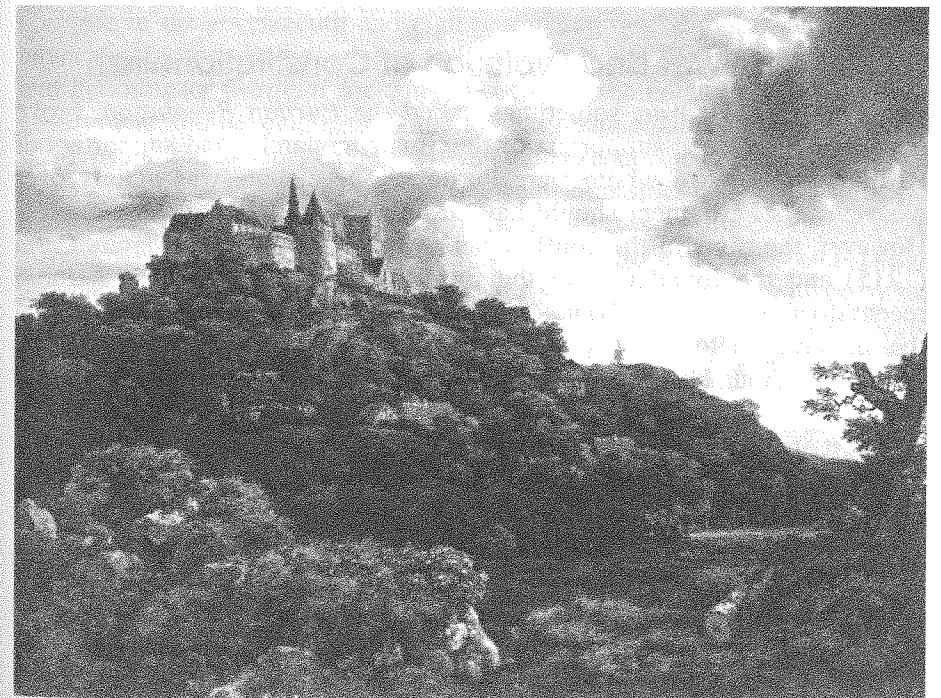
In France, meanwhile, the Catholic monarchy warred with the Huguenots for nearly half a century until Henry IV switched from Protestant to Catholic in 1593, evidently believing that "Paris is well worth a Mass." He became the first Bourbon on the French throne and, at least temporarily, granted religious tolerance in the 1598 *Edict of Nantes*.

The final great religious war was the *Thirty Years' War* (1618–1648), which involved most of Europe. The war culminated in the *Peace of Westphalia*, which allowed each area of the Holy Roman Empire to decide on one of three religious options: Lutheranism, Roman Catholicism, or Calvinism. The war led to economic catastrophe. Troops fighting in the war were compensated by being allowed to loot. The war also resulted in diseases and hunger, depopulating Bohemia, the Netherlands, and the Italian and German states. The war's conclusion in 1648 left the religious map of Europe much as it is today, with France, Spain, and Italy still predominantly Catholic; England with a Protestant state church; and the northern areas of Europe becoming either Lutheran or Calvinist. The treaty provision allowing rulers of various areas of the Holy Roman Empire to choose a denomination gave the countries and duchies much more political autonomy than they had had previously. Consequently, the states of Prussia (now part of Germany) and Austria began to assert themselves, although they still formally belonged to the Holy Roman Empire. Prussia began its reliance on a strong military partially in response to the devastation caused by the Thirty Years' War.

Religious Schisms			
Religion and Region	Schism	Leaders	Nature of Dispute
Buddhism in India	Theravada and Mahayana (around 300 B.C.E. to 100 C.E.)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Four councils held after the Buddha's death</li> </ul>	Disagreement between emphasis on personal meditation (Theravada) and public rituals and compassion (Mahayana)
Islam in Middle East	Sunni and Shia (632 C.E.)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Abu Bakr</li> <li>• Ali</li> </ul>	Disagreement over the rightful successor to Muhammad as leader of the Islamic community
Christianity in Europe and Byzantine Empire	Roman Catholics and Orthodox (1054 C.E.)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Pope Leo IX</li> <li>• Patriarch of Constantinople, Michael Cerularius</li> </ul>	Disagreement over the authority of the pope and differences in rituals
Christianity in Europe	Roman Catholics and Protestants (1517 C.E.)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Martin Luther</li> <li>• John Calvin</li> <li>• King Henry VIII</li> </ul>	Disagreements over the role of faith, the role of the clergy and the pope, and how to interpret the Bible



Source: Wikimedia Commons, Summer rest in the shadow of thatched houses, Wu Li / Szilas



Source: Wikimedia Commons / Bentheim Castle, Jacob Isaakszoon van Ruisdael, National Gallery of Ireland  
During the religious turmoil in Europe and political turmoil in China in seventeenth century, artists in both places (China, upper; Europe, lower) commonly portrayed scenes in nature.

## Emergence of the Modern Nation State Under New Monarchs

The *new monarchies* of the Renaissance developed in Europe as a result of the desire of certain leaders to centralize power by controlling taxes, the army, and many aspects of religion. The new monarchs included the Tudors in England, the Valois in France, and *Queen Isabella and King Ferdinand* in Spain. In each area, bureaucracies increased and the power of the middle class grew at the expense of lords and the churches. For example, the new monarchies moved to curb the private armies of the nobility.

By the end of the sixteenth century, this centralization coalesced into a system of government that led to absolute sovereignty in England and France. In England, the Stuart king *James I* (ruled 1603–1625) wrote *The True Law of Free Monarchy*, asserting that the monarch was free to make the laws—an assertion with which Parliament did not agree. In France, Henry IV (ruled 1589–1610) listened to his advisor *Jean Bodin*, who advocated the *divine right of the monarchy*, the claim that the right to rule was given to a king by God. These developments foreshadowed the developments of a national monarchy and the modern, centralized nation-state in these areas. Yet by the eighteenth century, Parliament predominated in England, and divine-right monarchy predominated in France until the French Revolution.

### English Civil War and Evolution of Constitutionalism

The *English Civil War*, sometimes called the *Puritan Revolution*, broke out in 1642 between supporters of the Stuart monarchy and supporters of Parliament, many of whom were Puritans. The dispute was mainly over what powers Parliament should have in relation to those of the monarch. However, the roots of the conflict can be traced back to the Magna Carta (1215) and the foundation of the English Parliament in 1265. A more recent document, the *Petition of Right* (1628), restated the proposition that the monarch could not levy taxes without Parliament's consent, imprison persons without charge, or quarter soldiers in a private home without permission. Although *Charles I* signed the document, he proceeded to ignore it and did not call a meeting of Parliament for 11 years. By 1642, he was at war with Parliament, a war in which he would lose both his throne and his head.

Although Parliament and its leaders *Oliver Cromwell* and his son Richard Cromwell were in the ascendancy during much of the Civil War, in 1660 a compromise was reached to allow for the return of the monarchy. *Charles II*, who had been in exile in France, became the new Stuart king.

His son, *James II*, succeeded Charles in 1685, resulting in a complete break with Parliament once again. Many in England feared that James II was about to convert to Catholicism and force the country to follow suit. In 1688, a group of lords invited *William and Mary*, the Protestant monarchs of the Netherlands, to become joint rulers of England. As a result of this event,

known as the *Glorious Revolution*, James II fled the country. In 1689, William and Mary signed the *English Bill of Rights*, which assured individual civil liberties. For example, legal process was required before someone could be arrested and detained. The Bill of Rights also guaranteed protection against tyranny of the monarchy by requiring the agreement of Parliament on matters of taxation and raising an army. Although the *Toleration Act of 1689* granted freedom of worship to non-Anglicans, the law said that the English monarch had to be Anglican since he or she would be head of the Church of England.

Both philosophers explored the idea of a *social contract*, an agreement under which people gave up some of their rights in exchange for the benefits of living in a community under the protection of a government. In *The Leviathan* (1651) Hobbes feared weak government. He emphasized the need for a government that was strong enough to protect people from each other. In *Two Treatises of Government* (1690) Locke feared excessive government. He emphasized the need for a government with enough restraints on it to protect people from tyranny. Locke argued that people had a right and even a duty to rebel against a government that broke the contract by going beyond its legitimate power.

### Absolutism Increases in France

In contrast to developments in England, the French government became more absolute in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries. Building on the ideas advocated by Jean Bodin, advisor to Henry IV, Louis XIII (ruled 1610–1643) and his minister *Cardinal Richelieu* moved to even greater centralization of government and development of the system of *intendants*. These intendants were royal officials sent out to the provinces to execute the orders of the central government. The intendants themselves were sometimes called “tax farmers” because they oversaw the collection of various taxes in support of the royal government. During the reign of the “Sun King,” *Louis XIV* (ruled 1643–1715), the intendants helped to implement the financial system put into place by his finance minister Jean-Baptiste Colbert. Among other reforms, Colbert sought to make French manufactured goods more competitive by creating the *Five Great Farms*, an area free from internal taxes.

Louis XIV strongly espoused a theory of divine right and ruled as a virtual dictator. His aims were twofold, just as those of Richelieu had been: he wanted to hold absolute power and expand French borders. Therefore, the spacious and elegant palace at *Versailles* became a political instrument where he entertained the nobles and kept them from conducting business elsewhere, such as fomenting rebellion in their home provinces. Like Peter the Great's city, Saint Petersburg, Louis XIV's grand buildings at Versailles helped to highlight his power. The palace at Versailles, for example, could accommodate hundreds of guests in its apartments and gardens. During the rule of Louis XIV, some ten thousand employees worked in the palace or on the grounds. Louis declared that he was the state: “L'etat, c'est moi.” He combined in a very real sense both the lawmaking and the justice system in his own person—he was absolute. In

the long run, his and his successors' refusal to share power with the nobility weakened the French government. (Test Prep: Create a table comparing Louis XIV and Peter the Great. See page 338.)

Desiring to expand the borders of France, Louis XIV reorganized his army to carry on a number of wars. For example, he gained the throne of Spain for the Bourbon family, thereby precipitating the *War of the Spanish Succession* (1701–1714). However, the *Peace of Utrecht* (1713) stipulated that the same person could not hold the thrones of France and Spain simultaneously. In paying for his wars, Louis XIV contributed to the economic problems of France—financial woes that contributed to the French Revolution of 1789. (Test Prep: Create a cause/effect chart linking the policies of Louis XIV to the French Revolution. See page 399.)

## Scientific Revolution

While the Renaissance was gradually ending in southern Europe around 1600, in the north scientific thinking was on the upsurge. For example, in 1620 English scientist and philosopher Francis Bacon developed an early scientific method called *empiricism*, which insisted upon the collection of data to back up a hypothesis. Science was helped by the correspondence of leading scholars with one another, even during the religious wars, and by the establishment of a *Royal Academy of Science* in France and England. *Sir Isaac Newton*, combining *Galileo's* laws of terrestrial motion and *Johannes Kepler's* laws of planetary motion, published a work on gravitational force called *Principia* (1687). The ideas in *Principia* impacted science and mathematics and helped lead to a new vision of the world. Many intellectuals thought that science showed that the world was ordered and rational and that natural laws applied to the rational and orderly progress of governments and society. This thinking is a key to the period of the Enlightenment.

**The Enlightenment** Leaving aside the old theological debates of *Scholasticism*, which concerned the relationship of faith to reason, the new debates turned on how best to apply reason to discover natural law and thus make infinite progress. Writers outside the scientific community, such as the *philosophes*, philosophers who popularized some Enlightenment ideals, worked to apply the principles to government and society. For example, the French writers Voltaire, Montesquieu, and Jean-Jacques Rousseau praised religious toleration and the English form of representative government; Denis Diderot edited a vast series of articles on science, the arts, and philosophy called the *Encyclopédie*. In America, such a philosophe was Benjamin Franklin, a writer and thinker who also dabbled in science. (To learn more about the Enlightenment period, see Chapter 21, “The Enlightenment, Nationalism, and Revolutions.”)

## Mercantilism, Early Capitalism, and Adam Smith

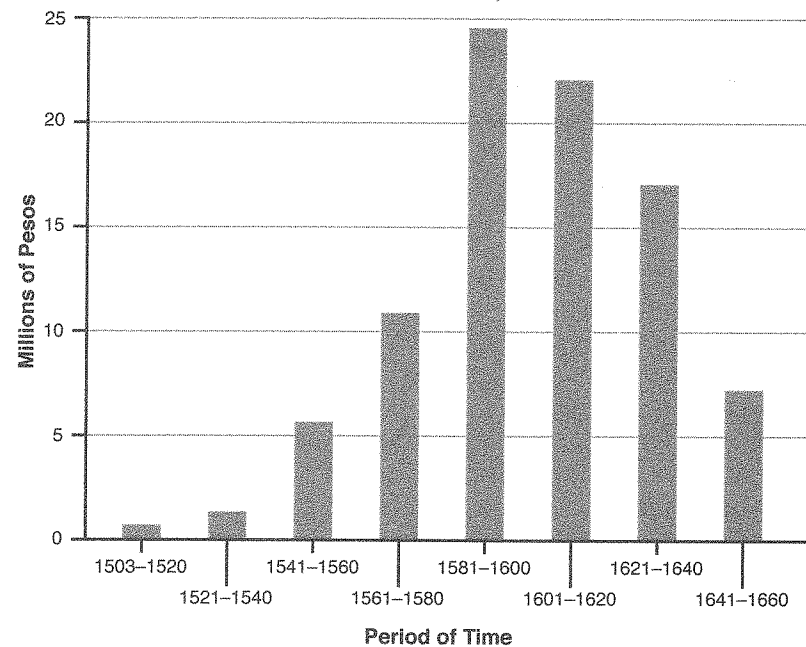
In the seventeenth century, Europeans generally measured the wealth of a country in how much gold and silver it had accumulated. Hence, countries set

policies designed to sell as many goods as they could to other countries—in order to maximize the amount of gold and silver coming into the country—and to buy as few as possible from other countries—to minimize the flow of precious metals out of the country. This theory, known as *mercantilism*, called for heavy government involvement in the economy.

The accumulation of *capital*, material wealth available to produce more wealth, in Western Europe grew as entrepreneurs entered long-distance markets. Some merchant families became bankers, including the Medici of Florence, Sforzas of Milan, and Fuggers of Augsburg. Some entrepreneurs, partly to escape guild regulations, took cloth to rural households for local women to make into garments, beginning the practice of “putting-out,” also known as *cottage industry*. Capital changed hands from entrepreneurs to laborers, putting laborers in a better position to become consumers. Despite restrictions by the Church, lending money at high rates of interest became commonplace. Actual wealth increased, too, as gold and silver were brought in from the Western Hemisphere.

Into this economic milieu of the eighteenth century stepped *Adam Smith*. Influenced by the new Enlightenment thinking and belonging to a group of economists called *physiocrats*, Adam Smith turned against mercantilism. In *The Wealth of Nations* (1776), Smith challenged the mercantilist belief that a nation's wealth should be measured by its accumulation of amount of gold and

SPAIN'S GOLD AND SILVER IMPORTS  
FROM THE AMERICAS, 1503-1660



Source: Earl J. Hamilton, “Imports of American Gold and Silver into Spain, 1503–1660.” *The Quarterly Journal of Economics*. 1929.

silver. Hence, the extensive government regulations to promote exports and discourage imports were misguided. Smith argued that freer trade and greater reliance on the laws of supply and demand would make everyone wealthier in the long run. He also believed that allowing people to follow their self-interest, with some limits, would enable the market to regulate itself as if guided by an “invisible hand.”

**Commercial Revolution** The *Commercial Revolution* that developed in the early modern period saw the transformation of commerce from local, small-scale trading mostly based on barter to large-scale international trade using gold and silver. The high rate of inflation, or general rise in prices, at this time is called the *Price Revolution*. The Commercial Revolution affected all regions of the world and resulted from four key factors: the development of European overseas colonies; the opening of new ocean trade routes; population growth; and inflation, caused partly by the pressure of the increasing population and partly by the increased amount of gold and silver that was mined and put in circulation.

Aiding the rise of this extended global economy was the formation of *joint-stock companies*, owned by investors who bought stock or shares in them. People invested capital in such companies and shared both the profits and the risks of exploration and trading ventures. The developing European middle class had capital to invest from successful businesses in their home countries. They also had money with which to purchase imported luxuries. The Dutch, English, and French all developed joint-stock companies in the seventeenth century, including the British *East India Company* in 1600 and the Dutch East India Company in 1602. In Spain and Portugal, however, the government did most of the investing itself through grants to certain explorers.

## Europeans in the Indian Ocean Trade Network

Demographic pressures were at least partly responsible for pushing Europeans into exploration and trade. As the population grew, not all workers in Europe could find work or even food. Not all sons of the wealthy could own land because *primogeniture laws* gave all of each estate to the eldest son. In the early seventeenth century, religious minorities searched for a place to settle where people were tolerant of their dissent. All of these groups, as well as those just longing for adventure and glory, were eager to settle in new areas, resulting in a global shift in demographics.

Europe was never totally isolated from East and South Asia. The Indian Ocean trade routes had long brought silk, spices, and tea to the Mediterranean by way of the Red Sea. Islamic traders had long known land routes from China to the cities of Baghdad and Constantinople and from there to Rome. In the sixteenth century, however, more and more Europeans became active in the Indian Ocean, with hopes of finding gold and new converts as their twin motives. This often competed with Middle Eastern traders from Oman and other kingdoms in the *Omani-European rivalry*. Christopher Columbus's

search for a new route to India was a way to avoid this competition. European traders would soon act as middlemen in the worldwide trade of sugar, tobacco, rum, and slaves across the Atlantic, while continuing to import silk, spices, and rhubarb from China and Southeast Asia. Spain, Portugal, Great Britain, France, and Holland established *maritime empires*, ones based on sea travel. Interestingly enough, the European traders in southeast Asia found themselves dealing with women. The markets, as well as money changing services, were traditionally handled by women.

New technology aided European seafarers in their explorations. Compasses developed by the Chinese replaced astrolabes. *Cartography*, or mapmaking, and knowledge of wind patterns also improved navigation. Ships moved more adroitly, aided by a new type of rudder, another idea imported from China. Newton's discovery of gravitation increased knowledge of the tides. The long-term result of combining navigational techniques invented in Europe with those from other areas of the world was a rapid expansion of exploration and global trade. About the only part of the Afro-Eurasia world not affected by the rapid increase in global trade was Polynesia, as it was far removed from trading routes.

The introduction of gunpowder, another Chinese invention, aided Europeans in their conquests abroad. Soon enough, however, sea pirates also used the new technology, particularly the Dutch pirates known as Sea Beggars.

**Portuguese in Africa and India** The small nation of Portugal, bounded as it was on the east by the Spanish kingdoms of Castile and Aragon, could expand only overseas. Its visionary ruler, *Prince Henry the Navigator* (1394–1460), became the first in a series of European royalty to sponsor seafaring expeditions, searching for an all-water route to the east as well as for African gold. Importation of slaves by sea began in this period, replacing the overland trans-Saharan slave route of earlier centuries. *Bartholomew Diaz* sailed around the southern tip of Africa, the Cape of Good Hope, in 1488. This was far enough into waters his crew did not know. Diaz feared a mutiny if he continued pushing eastward, so he returned home. *Vasco Da Gama* sailed farther east, landing in India in 1498, where he claimed territory as part of Portugal's empire. The Portuguese ports in India were a key step in expanding Portugal's trade in the Indian Ocean and with points farther east.

Early in the sixteenth century, the ruthless Portuguese admiral Afonso de Albuquerque won a short but bloody battle with Arab traders and set up a factory at Malaka in present-day Indonesia. He had previously served as governor of Portuguese India (1509–1515), sending strings of Indian ears home to Portugal as evidence of his conquests.

In the early sixteenth century, the Portuguese also travelled to Japan to trade, followed by Christian missionaries in 1549. They formed large Catholic settlements until the 1600s, when Japanese rulers outlawed Catholicism and expelled the missionaries.

**Spanish in the Philippines** Portuguese explorers such as Vasco da Gama were the first Western Europeans to reach the Indian Ocean by sea by going around the southern tip of Africa. Spanish ships, however, became the first to circumnavigate the globe when the government sponsored the voyage of *Ferdinand Magellan*. He died on the voyage in the Philippine Islands in 1522, but one of the ships in his fleet made it all around the world, proving definitively that the earth was round and could be circumnavigated. Spain annexed the Philippines in 1521 when Magellan's fleet arrived there. The Spanish returned in 1565 with strong forces and started a long campaign to conquer the Filipinos, who put up fierce resistance. *Manila* became a Spanish commercial center in the area, attracting Chinese merchants and others. Spain held on to the Philippines until the Spanish-American War in 1898. Because of the Portuguese and Spanish occupations, many Filipinos became Christians.

**Dutch in Indonesia** The Dutch arrived in India in 1595 and in Indonesia in 1619, using maps obtained from Portuguese sailors who had been there previously. The Dutch were soon competing with the British and French in the Indian Ocean region. Although the Dutch West India Company did not hold on to its North American colony after being forced out of New Amsterdam by the English in 1667, the Dutch East India Company was more successful in Asia. Both companies were dissolved in the 1790s.

**France vs. England** France and England continued to vie for dominance in North America. As English settlers moved into former Dutch territory in upper New York, the English began to form ties with the powerful Iroquois, who had been in conflict with the French over trade issues for decades. The English hoped that the Iroquois could frustrate French trade interests. Over time, the Iroquois began to realize that the English posed more of a threat than the French. In a shift of alliances, the Iroquois and French signed a peace treaty known as the *Great Peace of Montreal* in 1701. This alliance would lead in time to the hostilities of 1756–1763 known in North America as the French and Indian War and in Europe as the Seven Years' War.

**Trading Post Empires** British trading posts in India were typical of the way European nations operated in the era of European exploration in foreign countries. Taking advantage of the differences between Muslims and Hindus in India and having limited forces that prevented penetration much beyond the coastal areas at first, the British East India Company's strategy was to build a fort, maintain soldiers, coin money, and enter into treaties with local Indian powers. All of this activity fell under the company's charters from the British government. At first, these trading posts were established on India's two coasts and solely focused on turning a profit. Then, with the help of European-trained Indian private forces called *sepoys*, the East India Company moved inland, spreading its influence. Later, officials of the company became embroiled in local Indian politics. Ultimately, Britain intervened in India politically and militarily to such an extent that it eventually controlled much of the subcontinent.

Indian products flowing through the trading posts were spices, cotton, tea, indigo dye, and saltpeter. As commercial treaties were concluded with the local authorities, the *factors*, or governors, for the British East India Company trained Indians as helpers. Travel back and forth to Britain could take up to two years, so the British traders were very isolated. Nevertheless, great fortunes could be made.

*Thomas "Diamond" Pitt* provides one example of how some were able to advance themselves in the new global economy. At age 21, Pitt travelled to India and operated on his own, illegally, since the British East India Company claimed a monopoly on trade in that area. By 1702, Pitt was so wealthy and successful at trade that the company hired him. While in India, he purchased a diamond that later became worth more than £135,000 after he had it cut in Amsterdam and sold to the regent of France. Pitt, the grandfather of William Pitt, the Earl of Chatham and the man for whom the city of Pittsburgh is named, used his wealth from a post in India to help his family rise to social prominence.

By establishing trading posts in Indian cities, the tiny nation of Britain paved the way for globalization. Each post became a node, an intersection of multiple points serving as a trade center for goods from many parts of the world.

## Comparing Northwestern European Empires

The Netherlands, France, and England emerged as strong empires in the seventeenth century. They responded to similar challenges in distinct ways.

**Commerce and Economics** The Dutch were long the commercial middlemen of Europe, having set up and maintained trade routes to Latin America, North America, South Africa, and Indonesia. Dutch ships were faster and lighter than those of their rivals for most of the seventeenth century, giving them an early trade advantage. The Dutch East India Company was also highly successful as a joint-stock company. It made enormous profits in the Spice Islands and Southeast Asia.

Pioneers in finance, the Dutch had a stock exchange as early as 1602, and by 1609 the *Bank of Amsterdam* traded currency internationally. These developments placed the Dutch at the center of financial dealings in Europe. Their standard of living was the highest in Europe as such goods as diamonds, linen, pottery, and tulip bulbs passed through the hands of Dutch traders.

France and England were not so fortunate. Early in the eighteenth century, both countries fell victim to speculative financial schemes. Known as *financial bubbles*, the schemes were based on the sale of shares to investors who were promised a certain return on their investment. After a frenzy of buying that drove up the price of shares, the bubble burst and investors lost huge amounts of money, sending many into bankruptcy and inflicting damage to the economy at the same time.

In Britain, the crisis was called the *South Sea Bubble*, after the company that issued the shares. The British financial system was robust enough to absorb the shock of the crash and to avoid long-term economic impact. The same was not



true with the *Mississippi Bubble*, the bubble in France. The French financial system could not absorb the losses and the country found itself unable to get credit from Europe's major banking families. The result was an ever-growing French national debt, which eventually contributed to the French Revolution.

**Absolutist Control vs. Constitutionalism** The Dutch and the British operated under constitutional liberties that they assumed to be right and natural and which became the basis of constitutional law. While the British government was centralized, it was not absolutist. The Glorious Revolution assured that the central government operated with the approval of Parliament, providing a check against the absolute power of the monarch. In a similar way, the Dutch provinces maintained autonomy, even after they banded together to form the central government known as the Dutch Republic in the 1648 Treaty of Westphalia. The French, on the other hand, were firmly under the absolutist control of Louis XIV and his successors, who continued to maintain the Sun King's policies, although less successfully.

**Social Order** In the Netherlands and Britain, the nobility held power and took an active part in the government. The Dutch landowners provided the stable support for local provincial government and in England large landowners controlled Parliament, although they had to contend with radical religious sects and the middle class, two growing segments of the social order.

In France, on the other hand, the nobles were often ignored by the absolutist monarchs. The Estates General in France did not meet during the period 1615–1789. France suffered socially from the inability of the growing *Third Estate*, comprised of the vast majority of France's population, to gain representation in the government. The members of this Third Estate remained legally subordinate to the clergy and nobles.

**Growing Acceptance of Jews** Jews began to have a larger role in these countries starting in the seventeenth century. In previous centuries, they had been expelled from England (1290), France (1394), Spain (1492), and Portugal (1497), as well as various independent kingdoms and cities in northern and central Europe. The expulsion from Spain, by Ferdinand and Isabella, was particularly significant because so many Jews lived there. Jews from this area were known as Sephardic Jews.

Under the influence of the scientific revolution and the Enlightenment, old prejudices against Jews declined somewhat, and they began to move and settle more freely in Europe. They became particularly important in the banking and commercial sectors of the economy. The Netherlands was especially tolerant of religious dissent and the Jewish minority faced less discrimination there than in most of Europe.

### Comparing European States

	Holland and Britain	France
<b>Economic Trends</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Transoceanic trade flourished.</li> <li>• The government established overseas empires through East and West India companies.</li> <li>• Amsterdam emerged as Europe's financial center by 1609.</li> <li>• The government suppressed guilds in order to encourage national and international markets.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• The government instituted costly and inefficient tax policies.</li> <li>• Government established overseas empires.</li> <li>• King Louis XIV set up tax-free areas, the Five Great Farms.</li> <li>• The government signed trading agreements with Ottoman Empire after 1535.</li> </ul>
<b>Power Dynamics</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• The growing belief in natural rights limited the power of the monarchy.</li> <li>• The landed gentry was powerful.</li> <li>• The power of merchants increased.</li> <li>• The English Bill of Rights (1689) increased the power of Parliament and expanded the right of free speech.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Absolutist French monarchs feared the power of their Hapsburg neighbors: the Holy Roman Empire and Spain.</li> <li>• <i>Parlements</i>, 13 traditional law courts overseen by nobility, could veto legislation.</li> <li>• The full Estates-General did not meet between 1615 and 1789.</li> <li>• Intendants carried out functions of government.</li> </ul>
<b>Class System, Role of Nobility</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Religious toleration increased.</li> <li>• Social mobility increased as feudal systems declined.</li> <li>• The Dutch commercial class, burghers, often had more wealth than nobles.</li> <li>• In the English Parliament, the House of Commons allowed some middle class representation, generally from country gentry or lesser nobility. The House of Lords was dominated by clergy and royal nobility.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Ambitious bourgeoisie could rise socially by purchasing titles of nobility attached to land. People could also increase their status by being appointed to government positions.</li> <li>• The law established three estates: the clergy, the nobility, and everyone else.</li> <li>• The clergy were influential through annual financial grants to the monarchy.</li> </ul>

**HISTORICAL PERSPECTIVE: HOW DID WOMEN FARE IN EARLY MODERN EUROPE?**

Historians differ in assessing the progress made in women's rights during the early modern period of European history. Strong female rulers were an undeniable reality, including Elizabeth I (ruled England 1558–1603), Isabella of Castile (ruled in Spain 1479–1504), and Catherine de Medici (regent of France 1559–1589). Yet Shakespeare echoed most Renaissance writing when he had Hamlet declare, "Frailty, thy name is woman!"

Leading writers of the Protestant Reformation agreed with Martin Luther, who said in his 1532 work *Table Talk*, "No good ever came of female domination. God created Adam master and lord of all living creatures, but Eve spoiled it." Moreover, John Calvin, in his *Sermon #11*, admonished women "to be discreet, chaste, tarriers at home, good, subject to their husbands." Adding to the dismal prospects for women were the accusations of women's susceptibility to witchcraft. For example, the Dominican monk Heinrich Kramer, author of the widely used manual for witch hunters, *Malleus Maleficarum*, asked the rhetorical question, "Why is it that women are chiefly addicted to evil superstitions?"

Consequently, some historians today see the period as having "ambiguous implications for women" (Peter N. Stearns, et al. *World Civilizations*). In *A History of the Modern World*, R. R. Palmer points out a loss of opportunities for women with the decline of Roman Catholicism. The Church had provided positions of leadership in convents and inspired respect for women based on the position of the Virgin Mary in the Church. Some historians have further pointed out that although women spread the ideas of the Reformation, the Reformation did not markedly change their place in society.

Others have argued that opportunities for women in the early modern period began to increase because of the need for mothers to teach children to read the Bible. One popular textbook, *The Earth and Its Peoples* (Richard W. Bulliet, et al.), admits the lower status of women in the period but then adds that "recent research has brought to light the existence of a number of successful women who were painters, musicians, and writers. Indeed, the spread of learning, the stress on religious reading, and the growth of business likely meant that Europe led the world in female literacy."

**KEY TERMS BY THEME**

**STATE-BUILDING:  
HISTORICAL FIGURES**

Henry IV (Henry of Navarre)  
Henry VIII  
Anne Boleyn  
Charles V, Holy Roman Empire  
Philip II  
Queen Isabella and King Ferdinand  
James I  
Charles I  
Oliver Cromwell  
Charles II  
James II  
William and Mary  
Jean Bodin  
Cardinal Richelieu  
Louis XIV (the "Sun King")  
Prince Henry the Navigator

**STATE-BUILDING**

*Politiques*  
Spanish Armada  
Schmalkaldic League  
Peace of Augsburg  
Edict of Nantes  
Thirty Years' War  
Peace of Westphalia  
new monarchies  
English Civil War  
Puritan Revolution  
Petition of Right  
Glorious Revolution  
English Bill of Rights  
Toleration Act of 1689  
divine right of the monarchy  
intendants

Versailles  
War of the Spanish Succession  
Peace of Utrecht  
Parlements  
maritime empires  
Great Peace of Montreal  
sepoys

**CULTURE: RELIGION**

Huguenots  
Cluniac Reforms  
Lollards (John Wycliffe)  
Hussites (Jan Hus)  
Reformation  
Huldrych Zwingli  
Martin Luther  
*95 Theses*  
indulgences  
simony  
John Calvin  
the elect  
predestined  
Reformed Church of Scotland  
Puritans  
Anglican Church  
Counter-Reformation  
Inquisition  
Jesuits  
Council of Trent  
*Index of Prohibited Books*

**CULTURE**

Leonardo da Vinci  
Michelangelo  
Thomas Hobbes  
John Locke  
social contract

Francis Bacon  
empiricism  
Royal Academy of Science  
Sir Isaac Newton  
Johannes Kepler  
Galileo  
Scholasticism  
*philosophes*

**ECONOMICS**

Five Great Farms  
Bank of Amsterdam  
joint-stock companies  
mercantilism  
capital  
cottage industries  
Adam Smith  
physiocrats  
*The Wealth of Nations*  
laws of supply and demand  
Commercial Revolution  
Price Revolution  
East India Company  
Manila  
factors  
Thomas "Diamond" Pitt  
financial bubbles  
South Sea Bubble  
Mississippi Bubble

**SOCIAL STRUCTURES**

Third Estate  
primogeniture laws

**ENVIRONMENT**

Omani-European rivalry  
cartography  
Bartholomew Diaz  
Vasco Da Gama  
Ferdinand Magellan

## MULTIPLE-CHOICE QUESTIONS

- Which of the following was a common result of the Protestant Reformation and the Counter-Reformation?
  - Rulers in Europe became less interested in overseas conquests because of religious problems at home.
  - Catholicism was limited to countries that were located close to Rome.
  - Religion in European colonies tended to follow the religion of the home country.
  - Christianity declined in Europe as Judaism, Islam, and Buddhism gained new converts.

Question 2 is based on the following excerpt.

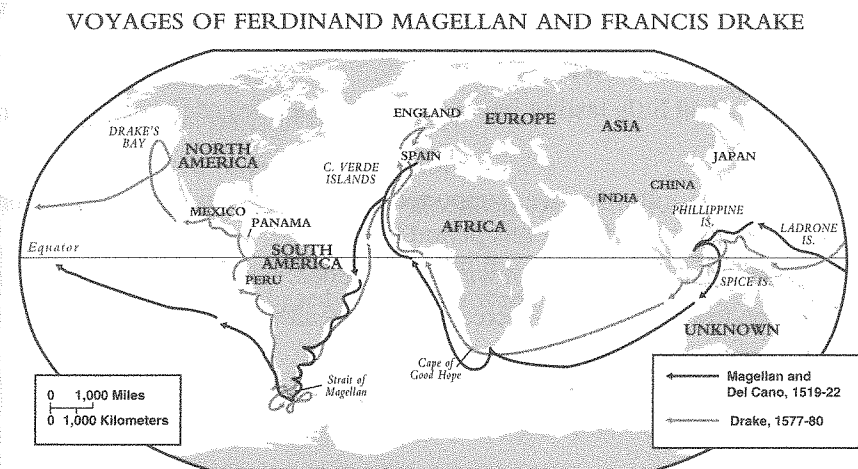
IV. We [Louis XIV] enjoin all ministers of the said R.P.R. [Reformed Church], who do not choose to become converts and to embrace the Catholic, apostolic, and Roman religion, to leave our kingdom and the territories subject to us within a fortnight of the publication of our present edict, without leave to reside therein beyond that period, or, during the said fortnight, to engage in any preaching, exhortation, or any other function, on pain of being sent to the galleys. . . .

—From *Revocation of the Edict of Nantes*, October 22, 1685

- Based on the excerpt, which choice faced people in France after the revocation of the Edict of Nantes?
  - Support King Louis XIV or join the Reformed Church
  - Leave France or convert to Catholicism
  - Join the Reformed Church or move to a territory
  - Become a preacher or be sent to the galleys
- What were the two main opposing forms of government that played roles in state consolidation and expansion of empire in Western Europe 1450–1750?
  - Mercantilism and capitalism
  - Lollardism and Puritanism
  - Direct democracy and military dictatorships
  - Constitutionalism and absolutism

- The Dutch were able to monopolize European overseas trade for most of the seventeenth century because they
  - had the largest maritime empire
  - had superior sailing technology
  - avoided using joint-stock companies
  - refused to lend money to foreign creditors
- What was the main difference between the way Spain and Portugal financed foreign investment and the methods used by other European countries?
  - Spain and Portugal followed the principles of mercantilism
  - Spain and Portugal were slow to adopt joint-stock companies
  - Spain and Portugal had the earliest international banking system
  - Spain and Portugal had more middle-class investors.

Question 6 is based on the following map.



- Magellan's and Drake's voyages differed from the Portuguese voyages of exploration in the late 1400s because they sailed
  - along the coast of Africa
  - westward from Europe to reach Asia
  - across the Indian Ocean
  - among the islands southeast of Asia

7. Which of the following was a result of the Thirty Years' War?
  - (A) William and Mary took over as rulers of England.
  - (B) Spain gained control of the Netherlands.
  - (C) Protestants lost power throughout Europe.
  - (D) The Holy Roman Empire became weaker.
8. Which of the following resulted from the English Bill of Rights of 1689?
  - (A) The monarch won the right to choose the state religion.
  - (B) The House of Commons had more rights than the House of Lords.
  - (C) Rights of Parliament severely limited the monarch's power.
  - (D) Women and men had equal rights in principle.
9. Which statement best describes European trading-post empires in this period?
  - (A) They were a profitable way for Europeans to maintain a presence in Asia and Africa.
  - (B) They required large numbers of European settlers to maintain control of foreign territories.
  - (C) They were more expensive to maintain than trade using overland trade routes such as the Silk Road.
  - (D) They had little lasting impact on the economies of Europe, Asia, or Africa.
10. Which of the following was supported by a policy of religious toleration in the Netherlands during this period?
  - (A) The central government was strengthened.
  - (B) Landowning nobility increased their wealth.
  - (C) The commercial class grew stronger.
  - (D) Peasants revolted against feudal landlords.

#### CONTINUITY AND CHANGE-OVER-TIME ESSAY QUESTIONS

Directions: You are to answer the following question. You should spend 5 minutes organizing or outlining your essay. Write an essay that:

- Has a relevant thesis and supports that thesis with appropriate historical evidence.
- Addresses all parts of the question.
- Uses world historical context to show continuities and changes over time.
- Analyzes the process of continuity and change over time.

1. Analyze continuities and change in government in England and France from 1000 to 1750.

#### Questions for Additional Practice

2. Analyze continuities and change in the role of any ONE of the following European nations in the Indian Ocean trade network from 1500 to 1750.
  - Portugal
  - Spain
  - Netherlands (the Dutch)
  - England
3. Analyze continuities and change in European economies from 1450 to 1750. Include details about overall policies and commercial institutions.

#### COMPARATIVE ESSAY QUESTIONS

Directions: You are to answer the following question. You should spend 5 minutes organizing or outlining your essay. Write an essay that:

- Has a relevant thesis and supports that thesis with appropriate historical evidence.
  - Addresses all parts of the question.
  - Makes direct, relevant comparisons.
  - Analyzes relevant reasons for similarities and differences.
1. Analyze similarities and differences in the economic structures of TWO of the following sea-based empires between 1450 and 1750:
    - Portugal
    - Spain
    - France
    - England

#### Questions for Additional Practice

2. Analyze similarities and differences in the development and impact on politics of TWO of the following Protestant denominations:
  - Lutheranism
  - Calvinism
  - Anglicanism
3. Analyze similarities and differences in the role of religion between the Thirty Years' War and the conflict between the Ottoman Empire and the Safavid Empire.

### THINK AS A HISTORIAN: PRACTICE INTERPRETATION

If an essay asks for an interpretation, you should explain how or why something happened. “Luther challenged Catholic practices” is not an interpretation. “Luther’s deep personal faith led him to challenge Catholic practices” is because it explains his motivation. *Which TWO of the following sentences would best introduce an interpretive essay?*

1. “Paris is well worth a Mass,” King Henry IV wrote in the sixteenth century, shedding light on how monarchs were newly willing to bargain and compromise, ruling with practicality rather than theology.
2. Martin Luther presented his “95 Theses” to Church leaders in Wittenberg, Germany, on October 31, 1517.
3. The final great religious war was the Thirty Years’ War (1618–1648), which involved the Netherlands, Denmark, Sweden, France, and Spain.
4. Diamonds, linens, pottery, and tulip bulbs—all of these passed through the hands of Dutch traders, who were able to succeed because of their seaworthy ships, strong financial institutions, and geographical location.

### WRITE AS A HISTORIAN: PROVIDE EXAMPLES

To make a generalization persuasive, support it with specific examples of individuals, locations, or events that demonstrate it. “Religious leaders were important” is a generalization. “Religious leaders such as Martin Luther and John Calvin were important in Europe in the sixteenth century” is more concrete and hence more powerful.

1. Select the TWO statements below that could best be used as examples in a paragraph about religious conflict in Europe during the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries.
  - a. One of the kings of France tried to bring peace between religious groups, but he was not successful.
  - b. The French Catholic monarchy battled the Huguenots for almost 50 years.
  - c. The German Lutherans and Catholics fought over their beliefs in the 1500s.
  - d. The European wars of the seventeenth century were terrible conflicts.
2. Select the TWO statements below that provide the best examples to use in a paragraph about the political developments in Western Europe in between the fifteenth and eighteenth centuries.
  - a. Several important documents helped balance the power between England’s Parliament and its monarchy.
  - b. The French government further consolidated its authority and gave less power to their citizens.
  - c. Writers such as John Locke and Thomas Hobbes commented on the ideas of government, which influenced the way powerful people ruled and what common people expected.
  - d. The English Bill of Rights, signed in 1689, paved the way for guaranteed individual liberties for the English people.