CHAPTER 13
WESTERN EURASIA 1200–1500

INSTRUCTIONAL OBJECTIVES

After studying this chapter students should:

1. Be able to describe and account for the success of the Mongol invasions of Western Eurasia, with particular reference to Iran and Russia.

2. Understand the effects of Mongol rule in the territories directly ruled by the Il-khan and the Golden Horde and be able to compare those with the effects of Mongol rule on peripheral areas including Mamluk Egypt, Lithuania, and Western Europe.

3. Be able to describe and give some examples of the way in which Islamic science and technology flourished under Mongol rule.

4. Understand the growth of trade and the effects of trade under the Mongols.

CHAPTER OUTLINE

I. The Rise of the Mongols, 1200–1260
   A. Nomadism in Central Asia
      1. Nomadic groups depend on scarce water and pasture resources; in times of scarcity, conflicts occur, resulting in the extermination of smaller groups and in the formation of alliances and outmigration. Around the year 1000 the lands inhabited by the Mongols experienced unusually dry weather with its attendant effects on the availability of resources and pressures on the nomadic Mongol tribes.
      2. Mongol groups were a strongly hierarchical organization headed by a single leader or khan, but the khans had to ask that their decisions be ratified by a council of the leaders of powerful families. Powerful Mongol groups demanded and received tribute in goods and in slaves from those less powerful. Some groups were able to live almost entirely on tribute.
      3. The various Mongol groups formed complex federations that were often tied together by marriage alliances. Women from prestigious families often played an important role in negotiating these alliances.
      4. The seasonal movements of the Mongol tribes brought them into contact with Manicheanism, Judaism, Christianity, Buddhism and Islam. The Mongols accepted religious pluralism. Mongol khans were thought to represent the Sky God, who transcended all cultures and religions; khans were thus conceived of as universal rulers who both transcended and used the various religions of their subjects.
5. Nomads strove for economic self-sufficiency, but they always relied on trade with settled people for certain goods, including iron, wood, cotton, grain, and silk. When normal trade relations were interrupted, nomads tended to make war on settled agriculturalists.

B. The Mongol conquests
1. Between 1206 and 1258 the Mongols conquered vast territories stretching from Korea to Hungary and Baghdad.
2. Historians have pointed to a number of factors that may have contributed to the Mongols’ ability to conquer such vast territories. These factors include superior horsemanship, better bows and the technique of following a volley of arrows with a deadly cavalry charge. Other reasons for the Mongols’ success include their ability to learn new military techniques, adopt new military technology, and incorporate non-Mongol soldiers into their armies; their reputation for slaughtering all those who would not surrender; and their ability to take advantage of rivalries among their enemies.

C. Overland trade and the plague
1. The Mongol conquests opened overland trade routes and brought about an unprecedented commercial integration of Eurasia. The growth of long-distance trade under the Mongols led to significant transfer of military and scientific knowledge between Europe, the Middle East, China, Iran, and Japan.
2. Diseases including the bubonic plague also spread over the trade routes of the Mongol Empire. The plague that had lingered in Yunnan (now southwest China), was transferred to central and north China, to Central Asia, to Kaffa, and from there to the Mediterranean world.

II. The Fall and Rise of Islam, 1260–1500
A. Mongol rivalry
1. In the 1260s the Il-khan Mongol Empire controlled parts of Armenia and all of Azerbaijan, Mesopotamia, and Iran. Relations between the Buddhist/shamanist Il-khan Mongols and their Muslim subjects were tense because the Mongols had murdered the last Abbasid caliph and because Mongol religious beliefs and customs were contrary to those of Islam.
2. At the same time, Russia was under the domination of the Golden Horde, led by Genghis Khan’s grandson Batu. Batu had converted to Islam and announced his intention to avenge the last caliph. This led to the first conflict between Mongol domains.
3. During this conflict European leaders attempted to make an alliance with the Il-khans to drive the Muslims out of Syria, Lebanon, and Palestine, while the Il-khans sought European help in driving the Golden Horde out of the Caucasus. These plans for an alliance never came to fruition because the Il-khan ruler Ghazan became a Muslim in 1295.

B. Muslims and the state
1. The goal of the Il-khan State was to collect as much tax revenue as possible, which it did through a tax farming system.
2. In the short term, the tax farming system was able to deliver large amounts of grain, cash and silk. In the long term, overtaxation led to increases in the price of grain, a shrinking tax base, and, by 1295, a severe economic crisis.
3. Attempts to end the economic crisis through tax reduction programs coupled with the introduction of paper money failed to avert a depression that lasted until 1349. Thus the Il-Khan domains fragmented as Mongol nobles fought each other for diminishing resources and Mongols from the Golden Horde attacked and dismembered the Il-khan
Eurasia. Timur’s descendants, the Timurids, ruled the Middle East for several generations.

C. Art and science in Islamic Eurasia
1. In literature, the historian Juwaini wrote the first comprehensive account of the rise of the Mongols under Genghis Khan. Juwaini’s work inspired the work of Rashid al-Din, who produced a history of the world that was published in a number of beautifully illustrated editions. Rashid al-Din, a Jew converted to Islam who served as adviser to the Il-khan ruler, was a good example of the cosmopolitanism of the Mongol world. The Timurids also supported notable historians including the Moroccan Ibn Khaldun (1332–1406).
2. Muslims under Mongol rulership also made great strides in astronomy, calendar-making, and the prediction of eclipses. Their innovations included the use of epicycles to explain the movement of the moon around the earth, the invention of more precise astronomical instruments, and the collection of astronomical data from all parts of the Islamic world and China for predicting eclipses with greater accuracy.
3. In mathematics, Muslim scholars adapted the Indian numerical system, devised the method for indicating decimal fractions, and calculated the value of pi more accurately than had been done in classical times. Muslim advances in science, astronomy, and mathematics were passed along to Europe and had a significant effect on the development of European science and mathematics.

III. Regional Definition in Response to the Mongols
A. Russia and rule from afar
1. After they defeated the Kievan Rus, the Mongols of the Golden Horde made their capital at the mouth of the Volga, which was also the end of the overland caravan route from Central Asia. From their capital the Mongols ruled Russia “from afar,” leaving the Orthodox Church in place and using the Russian princes as their agents. As in other Mongol realms, the main goal of the Golden Horde was to extract as much tax revenue as possible from their subjects.
2. Because Prince Alexander of Novgorod had assisted the Mongols in their conquest of Russia, the Mongols favored Novgorod and Moscow (ruled by Prince Alexander’s brother). The favor shown to Novgorod and Moscow combined with the Mongol devastation of the Ukrainian countryside caused the Russian population to shift from Kiev toward Novgorod and Moscow, and Moscow emerged as the new center of the Russian civilization.
3. Some historians believe that Mongol domination had a negative effect on Russia, bringing economic depression and cultural isolation. Other historians argue that the Kievan state was already declining when the Mongols came, that the over-taxation of Russians under Mongol rule was the work of the Russian princes, that Russia was isolated by the Orthodox church, and that the structure of Russian government did not change appreciably under Mongol rule.
4. Ivan III, the prince of Moscow, ended Mongol rule in 1480 and adopted the title of tsar.
5. In both the Middle East and in Russia, Mongol domination caused the downfall of formerly dominant cities (Kiev and Baghdad) and the rise of new centers of regional power. In Russia and in the Middle East Mongol rule left the local religion (Orthodox Christianity and Islam) in place and contributed to the development of more centralized governments.

B. Social change and centralization in Europe and Anatolia
1. Europe was divided between the political forces of the papacy and those of the Holy Roman Emperor Frederick II. Under these conditions, the states of Eastern Europe—
2. The Mongol armies that attacked Europe were actually an international force including Mongols, Turks, Chinese, Iranians, and Europeans and led by Mongol generals. The well-led “Mongol” armies drove to the outskirts of Vienna, striking fear into the hearts of the Europeans; but rather than press on, the Mongols withdrew in December 1241 so that the Mongol princes could return to Mongolia to elect a successor to the recently deceased Great Khan Ogodei.

3. After the Mongol withdrawal, Europeans initiated a variety of diplomatic and trade overtures toward the Mongols. Contact between Europeans and Mongols increased through the thirteenth century and brought knowledge of geography, natural resources, commerce, science, technology and mathematics from various parts of the Mongol realms to Europe. At the same time, the Mongol invasions and the bubonic plague caused Europeans to question their accepted customs and religious beliefs.

4. The rise and fall of Mongol domination in the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries was accompanied by the rise of stronger centralized states including Lithuania and the various Balkan kingdoms. Lithuania in particular was able to capitalize on the decline of Mongol power to assert control over its neighbors, particularly Poland.

5. During the period of Mongol domination Anatolia functioned as a route by which Islamic culture was transferred to Europe via Constantinople. The Ottomans, who established themselves in eastern Anatolia in the 1300s but were kept in check by the Timurids, expanded eastward in the 1400s and conquered Constantinople in 1453. They renamed the city Istanbul and created their own imperial capital there.

C. Stabilization of Mamluk rule in Egypt

1. The Mamluk State in Egypt became stronger and more centralized in its struggles against the Mongols. The Mamluks campaigned against the Il-khans, the Crusaders, and the Assassins; took over Syria; and became supporters of Sunni Islam.

2. Mamluk society was cosmopolitan, ethnically diverse, and involved in trade with the Crimea. Trade with the Crimea brought the plague to Mamluk lands, where it lingered into the modern period.

IV. Conclusion

A. The Mongols benefited from their ability to adapt technologies and employ non-Mongol people and from their willingness to give regional commanders the freedom to innovate.

B. One of the overall effects of the Mongol conquests was to stimulate a greater degree of identity among the peoples who were subject to Mongol domination. The areas under direct Mongol domination achieved this strengthened identity, but also suffered poverty, backwardness, and isolation.

C. The areas on the periphery of the Mongol domains did not only develop stronger regional identities: they also reaped the benefits of greater trade and exchange of ideas and technologies.

DISCUSSION QUESTIONS

1. What factors made the Mongols able to conquer and maintain their hold on such a large amount of territory?

2. How did the effects of Mongol domination differ in Russia and in the Muslim lands? How were they similar?

3. What effects did the Mongols have on the lands that lay on the periphery of their territories?
CHAPTER 14

EASTERN EURASIA, 1200–1500

INSTRUCTIONAL OBJECTIVES

After studying this chapter students should:

1. Be able to describe and analyze the effects of Mongol aggression throughout Eastern Eurasia, and the effects of Mongol rule on China.

2. Understand and be able to discuss the significance of the Zheng He voyages.

3. Be able to describe and explain the relationship between China's technological stagnation and its economic growth in the early Ming period.

4. Be able to describe and compare the development of political and technological development of Korea, Japan, and Vietnam between 1200 and 1500.

CHAPTER OUTLINE

I. Mongol Domination in Eastern Eurasia, 1200–1368
   A. The Mongol conquests, 1206–1279
      1. Between 1206 and 1234 the Mongols conquered all of North China and were threatening the Southern Song. During this period and onward to about 1265 the Mongol realms were united as the khan of the Golden Horde, the Jagadai domains of Central Asia, and the Il-khans all recognized the authority of the Great Khan in Mongolia.

      2. When Kublai declared himself Great Khan in 1265 the other Mongol khans refused to accept him; the Jagadai Khanate harbored a particular animosity toward Kublai.

      3. Kublai founded the Yuan Empire with its capital at Beijing in 1271; in 1279 he conquered the Southern Song. After 1279, the Yuan attempted to extend its control to Southeast Asia. Annam and Champa were forced to pay tribute to the Yuan, but an expedition to Java ended in failure.

      4. Kublai communicated with Daoist and Buddhist religious leaders in China and Tibet. The Tibetan Buddhist leaders exercised real influence over the Mongol leaders and the Great Khan reinforced the temporal powers of the Tibetan lamas.

   B. The Yuan Empire, 1279–1368
      1. Kublai Khan understood and practiced Chinese traditions of government. He constructed a Chinese-style capital at Beijing and a summer capital at Shangdu, where he and his courtiers could practice riding and shooting.
2. When the Mongols came to China, it was politically fragmented, consisting of four states: the Tangut, the Jin, the Southern Song, and Nanzhao. The Mongols unified these four states and restored or preserved the characteristic features of Chinese government.

3. The Mongols also made some innovations in government. These included tax farming, the use of Western Asian Muslims as officials, and a hierarchical system of legally defined status groups defined in terms of race and function. Under the Yuan hierarchical system Confucians had a relatively weak role, while the status of merchants and doctors was elevated.

4. Under Mongol rule China’s cities and ports prospered, trade recovered, and merchants flourished. Merchants organized corporations in order to pool money and share risks. The flourishing mercantile economy led the Chinese gentry elite to move into the cities, where a lively urban culture of popular entertainment, vernacular literature, and the Mandarin dialect of Chinese developed.

5. In the rural areas, cotton growing, spinning, and weaving were introduced to mainland China from Hainan Island and the Mongols encouraged the construction of irrigation systems. In general, however, farmers in the Yuan were overtaxed and brutalized while dams and dikes were neglected.

6. During the Yuan period China’s population declined by perhaps as much as 40 percent, with northern China seeing the greatest loss of population, while the Yangzi Valley actually saw a significant increase. Possible reasons for this pattern include warfare, the flooding of the Yellow River, north-south migration, and the spread of diseases, including the bubonic plague in the 1300s.

C. Scientific exchange
1. Exchange of scientific, technological, and mathematical knowledge was especially common between Iran and China, as the Yuan and the Il-khan regimes enjoyed good relations and had similar economic policies and a similar interest in sponsoring intellectual pursuits. China imported Il-khan science and technology; the Il-khans imported Chinese scholars and texts.

2. During this period Iranian astronomical knowledge, algebra and trigonometry, and Islamic and Persian medical texts, seeds, and formulas were brought to China.

D. Dispersal of the Mongols
1. In 1368 the Chinese leader Zhu Yuanzhang brought an end to years of chaos and rebellion when he overthrew the Mongols and established the Ming Empire. The Mongols continued to hold power in Mongolia, Turkestan, and Central Asia, from which they were able to disrupt the overland Eurasian trade and threaten the Ming dynasty.

2. The Ming Empire was also threatened on its northeastern borders by the Jurchens of Manchuria. The Jurchens, who had been influenced by Mongolian culture, posed a significant threat to the Ming by the late 1400s.

II. The Early Ming Empire, 1368–1500
A. Ming China on a Mongol foundation
1. Former monk, soldier and bandit Zhu Yuanzhang established the Ming Empire in 1368. Zhu’s regime established its capital in Nanjing and made great efforts to reject the culture of the Mongols, close off trade relations with Central Asia and the Middle East, and to reassert the primacy of Confucian ideology.

2. At a deeper level, the Ming actually continued many institutions and practices that had been introduced during the Yuan. Areas of continuity include the Yuan provincial structure, the use of hereditary professional categories, the Mongol calendar and, starting with the reign of the Yongle emperor, the use of Beijing as capital.
missions were to reestablish trade links with the Middle East and bring Southeast Asian countries and their overseas Chinese populations under Chinese control, or at least under its influence.

4. Zheng He's expeditions retraced routes that were largely known to the Chinese already. The voyages imported some luxury goods (including two giraffes) to China and added as many as fifty countries to China's list of tributaries. However, there was not significant increase in long-distance trade and the voyages were, overall, not profitable.

5. Many historians wonder why the voyages ceased and whether or not China could have gone on to become a great mercantile power or acquire an overseas empire. In answering this question it is useful to remember that the Zheng He voyages did not use new technology, they were not profitable, and they were undertaken as the personal project of the Yongle Emperor, and may have been inspired partly by his need to prove his worth.

6. The end of the Zheng He voyages may also be related to the need to use limited resources for other projects, including coastal defense against Japanese pirates and defense of the northern borders against the Mongols. The end of the Zheng He voyages was not the end of Chinese seafaring: it was only the end of the state's organization and funding of such large-scale expeditions.

B. Technology and population
1. The Ming saw less technological innovation than the Song; in the area of metallurgy, the Chinese lost the knowledge of how to make high-quality bronze and steel. Reasons for the slowdown in technological innovation include the high cost of metals and wood, the revival of a civil service examination system that rewarded scholarship and administration, a labor glut, lack of pressure from technologically sophisticated enemies, and a fear of technology transfer.


C. The Ming achievement
1. The Ming was a period of great wealth, consumerism, and cultural brilliance accompanied by an increase in litigation.

2. One aspect of Ming popular culture was the development of vernacular novels like Water Margin and Romance of the Three Kingdoms. The Ming was also known for its porcelain making and for other goods including furniture, lacquered screens, and silk.

III. Centralization and Militarism in East Asia, 1200–1500
A. Korea from the Mongols to the Yi, 1231–1500
1. Korea's leaders initially resisted the Mongol invasions but gave up in 1258 when the king of Koryo surrendered and joined his family to the Mongols by marriage. The Koryo kings then fell under the influence of the Mongols and Korea profited from exchange with the Yuan in which new technologies including cotton, gunpowder, astronomy, calendar making, and celestial clocks were introduced.

2. Koryo collapsed shortly after the fall of the Yuan and was replaced by the Yi dynasty. Like the Ming, the Yi reestablished local identity and restored the status of Confucian scholarship while maintaining Mongol administrative practices and institutions.

3. Technological innovations of the Yi period include the use of movable type in copper frames, meteorological science, a local calendar, the use of fertilizer, and the engineering of reservoirs. The growing of cash crops, particularly cotton, became common during the Yi period.

4. The Koreans were innovators in military technology. Among their innovations were patrol ships with cannon mounted on them, gunpowder arrow-launchers, and armored ships.
B. Political transformation in Japan, 1274–1500
1. The first (unsuccessful) Mongol invasion of Japan in 1274 made the decentralized local lords of Kamakura Japan develop a greater sense of unity as the shogun took steps to centralize planning and preparation for the expected second assault.
2. The second Mongol invasion (1281) was defeated by a combination of Japanese defensive preparations and a typhoon. The Kamakura regime continued to prepare for further invasions. As a result, the warrior elite consolidated their position in Japanese society, trade and communication within Japan increased, but the Kamakura government found its resources strained by the expense of defense preparations.
3. The Kamakura shogunate was destroyed in a civil war and the Ashikaga shogunate was established in 1338. The Ashikaga period was characterized by a relatively weak shogunal state and strong provincial lords who sponsored the development of markets, religious institutions, schools, increased agricultural production, and artistic creativity.
4. After the Onin war of 1477, the shogunate exercised no power and the provinces were controlled by independent regional lords who fought with each other. The regional lords also carried out trade with continental Asia.

C. The emergence of Vietnam, 1200–1500
1. The area of Vietnam was divided between two states: the Chinese-influenced Annam in the north and the Indian-influenced Champa in the south. The Mongols extracted tribute from both states, but with the fall of the Yuan Empire, they began to fight with each other.
2. The Ming ruled Annam through a puppet government for almost thirty years in the early fifteenth century until the Annamese threw off Ming control in 1428. By 1500 Annam had completely conquered Champa and established a Chinese-style government over all of Vietnam.

IV. Conclusion
A. Mongol rule consolidated China, standardized the Chinese elite, benefited the urban areas, and brought in new technological and scientific knowledge. On the other hand, Mongol rule was bad for the Chinese countryside.
B. During the Ming Empire China saw increasing population and tremendous economic growth, but little technological innovation.
C. Mongol domination encouraged commercial growth and technological innovation in Koryo, and introduced technologies that were further developed under the Yi.
D. In Japan, the Mongol threat strengthened the position of the warrior elite, and renewed trade after the fall of the Mongols acted as a strong economic stimulus.
E. In Vietnam, the Annamese struggle against Chinese domination succeeded and then continued in the subjugation of Champa and the unification of Vietnam.

DISCUSSION QUESTIONS
1. How do the effects of Mongol rule on China compare with the effects of Mongol rule on Russia?
2. What might be the causes of the collapse of Mongol rule in China?
3. How and why did the Ming economy develop from 1368 through 1500?
4. What effects did Mongol actions and Ming economic development have on Korea, Japan, and Vietnam?
CHAPTER 15
TROPICAL AFRICA AND ASIA, 1200–1500

INSTRUCTIONAL OBJECTIVES

After studying this chapter students should:

1. Be able to identify the location and fundamental environmental characteristics of the tropics and its environmental zones including arid areas, rain forests, river valleys, savannas, plateaus, and mountainous regions and explain how people made their livings in these various environmental zones.

2. Be able to identify and compare the two Islamic empires of Mali and the Delhi Sultanate.

3. Be able to describe the Indian Ocean trade and to identify the roles played in that trade by the Swahili city-states, Aden, Gujarat and the Malabar Coast, and Malacca.

4. Understand and be able to give concrete examples of the ways in which trade and the spread of Islam changed the societies and cultures of places connected to each other through the trans-Saharan and Indian Ocean trade networks.

CHAPTER OUTLINE

I. Tropical Lands and Peoples
   A. The tropical environment
      1. The tropical zone falls between the Tropic of Cancer in the north and the Tropic of Capricorn in the south. The Afro-Asian tropics have a cycle of rainy and dry seasons dictated by the alternating winds known as monsoons.
      2. While those parts of the tropics such as coastal West Africa, west-central Africa, and southern India get abundant rainfall, there is also an arid zone extending across northern Africa (the Sahara) and northwest India, and another arid zone in southwestern Africa. Altitude also affects climate, with high-altitude mountain ranges and plateaus having cooler weather and shorter growing seasons than the low-altitude coastal plains and river valleys. Major rivers bring water from these mountains to other areas.
   B. Human ecosystems
      1. Human societies adopted different means of surviving in order to fit into the different ecological zones found in the tropics. In areas such as central Africa, the upper altitudes of the Himalayas and some seacoasts, wild food and fish was so abundant that human societies thrived without having developed agricultural or herding economies.
      2. Human communities in the arid areas of the tropics relied on herding and supplemented their diets with grain and vegetables obtained through trade with settled agriculturalists.
The vast majority of the people of the tropics were farmers who cultivated various crops (rice, wheat, sorghum millet, etc.) depending on the conditions of soil, climate, and water.

3. In those parts of South and Southeast Asia that had ample water supplies, intensive agriculture transformed the environment and supported dense populations. In most parts of sub-Saharan Africa and many parts of Southeast Asia, farmers abandoned their fields every few years and cleared new areas by cutting and burning the natural vegetation.

C. Water systems and irrigation
1. The tropics have an uneven distribution of rainfall during the year. In order to have year-round access to water for intensive agriculture, tropical farming societies constructed dams, irrigation canals, and reservoirs.
2. In India, Cambodia, and Sri Lanka, governments mobilized vast resources to construct and maintain large irrigation and water-control projects. Such huge projects increased production, but they were highly vulnerable to natural disasters and political disruptions. In contrast, the smaller irrigation systems constructed at the village level were easier to reconstruct and provided greater long-term stability.

D. Mineral resources
1. Tropical peoples used iron for agricultural implements, weapons, and needles. Copper, particularly important in Africa, was used to make wire and decorative objects. Africa was also known for its production of gold.
2. Metalworking and food-producing systems mobilized the labor of ordinary people in order to produce surpluses that in places supported powerful states and profitable commercial systems. Neither of those elite enterprises would have been possible without the work of ordinary people.

II. New Islamic Empires
A. Mali in the Western Sudan
1. Islam spread to sub-Saharan Africa by a gradual process of peaceful conversion. Conversion was facilitated by commercial contacts.
2. In 1240 Sundiata (the Muslim leader of the Malinke people) established the kingdom of Mali. Mali's economy rested on agriculture and was supplemented by control of regional and trans-Saharan trading routes and by control of the gold mines of the Niger headwaters.
3. The Mali ruler Mansa Kankan Musa (r. 1312–1337) demonstrated his fabulous wealth during a pilgrimage to Mecca. When he returned to Mali, Mansa Musa established new mosques and Quranic schools.
4. The kingdom of Mali declined and collapsed in the mid- to late fifteenth century because of rebellions from within and attacks from without. Intellectual life and trade moved to other African states including the Hausa states and Kanem-Bornu.

B. The Delhi Sultanate in India
1. Between 1206 and 1236 the divided states of northwest India were defeated by violent Muslim Turkish conquerors under the leadership of Sultan IIutmish, who established the Delhi Sultanate as a Muslim state. Although the Muslim elite then settled down to rule India relatively peacefully, their Hindu subjects never forgave the violence of the conquest.
2. IIutmish passed his throne on to his daughter, Razia. Razia was a talented ruler, but she was driven from office by men unwilling to accept a female monarch. Under Alauddin (r. 1296–1316) and Muhammad ibn Tughluq (r. 1325–1351), the Delhi Sultanate carried out a policy of aggressive territorial expansion that was accompanied (in the case of Tughluq) by a policy of religious toleration toward Hindus—a policy that was reversed by Tughluq's successor.
3. In general, the Delhi sultans ruled by terror and were a burden on their subjects. In the mid-fourteenth century internal rivalries and external threats undermined the stability of the Sultanate. The Sultanate was destroyed when Timur sacked Delhi in 1398.

III. Indian Ocean Trade

A. Monsoon mariners

1. The Indian Ocean trade increased between 1200 and 1500, stimulated by the prosperity of Latin Europe, Asian, and African states and, in the fourteenth century, by the collapse of the overland trade routes.

2. In the Red and Arabian Seas, trade was carried on dhows. From India on to Southeast Asia, junks dominated the trade routes.

3. Junks were technologically advanced vessels, having watertight compartments, up to twelve sails, and carrying cargoes of up to 1,000 tons. Junks were developed in China, but during the fifteenth century, junks were also built in Bengal and Southeast Asia and sailed with crews from those places.

4. The Indian Ocean trade was decentralized and cooperative, with various regions supplying particular goods. In each region a certain port functioned as the major emporium for trade in which goods from smaller ports were consolidated and shipped onward.

B. Africa: the Swahili Coast and Zimbabwe

1. By 1500, there were thirty or forty separate city-states along the East African coast participating in the Indian Ocean trade. The people of these coastal cities, the “Swahili” people, all spoke an African language enriched with Arabic and Persian vocabulary.

2. Swahili cities including Kilwa were famous as exporters of gold that was mined in or around the inland kingdom whose capital was Great Zimbabwe.

3. Great Zimbabwe’s economy rested on agriculture, cattle herding, and trade. The city declined due to an ecological crisis brought on by deforestation and overgrazing.

C. Arabia: Aden and the Red Sea

1. Aden had enough rainfall to produce wheat for export and a location that made it a central transit point for trade from the Persian Gulf, East Africa, and Egypt. Aden’s merchants prospered on this trade and built what appeared to travelers to be a wealthy and impressive city.

2. In general, a common interest in trade allowed the various peoples and religions of the Indian Ocean basin to live in peace. Violence did sometimes break out, however, as when Christian Ethiopia fought with the Muslims of the Red Sea coast over control of trade.

D. India: Gujarath and the Malabar Coast

1. The state of Gujarath prospered from the Indian Ocean trade, exporting cotton textiles and indigo in return for gold and silver. Gujarath was not simply a commercial center: it was also a manufacturing center that produced textiles, leather goods, carpets, silk, and other goods. Gujarath’s overseas trade was dominated by Muslims, but Hindus also benefited.

2. Calicut and other cities of the Malabar Coast exported cotton textiles and spices and served as clearing-houses for long-distance trade. The cities of the Malabar Coast were unified in a loose confederation whose rulers were tolerant of other religious and ethnic groups.

E. Southeast Asia: the rise of Malacca

1. The Strait of Malacca is the principal passage from the Indian Ocean to the South China Sea. In the fourteenth century a gang of Chinese pirates preyed upon the strait, nominally under the control of the Java-based kingdom of Majapahit.
IV. Social and Cultural Change
   A. Architecture, learning, and religion
      1. Commercial contacts and the spread of Islam led to a variety of social and cultural changes in which local cultures incorporated and changed ideas, customs and architectural styles from other civilizations. African and Indian mosques are good examples of the synthesis of Middle Eastern and local architectural styles; in Ethiopia, a native tradition of rock carving led to the construction of eleven churches carved from solid rock.
      2. In the field of education, the spread of Islam brought literacy to African peoples who first learned Arabic and then used the Arabic script to write their own languages. In India literacy was already established, but the spread of Islam brought the development of a new Persian-influenced language (Urdu) and the papermaking technology.
      3. As it spread to Africa, India, and Southeast Asia, Islam also brought with it the study of Islamic law, administration, and Greek science, mathematics, and medicine. Timbuktu, Delhi and Malacca were two new centers of Islamic learning.
      4. Islam spread peacefully; forced conversions were rare. Muslim domination of trade contributed to the spread of Islam as merchants attracted by the common moral code and laws of Islam converted and as Muslim merchants in foreign lands established households and converted their local wives and servants. The Islamic destruction of the last center of Buddhism in India contributed to the spread of Islam in that country.
      5. Islam brought social and cultural changes to the communities that converted, but Islam itself was changed, developing differently in African, Indian, and Indonesian societies.
   B. Social and gender distinctions
      1. The gap between elites and the common people widened in tropical societies as the wealthy urban elites prospered from the increased Indian Ocean trade.
      2. Slavery increased in both Africa and in India. An estimated 2.5 million African slaves were exported across the Sahara and the Red Sea between 1200 and 1500, while more were shipped from the cities of the Swahili coast.
      3. Most slaves were trained in specific skills; in some cases, hereditary military slaves could become rich and powerful. Other slaves worked at hard menial jobs like copper mining, while others, particularly women, were employed as household servants and entertainers. The large number of slaves meant that the price of slaves was quite low.
      4. While there is not much information on possible changes in the status of women in the tropics, some scholars speculate that restrictions on women were eased somewhat in Hindu societies. Nonetheless, early arranged marriage was the rule for Indian women, and they were expected to obey strict rules of fidelity and chastity.
      5. Women’s status was generally determined by the status of their male masters. However, women did practice certain skills other than child rearing. These included cooking, brewing, farm work, and spinning.
      6. It is difficult to tell what effect the spread of Islam might have had on women. It is clear that in some places, such as Mali, Muslims did not adopt the Arab practice of veiling and secluding women.

V. Conclusion
   A. Between 1200 and 1500 tropical Africans and Asians saw increased trade, exchange of ideas, and the spread of Islam.
   B. But behind the changes and the wealth of the urban merchant societies there lay the more stable world of the villages and their long-established customs.
CHAPTER 16
THE LATIN WEST, 1200–1500

INSTRUCTIONAL OBJECTIVES

After studying this chapter students should:

1. Be able to analyze the causes and the consequences of Europe’s fourteenth century demographic disaster.

2. Be able to describe and explain the significance in world history of technological development and urbanization in the Latin West in the later Middle Ages.

3. Understand the ways in which the intellectual developments of the later Middle Ages reflected Westerners’ views of themselves and of their relationship to the past.

4. Understand the ways in which the Hundred Years War and the emergence of the “new monarchies” laid the foundations for the modern European state system.

CHAPTER OUTLINE

I. Rural Growth and Crisis
   A. Peasants, population, and plague
      1. In 1200 C.E. most Europeans were peasants, bound to the land in serfdom and using inefficient agricultural practices. Thirty to fifty such heavily taxed farming families supported each noble household.
      2. Women labored in the fields with men but were subordinate to them.
      3. Europe’s population more than doubled between 1000 and 1445. Population growth was accompanied by new agricultural technologies in northern Europe including the three-field system and the cultivation of oats.
      4. As population grew, people opened new land for cultivation, including land with poor soil and poor growing conditions. This caused a decline in average crop yields beginning around 1250.
      5. The population pressure was eased by the Black Death (bubonic plague), which was brought from Kaffa to Italy and southern France in 1347. The plague ravaged Europe for two years and returned periodically in the late 1300s and 1400s, causing substantial decreases in population.
   B. Social rebellion
      1. As a result of the plague, labor became more expensive in Western Europe. This gave rise to a series of peasant and worker uprisings, higher wages, and the end of serfdom. Serfdom in Eastern Europe grew extensively in the centuries after the Black Death.
2. Rural living standards improved, the period of apprenticeship for artisans was reduced, and per capita income rose.

C. Mills and mines
   1. Between 1200 and 1500 Europeans invented and used a variety of mechanical devices including water wheels and windmills. Mills were expensive to build, but over time they brought great profits to their owners.
   2. Industrial enterprises including mining, ironworking, stone quarrying, and tanning grew during these centuries. The results included both greater productivity and environmental damage including water pollution and deforestation.

II. Urban Revival
   A. Trading cities
      1. Increases in trade and in manufacturing contributed to the growth of cities after 1200. The relationship between trade, manufacturing, and urbanization is demonstrated in the growth of the cities of northern Italy and in the urban areas of Champagne and Flanders.
      2. The Venetian capture of Constantinople (1204); the opening of the Central Asian caravan trade under the Mongol Empire; and the post-Mongol development of the Mediterranean galleys trade with Constantinople, Beirut, and Alexandria brought profits and growth to Venice. The increase in sea trade also brought profits to Genoa in the Mediterranean and to the cities of the Hanseatic League in the Baltic and the North Sea.
      3. Flanders prospered from its woolen textile industries, while the towns of Champagne benefited from their position on the major land route through France and the series of trade fairs sponsored by their nobles.
      4. Textile industries also began to develop in England and in Florence. Europeans made extensive use of water wheels and windmills in the textile, paper, and other industries.

   B. Civic life
      1. Some European cities were city-states, while others enjoyed autonomy from local nobles: they were thus better able to respond to changing market conditions than Chinese or Islamic cities. European cities also offered their citizens more freedom and social mobility.
      2. Most of Europe’s Jews lived in the cities. Jews were subject to persecution everywhere but Rome; they were blames for disasters like the Black Death and expelled from Spain.
      3. Guilds regulated the practice of and access to trades. Women were rarely allowed to join guilds, but they did work in unskilled non-guild jobs in the textile industry and in the food and beverage trades.
      4. The growth in commerce gave rise to bankers like the Medicis of Florence and the Fuggers of Augsburg who handled financial transactions for merchants, the church, and the kings and princes of Europe. Because the Church prohibited usury, many moneylenders were Jews; Christian bankers got around the prohibition through such devices as asking for “gifts” in lieu of interest.

   C. Gothic cathedrals
      1. Gothic cathedrals are the masterpieces of late medieval architecture and craftsmanship. Their distinctive features include the pointed Gothic arch, flying buttresses, high towers and spires, and large interiors lit by huge windows.
      2. The men who designed and built the Gothic cathedrals had no formal training in design and engineering; they learned through their mistakes.

III. Learning, Literature, and the Renaissance
   A. Universities and scholarship
      1. After 1100 Western Europeans got access to Greek and Arabic works on science, philosophy, and medicine. These manuscripts were translated and explicaded by Jewish
scholars and studied at Christian monasteries, which remained the primary centers of learning.

2. After 1200, colleges and universities emerged as new centers of learning. Some were established by students; most were teaching guilds established by professors in order to oversee the training, control the membership, and fight for the interests of the profession.

3. Universities generally specialized in a particular branch of learning; Bologna was famous for its law faculty, others for medicine or theology. Theology was the most prominent discipline of the period as theologians sought to synthesize the rational philosophy of the Greeks with the Christian faith of the Latin West in an intellectual movement known as scholasticism.

B. Humanists and printers

1. Dante Alighieri (1265–1321) and Geoffrey Chaucer (1340–1400) were among the great writers of the later Middle Ages. Dante’s *Divine Comedy* tells the story of the author’s journey through the nine layers of Hell and his entry into Paradise, while Chaucer’s *Canterbury Tales* is a rich portrayal of the lives of everyday people in late medieval England.

2. Dante influenced the intellectual movement of the humanists—men such as Petrarch and Boccaccio, who were interested in the humanities and in the classical literature of Greece and Rome. The humanists had a tremendous influence on the reform of secondary education.

3. Some of the humanists wrote in the vernacular. Most of them wrote in Latin; many worked to restore the original texts of Latin and Greek authors and of the Bible through exhaustive comparative analysis of the many various versions that had been produced over the centuries. As a part of this enterprise, Pope Nicholas V established the Vatican Library and the Dutch humanist Erasmus produced a critical edition of the New Testament.

4. The influence of the humanist writers was increased by the development of the printing press. Johann Gutenberg perfected the art of printing in 1454; Gutenberg’s press and more than two hundred others had produced at least 10 million printed works by 1500.

C. Renaissance artists

1. Fourteenth and fifteenth century artists built on the more natural paintings of Giotto as they developed a style of painting that concentrated on the depiction of Greek and Roman gods and of scenes from daily life. The realistic style was also influenced by Jan van Eyck’s development of oil paints. Leonardo da Vinci and Michelangelo were two of the famous artists of this period.

2. Wealthy merchant and clerical patrons like the Medicis of Florence and the church contributed to the development of Renaissance art. The artistic and intellectual developments of the Renaissance did not stop in Europe; the university, printing, and oil painting were later adopted all over the world.

IV. Political and Military Transformations

A. Monarchs, nobles, and the church

1. Thirteenth century European states were ruled by weak monarchs whose power was limited by their modest treasuries, the regional nobility, the independent towns, and the church.

2. Two changes in weaponry began to undermine the utility—and therefore the economic position—of the noble knights. These two innovations were the armor-piercing crossbow and the development of firearms.

3. King Philip the Fair of France reduced the power of the church when he arrested the pope and had a new (French) one installed at Avignon, but monarchs still faced resistance, particularly from their stronger vassals. In England, the Norman conquest of 1066 had
consolidated and centralized royal power, but the kings continued to find their power limited by the pope and by the English nobles, who force the king to recognize their hereditary rights as defined in the Magna Carta.

4. Monarchs and nobles often entered into marriage alliances. One effect of these alliances was to produce wars over the inheritance of far-flung territories. In the long term, these wars strengthened the authority of monarchs and led to the establishment of territorial boundaries.

B. The Hundred Years War
1. The Hundred Years War pitted France against England, whose King Edward III claimed the French throne in 1337. The war was fought with the new military technology: crossbows, longbows, pikes (for pulling knights off their horses) and firearms, including an improved cannon.
2. The French, whose superior cannon destroyed the castles of the English and their allies, finally defeated the English. The war left the French monarchy in a stronger position than before.

C. New monarchies in France and England
1. The new monarchies that emerged after the Hundred Years War had stronger central governments, more stable national boundaries, and stronger representative institutions. Both the English and the French monarchs consolidated their control over their nobles.
2. The advent of new military technology—cannon and hand-held firearms—meant that the castle and the knight were outdated. The new monarchs depended on professional standing armies of bowmen, pikemen, museteers, and artillery units.
3. The new monarchs had to find new sources of revenue to pay for these standing armies. In order to raise money, the new monarchs taxed land, merchants, and the church.
4. By the end of the fifteenth century, there had been a shift in power away from the nobility and the church and toward the monarchs. This process was not complete, however, and monarchs were still hemmed in by the nobles, the church, and by new parliamentary institutions: the Parliament in England and the Estates General in France.

D. Iberian unification
1. Spain and Portugal emerged as strong centralized states through a process of marriage alliances, mergers, warfare, and the reconquest of the Iberian Peninsula from the Muslims. Reconquest offered the nobility large landed estates upon which they could grow rich without having to work.
2. The reconquest took place over a period of several centuries, but picked up after the Christians put the Muslims on the defensive with a victory in 1212.
3. Portugal became completely established in 1249. In 1415, the Portuguese captured the Moroccan port of Ceuta, which gave them access to the trans-Saharan trade.
4. On the Iberian Peninsula, Castile and Aragon were united in 1469 and the Muslims driven out of their last Iberian stronghold (Granada) in 1492. Spain then expelled all Jews and Muslims from its territory; Portugal also expelled its Jewish population.

V. Conclusion
A. The people of the Latin West proved adept at using natural resources, but they were unable to prevent overpopulation, famine, and plague.
B. The basic political, military, economic, intellectual, and cultural characteristics of the modern West emerged between 1200 and 1500.
C. During these centuries economic growth and the use of technology borrowed from points farther east put the Latin West in a position to project its military power and culture abroad.
CHAPTER 17
THE MARITIME REVOLUTION, TO 1550

INSTRUCTIONAL OBJECTIVES

After studying this chapter students should:

1. Be able to compare the routes, motives, and sailing technologies of those people who undertook global maritime expansion before 1450 to the routes, motives, and sailing technologies of the Portuguese and Spanish explorers of 1400–1550.

2. Be able to explain the environmental, technological, economic and political factors that inspired Portugal and Spain to undertake voyages of exploration.

3. Understand and be able to explain the reasons for the various different reactions of African and Asian peoples to the Portuguese trading empire.

4. Be able to describe and account for the Spanish ability to conquer a territorial empire in the Americas.

CHAPTER OUTLINE

I. Global Maritime Expansion Before 1450
   A. The Pacific Ocean
      1. Over a period of several thousand years, peoples originally from the Malay Peninsula crossed the water to settle the islands of the East Indies, New Guinea, the Melanesian and Polynesian islands, the Marquesas, New Zealand, and other Pacific islands out to Hawaii.
      2. Polynesian expansion was the result of planned voyages undertaken with the intention of establishing colonies. Polynesian mariners navigated by the stars and by their observations of ocean currents and evidence of land.
   B. The Indian Ocean
      1. Malayo-Indonesians colonized the island of Madagascar in a series of voyages that continued through the fifteenth century.
      2. Arab seafarers used the regular pattern of the monsoon winds to establish trade routes in the Indian Ocean. These trade routes flourished when the rise of Islam created new markets and new networks of Muslim traders.
      3. The Chinese Ming dynasty sponsored a series of voyages to the Indian Ocean between 1405 and 1433. The Ming voyages were carried out on a grand scale, involving fleets of over sixty large “treasure ships” and hundreds of smaller support vessels.
4. The treasure ships carried out trade in luxury goods including silk and precious metals as well as stimulating diplomatic relations with various African and Asian states. The voyages, which were not profitable and inspired opposition in court, were ended in 1433.

C. The Atlantic Ocean
1. During the relatively warm centuries of the early Middle Ages, the Vikings, navigating by the stars and the seas, explored and settled Iceland, Greenland, and Newfoundland (Vinland). When a colder climate returned after 1200, the northern settlements in Greenland and the settlement in Newfoundland were abandoned.
2. A few southern Europeans and Africans attempted to explore the Atlantic in the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries. Voyagers from Genoa in 1291 and from Mali in the 1300s set out into the Atlantic but did not return. Genoese and Portuguese explorers discovered and settled the Madeiras, the Azores, and the Canaries in the fourteenth century.
3. In the Americas the Arawak from South America had colonized the Lesser and Greater Antilles by the year 1000. The Carib followed, first taking over Arawak settlements in the Lesser Antilles and then, in the late fifteenth century, raiding the Greater Antilles.

II. European Expansion, 1400–1550
   A. Background to European expansion
   1. The Iberian kingdoms sponsored voyages of exploration for a number of reasons including both the adventurous personalities of their leaders and long-term trends in European historical development: the revival of trade, the struggle with Islam for control of the Mediterranean, curiosity about the outside world, and the alliances between rulers and merchants.
   2. The city-states of northern Italy had no incentive to explore Atlantic trade routes because they had established a system of alliances and trade with the Muslims that gave them a monopoly on access to Asian goods. Also, Italian ships were designed for the calm waters of the Mediterranean and could not stand up to the violent weather of the Atlantic.
   3. The Iberian kingdoms had a history of centuries of warfare with Muslims, they had no significant share in the Mediterranean trade, they had advanced shipbuilding and cannon technology, they were open to new geographical knowledge, and they had exceptional leaders.
   
   B. Portuguese voyages
   1. The Portuguese gained more knowledge of the sources of gold and slaves south of the Sahara when their forces, led by Prince Henry, captured the North African caravan city of Ceuta. Prince Henry ("the Navigator") then sponsored a research and navigation institute at Sagres in order to collect information about and send expeditions to the African lands south of North Africa.
   2. The staff of Prince Henry’s research institute in Sagres studied and improved navigational instruments including the compass and the astrolabe. They also designed a new vessel, the caravel, whose small size, shallow draft, combination of square and lateen sails and its cannon made it well suited for the task of exploration.
   3. Portuguese explorers cautiously explored the African coast, reaching Cape Verde in 1444 and learning how to return to Portugal faster by sailing northwest into the Atlantic in order to pick up the prevailing westerly winds that would blow them back to Portugal.
   4. The Portuguese voyages were initially financed by income from the properties held by Prince Henry’s Order of Christ. In the 1440s, the voyages began to produce a financial return, first from trade in slaves, and then from the gold trade.
5. Beginning in 1469 the process of exploration picked up speed as private commercial enterprises began to get involved. The Lisbon merchant Fernao Gomes sent expeditions that discovered and developed the island of Sao Tome and explored the Gold Coast. Bartolomeu Dias and Vasco da Gama rounded the tip of Africa and established contact with India, thus laying the basis for Portugal’s maritime trading empire.

C. Spanish voyages
1. When Christopher Columbus approached the Spanish crown with his project of finding a new route to Asia, the Portuguese had already established their route to the Indian Ocean. The King and Queen of Spain agreed to fund a modest voyage of discovery, and Columbus set out in 1492 with letters of introduction to Asian rulers and an Arabic interpreter.
2. After three voyages, Columbus was still certain that he had found Asia, but other Europeans realized that he had discovered entirely new lands. These new discoveries led the Spanish and the Portuguese to sign the Treaty of Tordesillas, in which they divided the world between them along a line drawn down the center of the North Atlantic.
3. Ferdinand Magellan’s voyage across the Pacific confirmed Portugal’s claim to the Molucca Islands and established the Spanish claim to the Philippines.

III. Encounters With Europe, 1450–1550
A. Western Africa
1. During the fifteenth century many Africans welcomed the Portuguese and profited from their trade, in which they often held the upper hand. In return for their gold, Africans received from the Portuguese merchants a variety of Asian, African, and European goods including firearms. Interaction between the Portuguese and African rulers varied from place to place.
2. The oba (king) of the powerful kingdom of Benin sent an ambassador to Portugal and established a royal monopoly on trade with the Portuguese. Benin exported a number of goods, including some slaves, and its rulers showed a mild interest in Christianity. After 1538, Benin purposely limited its contact with the Portuguese, declining to receive missionaries and closing the market in male slaves.
3. The kingdom of Kongo had fewer goods to export and consequently relied more on the slave trade. When the Christian King Afonso I lost his monopoly over the slave trade his power was weakened and some of his subjects rose in revolt.

B. Eastern Africa
1. In Eastern Africa, some Muslim states were suspicious of the Portuguese, while others welcomed the Portuguese as allies in their struggles against their neighbors. On the Swahili Coast, Malindi befriended the Portuguese and was spared when the Portuguese attacked and looted many of the other Swahili city-states in 1505.
2. Christian Ethiopia sought and gained Portuguese support in its war against the Muslim forces of Adal. The Muslims were defeated, but Ethiopia was unable to make a long-term alliance with the Portuguese because the Ethiopians refused to transfer their religious loyalty from the patriarch of Alexandria to the Roman pope.

C. Indian Ocean States
1. When Vasco da Gama arrived in Calicut in 1498 he made a very poor impression with his simple gifts. Nonetheless, the Portuguese were determined to control the Indian Ocean trade, and their superior ships and firepower gave them the ability to do so.
2. In order to assert their control, the Portuguese bombarded the Swahili city-states in 1505, captured the Indian port of Goa in 1510, and took Hormuz in 1515. Extending their reach eastward, Portuguese forces captured Malacca in 1511 and set up a trading post at Macao in southern China in 1557.
3. The Portuguese used their control over the major ports to require that all spices be carried in Portuguese ships and that all other ships purchase Portuguese passports and pay customs duties to the Portuguese.

4. Reactions to this Portuguese aggression varied. The Mughal emperors took no action, while the Ottomans resisted and were able at least to maintain superiority in the Red Sea and the Persian Gulf. Some smaller states cooperated with the Portuguese; others tried evasion and resistance.

5. The Portuguese never gained complete control of the Indian Ocean trade, but they did dominate it enough to bring themselves considerable profit and to break the Italian city-states’ monopoly on pepper.

D. The Americas
1. While the Portuguese built a maritime trading empire in Africa and Asia, the Spanish built a territorial empire in the Americas. The reasons for the difference are to be found in the isolation of Amerindian communities and their lack of resistance to Old World diseases.

2. The Arawak were an agricultural people who mined and worked gold but did not trade it over long distances and had no iron. Spanish wars killed tens of thousands of Arawaks and undermined their economy; by 1502, the remaining Arawak of Hispaniola were forced to serve as laborers for the Spanish.

3. What the Spanish did in the Antilles was an extension of Spanish actions against the Muslims in the previous centuries: defeating non-Christians and putting them and their land under Christian control. The actions of conquistadors in other parts of the Caribbean followed the same pattern.

4. On the mainland, Hernan Cortes relied on native allies, cavalry charges, steel swords, and cannon to defeat the forces of the Aztec Empire and capture the Tenochtitlan. The conquest was also aided by the spread of smallpox among the Aztecs. Similarly, Francisco Pizarro’s conquest of the Inca Empire was made possible by the prior spread of smallpox among the Inca population, the dissatisfaction of the Inca Empire’s recently conquered peoples, and by Spanish cannon and steel swords.

E. Patterns of Dominance
1. Three factors contributed to Spain’s ability to establish a vast land empire in the Americas: (1) the Amerindians had no resistance to diseases brought from the Eastern Hemisphere; (2) Spanish superior military technology (swords, armor, horses, and some firearms), combined with aggressive fighting techniques and local allies; (3) Spain’s ability to apply the pattern of conquest, forced labor, and forced conversion—a pattern developed during the reconquest of the Iberian Peninsula—to the Americas.

2. In the Eastern Hemisphere, Africans and Asians shared the same diseases as the Europeans and had enough numbers to resist European forces when necessary. Furthermore, the Portuguese and the Spanish were able to gain profit by engaging in already existing trade networks, which meant that they could gain wealth without conquering territory.

IV. Conclusion
A. The opening of new trade routes linking the Indian Ocean, the Atlantic, and the Pacific marks a turning point in world history: it is the beginning of the “modern period.”

B. The simple fact of opening new trading routes was not completely unprecedented. What was particularly significant about the European maritime revolution is that it laid the basis for long-term European economic and territorial expansion and for a new age of growing global interaction.