CHAPTER 18

THE TRANSFORMATION OF EUROPE, 1500–1750

INSTRUCTIONAL OBJECTIVES

After studying this chapter students should:

1. Be able to show how the religious reformation and dynastic rivalries further divided the people of Europe at a time when greater unity seemed desirable.

2. Be able to describe how royal centralization increased the unity and power of Spain, France, and England.

3. Understand how state policies with regard to military reorganization, warfare, and diplomacy, and economic growth enable northern European countries to move ahead of Spain.

4. Be able to analyze the relationships between climate change, human-induced environmental change, and social change in Europe.

5. Understand the ways in which witch-hunts, the Scientific Revolution and the Enlightenment reflected different European views of the natural world and of human society.

CHAPTER OUTLINE

1. Religious and Political Innovations
   A. Religious reformation, 1517–1563
      1. In 1500 the Catholic Church, benefiting from European prosperity, was building new churches including a new Saint Peter’s Basilica in Rome. Pope Leo X raised money for the new basilica by authorizing the sale of indulgences.
      2. The German monk Martin Luther challenged the Pope on the issue of indulgences and other practices that he considered corrupt or not Christian. Luther began the Protestant Reformation, arguing that salvation could be by faith alone, that Christian belief could be based only on the Bible and on Christian tradition.
      3. The Protestant leader John Calvin formulated a different theological position in *The Institutes of the Christian Religion*. Calvin argued that salvation was God’s gift to those who were predestined and that Christian congregations should be self-governing and stress simplicity in life and in worship.
      4. The Protestant Reformation appealed not only to religious sentiments, but also to Germans who disliked the Italian-dominated Catholic Church and to peasants and urban workers who wanted to reject the religion of their masters.
5. The Catholic Church agreed on a number of internal reforms and a reaffirmation of fundamental Catholic beliefs in the Council of Trent. These responses to the Protestant Reformation, along with the activities of the newly established Society of Jesus (the Jesuits) comprise the “Catholic Reformation.”

6. The Protestant Reformation led to a number of “wars of religion,” the last of them being concluded in 1648.

B. The failure of empire, 1519–1556

1. Between 1516 and 1519 Charles of Burgundy, descendant of the Austrian Habsburg family, inherited the thrones of Castile and Aragon, with their colonial empires, the Austrian Habsburg possessions, and the position of Holy Roman Emperor. Charles was able to forge a coalition to defeat the Ottomans at the gates of Vienna in 1529, but he was unable to unify his many territorial possessions.

2. Lutheran German princes rebelled against the French-speaking Catholic Charles, seizing church lands and giving rise to the German Wars of Religion. When Charles abdicated the throne, Spain went to his son Philip while a weakened Holy Roman Empire went to his brother Ferdinand.

3. The Papacy and the Holy Roman Empire had lost their ability to impose political and religious unity on Europe. The monarchs of Europe were the beneficiaries of this situation as they took the opportunity to increase their power.

C. Royal centralization, 1500–1750

1. The rise of the European kingdoms was guided by long-lived and capable monarchs in Spain, France, and England and by talented chief advisers like Cardinal Jimenez in Spain, Jean-Baptiste Colbert in France, and Robert Walpole in England.

2. Monarchs and their advisers limited the power of the church and subordinated the church (Protestant or Catholic) to the state. At the same time, because church and state were so closely identified, monarchs imposed religious uniformity: Philip II of Spain used the Inquisition to suppress suspected Protestants, while Louis XIII and Louis XIV suppressed Protestantism in France.

3. In England, Henry VIII brought the church under royal control when he split from Rome and made himself head of the Church of England. The breach with Rome also paved the way for royal confiscation of Church property.

4. European monarchs also strengthened their power by establishing stronger national institutions including uniform laws and by tearing down the defensive fortifications of local nobles and independent cities.

5. The development of common national languages through vernacular translation of the Bible and vernacular literature and entertainment (novels and plays) also contributed to national unity.

D. Absolutism and constitutionalism

1. Absolutism is the absence of any constitutional check on a ruler’s power; constitutionalism is a system of government that subjects the ruler’s power to limits specified by law and custom.

2. In France, the Bourbon kings were able to circumvent the representative assembly known as the Estates General and develop an absolutist style of government. Louis XIV’s finance minister Colbert was able to increase revenue through more efficient tax collection and by promoting economic growth while Louis entertained and controlled the French nobility by requiring them to attend his court at Versailles.

3. In England, a conflict between Parliament and king led to a civil war and the establishment of a Puritan republic under Oliver Cromwell. After the Stuart line was restored, Parliament enforced its will on the monarchy when it drove King James II from the throne in the Glorious Revolution of 1688 and forced his successors, William and Mary, to sign a document, the Bill of Rights, that limited the power of the crown.
II. Building State Power
   A. War and diplomacy
      1. Constant warfare in early modern Europe led to a military revolution in which cannon,
muskets, and commoner foot soldiers became the mainstays of European armies. Armies
grew in size, and most European states maintained standing armies (except England,
which maintained a standing navy).

      2. In order to manage the large standing armies and in order to use the troops more
effectively in battle, Europeans devised new command structures, signal techniques, and
marching drills.

      3. Developments in naval technology during this period included warships with multiple
tiers of cannon and four-wheel cannon carriages that made reloading easier. England took
the lead in the development of new naval technology, as was demonstrated when the
English Royal Navy defeated Spain’s Catholic Armada in 1588, signaling an end to
Spain’s military dominance in Europe.

      4. With the defeat of Spain, France rose as the strongest power on continental Europe, while
its rival England held superiority in naval power. During the War of the Spanish
Succession, England, allied with Austria and Prussia, was able to prevent the French
house of Bourbon from taking over the Spanish throne.

      5. With the War of the Spanish Succession and with Russia’s emergence as a power after
the Great Northern war, the four powers of Europe—France, Britain, Austria, and
Russia—were able to maintain a balance of power that prevented any one power from
becoming too strong for about two centuries.

   B. Politics and the economy
      1. The rulers of European states needed to raise new revenue to pay the heavy costs of their
wars; the most successful made profitable alliances with commercial elites. The Spanish,
however, undermined their economy by driving out Jews, Protestants, and the
descendants of Muslims so that the bullion they gained from their American empire was
spent on payments to creditors and for manufactured goods and food.

      2. The northern provinces of the Netherlands wrested their autonomy from Spain and
became a dominant commercial power. The United Provinces of the Free Netherlands
and particularly the province of Holland favored commercial interests, craftsmen, and
manufacturing enterprises and Amsterdam became a major center of finance and
shipping.

      3. After 1650 England used its naval power to break Dutch dominance in overseas trade.
The English government also improved its financial position by collecting taxes directly
and by creating a central bank.

      4. The French government streamlined tax collection, used protective tariffs to promote
domestic industries, and improved its transportation network. The French were not,
however, able to introduce direct tax collection, tax the land of nobles, or secure low-cost
loans.

III. Urban Society and Commercial Technology
   A. Urban social classes
      1. There was a great disparity between the wealthy few and the many poor in the cities of
early modern Europe.

      2. The wealthy urban bourgeoisie thrived on manufacturing, finance, and especially on
trade, including the profitable trade in grain. The bourgeoisie forged mutually beneficial
relationships with the monarchs and built extensive family and ethnic networks to
facilitate trade between different parts of the world.
3. The urban poor consisted of "deserving poor" (permanent residents) and large numbers of "unworthy poor"—migrants, peddlers, beggars, and criminals.
4. Common people in early modern Europe married relatively late because young men served long periods of apprenticeship when learning a trade and young women needed to work to earn their dowries. The young people of the bourgeois class also married late, partly because men delayed marriage until after finishing their education. Late marriage enabled young couples to be independent of their parents; it also helped to keep the birth rate low.

B. Commercial techniques and technology
1. Europeans developed a number of new commercial techniques in the early modern period. These included large banks, joint-stock companies, and stock exchanges.
2. Previously invented technologies were refined and applied more widely. Water wheels and windmills were improved, canal systems were constructed, new large-capacity cargo ships were built, and mapmaking improved.

IV. Rural Society and the Environment
A. The struggle for food
1. The standard of living of the average European declined sharply in the century after 1530.
2. Reasons for this decline include wars, the transformation of cropland to grazing, and the shorter growing seasons brought on by the Little Ice Age.
3. By 1700 new crops from the Americas (potatoes and maize) were helping to alleviate the food shortage.

B. Deforestation
1. High consumption of wood for heating, cooking, construction, shipbuilding and industrial uses led to severe deforestation in Europe in the late seventeenth and early eighteenth centuries. Shortages drove the cost of wood up.
2. As the price of wood rose, Europeans began to use coal instead of wood. Some efforts were also made to conserve forests and to plant trees, particularly in order to provide wood for naval vessels.
3. Deforestation had particularly severe effects on the rural poor who had relied on free access to forests for wood, building materials, nuts and berries, and wild game.

C. Peasantry and gentry
1. Peasants were free (not held in serfdom), but suffered from a pattern of debt which forced them to sell their land to the rising members of the bourgeois class, who gained gentry status by purchasing land.
2. The bourgeois gentry gradually increased their ownership of land; many entered the ranks of the nobility by marrying into noble families or by purchasing titles of nobility.
3. Severe poverty, heavy tax burdens and the perception of inequity led to numerous peasant rebellions. Such revolts were firmly suppressed.
4. In 1750 most Europeans, rural or urban, lived in wretched poverty.

V. The Realm of Ideas
A. Traditional thinking and witch-hunts
1. European concepts of the natural world were derived from both local folk traditions and from Judeo-Christian beliefs. Most people believed that natural events could have supernatural causes.
2. Belief in the supernatural is vividly demonstrated in the witch-hunts of the late sixteenth and early seventeenth centuries. In the witch hunts over 100,000 people (three quarters of them women) were tried and about half of them executed on charges of witchcraft.
3. Modern historians have sought to explain the witch hunts as manifestations of fear of unattached women or in terms of social stress. Some scholars believe that poor and marginal people may have believed that they were capable of witchcraft and welcomed the notoriety and attention gained from public confession.

B. The Scientific Revolution
1. European intellectuals derived their understanding of the natural world from the writings of the Greeks and the Romans. These writings suggested that everything on earth was reducible to four elements; that the sun, moon, planets and stars were so light and pure that they floated in crystalline spheres and rotated around the earth in perfectly circular orbits.

2. The observations of Copernicus and other scientists including Galileo undermined this earth-centered model of the universe and led to the introduction of the Copernican sun-centered model.

3. The Copernican model was initially criticized and suppressed by Protestant leaders and by the Catholic Church. Despite opposition, printed books spread these and other new scientific ideas among European intellectuals.

4. Isaac Newton's discovery of the law of gravity showed how the planets go around the sun in elliptical orbits. Newton's discoveries led to the development of Newtonian physics. However, Newton and other scientists did not believe that their discoveries were in conflict with religious belief.

C. The Early Enlightenment
1. The advances in scientific thought inspired European governments and groups of individuals to question the reasonableness of accepted practices in fields ranging from agriculture to laws, religions, and social hierarchies. This intellectual movement, which assumed that social behavior and institutions were governed by scientific laws, is called the Enlightenment.

2. The Enlightenment thinkers were also influenced by the Reformation, by accounts of other cultures (including Jesuit accounts of China), and by the English Revolution and the political philosophy of John Locke.

3. John Locke argued that rulers derive their power from the consent of those whom they govern and that if monarchs overstepped the law, citizens had the duty to rebel.

4. The new scientific methods provided the enlightened thinkers with a model for changing European society. These thinkers were not a homogeneous group: they drew inspiration from disparate sources and espoused a variety of agendas. Most were optimistic that the application of reason would lead to human progress.

5. The ideas of the Enlightenment aroused opposition from many absolutist rulers and from clergymen, but the printing press made possible the survival and dissemination of new ideas.

VI. Conclusion
A. Europe underwent a number of revolutionary changes in years between 1500 and 1750. These changes were an extension of developments that had begun in the Late Middle Ages and would lead to the political and industrial revolutions of the latter part of the eighteenth century. The process of change may have brought progress, but it was a violent process that involved war, persecution, suffering, and an uneven distribution of wealth.

B. Seen from a global perspective, these changes appear to be part of the process by which the balance of political, economic, and military power shifted slowly but inexorably toward the Europeans.
DISCUSSION QUESTIONS

1. In what different ways did climate change and environmental degradation affect European societies during the period 1500–1750?

2. What were the long-term political effects of the Protestant Reformation?

3. What role did governments play in the development of the Western European economy?

4. What factors spurred the technological development during this period? Are there particular conditions that favor technological innovation?

5. Analyze and discuss the significance of the differences between absolutism and constitutionalism.

6. In what ways did the Scientific Revolution and the Enlightenment challenge the intellectual and political status quo in early modern Europe?

LECTURE TOPICS

1. The environment and the lives of common folks in early modern Europe

   Sources:


2. The Military Revolution

   Sources:


3. The Scientific Revolution

   Sources:


4. The Enlightenment

Sources:


5. Interpreting the Witch Hunts

Sources:


**PAPER TOPICS**

1. Write a comparative report on early modern European and modern African beliefs and practices concerning witchcraft.

2. Describe and justify your position on the Enlightened thinkers’ ideas concerning women.

3. Write a research paper on the development and significance of one of the following commercial techniques: central banks; the joint-stock company; insurance; double-entry bookkeeping; stock exchanges.

4. Write a research paper on the development and significance of one of the following technological developments of the early modern period: canals, shipbuilding (cargo ships or naval vessels), or cartography.
INTERNET RESOURCES

The following Internet sites contain written and visual material appropriate for use with this chapter. A more extensive and continually updated list of Internet resources can be found on *The Earth and Its Peoples* web site. Refer to the preface of this manual for information on how to locate the text homepage.

The Reformation in Europe Map (P. Halsall, Fordham University)
http://www.fordham.edu/halsall/mod/map16rel.gif

Images of the Reformation
http://crh.choate.edu/histsources/Europe/third%20level/Ref.images.htm

The City on Neva River: Sankt-Peterburg (University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill)
http://metalab.unc.edu/sergei/Exs/Peterburg/peterburg.html

The Spanish Armada (National Maritime Museum)
http://www.nmm.ac.uk/education/fact_armada.html

Images from the Scientific Revolution
http://crh.choate.edu/histsources/Europe/third%20level/sr.documents.htm#Copernicus

Best Witches: The Witch and Devil in Art (Rutgers University)
http://www.rci.rutgers.edu/~jup/witches/art/prints.html
CHAPTER 19

THE DIVERSITY OF AMERICAN COLONIAL SOCIETIES, 1530–1770

INSTRUCTIONAL OBJECTIVES

After studying this chapter students should:

1. Understand and be able to illustrate with concrete examples the ways in which the exchange of peoples, plants, animals, and diseases led to environmental, cultural, and economic changes in the Old World (Europe, Asia, and Africa) and particularly in the New World.

2. Be able to make a comparative analysis of the economies and labor systems of the Portuguese, Spanish, French, and English colonies.

3. Be able to explain the causes of and the long-term implications of the different social structures and political institutions of the Spanish and the English colonies.

4. Understand the ways in which eighteenth century economic growth and political reform in the Spanish, Portuguese, and English colonies undermined relations between the colonial powers and their American colonists.

CHAPTER OUTLINE

1. The Columbian Exchange
   A. Demographic changes
      1. The peoples of the New World lacked immunity to diseases from the Old World. Smallpox, measles, diphtheria, typhus, influenza, malaria, yellow fever and maybe pulmonary plague caused severe declines in the population of native peoples in the Spanish and Portuguese colonies. Syphilis was the only significant disease thought to have been transferred from the Americas to Europe.
      2. Similar patterns of contagion and mortality may be observed in the English and French colonies in North America. Europeans did not use disease as a tool of empire, but the spread of Old World diseases clearly undermined the ability of native peoples to resist settlement and accelerated cultural change.
   B. Transfer of plants and animals
      1. European, Asian and African food crops were introduced to the Americas while American crops including maize, beans, potatoes, manioc, and tobacco were brought to the Eastern Hemisphere. The introduction of New World food crops is thought to be one factor contributing to the rapid growth in world population after 1700.
2. The introduction of European livestock such as cattle, pigs, horses, and sheep had a dramatic influence on the environment and on the cultures of the native people of the Americas.

3. Old World livestock destroyed the crops of some Amerindian farmers. Other Amerindians benefited from the introduction of cattle, sheep, and horses.

II. Spanish America and Brazil

A. State and church

1. The Spanish crown tried to exert direct control over its American colonies through a supervisory office called the Council of the Indies. In practice, the difficulty of communication between Spain and the New World led to a situation in which the Viceroy of New Spain and Peru and their subordinate officials enjoyed a substantial degree of power.

2. After some years of neglect and mismanagement, the Portuguese in 1720 appointed a viceroy to administer Brazil.

3. The governmental institutions established by Spain and Portugal were highly developed costly bureaucracies that thwarted local economic initiative and political experimentation.

4. The Catholic Church played an important role in transferring European language, culture, and Christian belief to the New World. Catholic clergy converted large numbers of Amerindians, although some of them secretly held on to some of their native beliefs and practices.

5. Catholic clergy also acted to protect Amerindians from some of the exploitation and abuse of the Spanish settlers. One example is Bartolome de Las Casas, a former settler turned priest who denounced Spanish policies toward the Amerindians and worked to improve the status of Amerindians through legal reforms such as the New Laws of 1542.

6. Catholic missionaries were frustrated as Amerindian converts blended Christian beliefs with elements of their own cosmology and ritual. In response, the Church redirected its energies toward the colonial cities and towns, where the Church founded universities and secondary schools and played a significant role in the intellectual and economic life of the colonies.

B. Colonial economies

1. The colonial economies of Latin America were dominated by the silver mines of Peru and Mexico and by the sugar plantations of Brazil. This led to a dependence on mineral and agricultural exports.

2. The economy of the Spanish colonies was dominated by the silver mines of Bolivia and Peru until 1680 and then by the silver mines of Mexico. Silver mining and processing required a large labor force and led to environmental effects that included deforestation and mercury poisoning.

3. In the agricultural economy that dominated Spanish America up to the 1540s, Spanish settlers used the forced-labor system of encomienda to exploit Amerindian labor. With the development of silver-mining economies, new systems of labor exploitation were devised: in Mexico, free-wage labor, and in Peru, the mita.

4. Under the mita system, one seventh of adult male Amerindians were drafted for forced labor at less than subsistence wages for six months of the year. The mita system undermined the traditional agricultural economy, weakened Amerindian village life, and promoted the assimilation of Amerindians into Spanish colonial society.

5. The Portuguese developed the slave-labor sugar plantation system in the Atlantic islands and then set up similar plantations in Brazil. The Brazilian plantations first used Amerindian slaves and then the more expensive but more productive (and more disease-resistant) African slaves.
6. Sugar and silver played important roles in integrating the American colonial economies into the system of world trade. Both Spain and Portugal tried to control the trade of their American colonies through monopolies and convoy systems which facilitated the collection of taxes but which also restricted the flow of European goods to the colonies.

C. Society in colonial Latin America
1. The elite of Spanish America consisted of a relatively small number of Spanish immigrants and a larger number of their American-born descendants (creoles). The Spanish-born dominated the highest levels of government, church, and business, while the creoles controlled agriculture and mining.
2. Under colonial rule the cultural diversity of Amerindian peoples and the class differentiation within the Amerindian ethnic groups both were eroded.
3. People of African descent played various roles in the history of the Spanish colonies. Slaves and free blacks from the Iberian Peninsula participated in the conquest and settlement of Spanish America; later, the direct slave trade with Africa led both to an increase in the number of blacks and to a decline in the legal status of blacks in the Spanish colonies.
4. At first, people brought from various parts of Africa retained their different cultural identities; but with time, their various traditions blended and mixed with European and Amerindian languages and beliefs to form distinctive local cultures. Slave resistance, including rebellions, was always brought under control, but runaway slaves occasionally formed groups that defended themselves for years.
5. Most slaves were engaged in agricultural labor and were forced to submit to harsh discipline and brutal punishments. The overwhelming preponderance of males made it impossible for slaves to preserve traditional African family and marriage patterns or to adopt those of Europe.
6. In colonial Brazil, Portuguese immigrants controlled politics and the economy, but by the early seventeenth century Africans and their American-born descendants—both slave and free—were the largest ethnic group.
7. The growing population of individuals of mixed European and Amerindian descent (mestizos), European and African descent (mulattos), and mixed African and Amerindian descent were known collectively as “casas.” Castas dominated small-scale retailing and construction in the cities, ran small ranches and farms in the rural areas, and worked as wage laborers; some gained high status and wealth and adopted Spanish or Portuguese culture.

III. English and French Colonies in North America
A. Early English experiments
1. Attempts to establish colonies in Newfoundland (1583) and on Roanoke Island (1587) ended in failure.
2. In the seventeenth century hope that colonies would prove to be profitable investments, combined with the successful colonization of Ireland, led to a new wave of interest in establishing colonies in the New World.

B. The South
1. The Virginia Company established the colony of Jamestown on an unhealthy island in the James River in 1606. After the English Crown took over management of the colony in 1624, Virginia (Chesapeake Bay area) developed as a tobacco plantation economy with a dispersed population and with no city of any significant size.
2. The plantations of the Chesapeake Bay area initially relied on English indentured servants for labor. As life expectancy increased, planters came to prefer to invest in slaves; the slave population of Virginia increased from 950 in 1660 to 120,000 in 1756.
3. Virginia was administered by a Crown-appointed governor and by representatives of towns meeting together as the House of Burgesses. The House of Burgesses developed into a form of democratic representation at the same time as slavery was growing.

4. Colonists in the Carolinas first prospered on the fur trade with Amerindian deer-hunters. The consequences of the fur trade included environmental damage brought on by over-hunting, Amerindian dependency on European goods, ethnic conflicts among Amerindians fighting over hunting grounds, and a series of unsuccessful Amerindian attacks on the English colonists in the early 1700s.

5. The southern part of the Carolinas was settled by planters from Barbados and developed a slave-labor plantation economy, producing rice and indigo. Enslaved Africans and their descendants formed the majority population and developed their own culture; a slave uprising (the Stono Rebellion) in 1739 led to more repressive policies toward slaves throughout the southern colonies.

6. Colonial South Carolina was the most hierarchical society in British North America. A wealthy planter class dominated a population of small farmers, merchants, planters, artisans, and fur-traders who, in turn, stood above the people of mixed English-Amerindian or English-African background and slaves.

C. New England

1. The Pilgrims, who wanted to break completely with the Church of England, established the small Plymouth Colony in 1620. The Puritans, who wanted only to reform the Church of England, formed a chartered joint-stock company (the Massachusetts Bay Company) and established the Massachusetts Bay colony in 1630.

2. The Massachusetts Bay colony had a normal gender balance, saw a rapid increase in population, and was more homogenous and less hierarchical than the southern colonies. The political institutions of the colony were derived from the terms of its charter and included an elected governor and, in 1650, a lower legislative house.

3. Without the soil or the climate to produce cash crops, the Massachusetts economy evolved from dependence on fur, forest products and fish to a dependence on commerce and shipping. Massachusetts’s merchants engaged in a diversified trade across the Atlantic, which made Boston the largest city in British North America in 1740.

D. The Middle Atlantic region

1. Manhattan Island was first colonized by the Dutch and then taken by the English and renamed New York. New York became a commercial and shipping center; it derived particular benefit from its position as an outlet for the export of grain to the Caribbean and Southern Europe.

2. Pennsylvania was first developed as a proprietary colony for Quakers, but soon developed into a wealthy grain-exporting colony with Philadelphia as its major commercial city. In contrast to rice-exporting South Carolina’s slave agriculture, Pennsylvania’s grain was produced by free family farmers, including a substantial number of Germans.

E. French America

1. Patterns of French settlement closely resembled those of Spain and Portugal: the French were committed to missionary work and they emphasized the extraction of natural resources—furs. French expansion was driven by the fur trade and resulted in depletion of beaver and deer populations and made Amerindians dependent upon European goods.

2. The fur trade provided Amerindians with firearms that increased the violence of the wars that they fought over control of hunting grounds. When firearms reached the horse frontier in the early eighteenth century, they increased the military power and hunting efficiency of the indigenous peoples of the American West and slowed the pace of European settlement.
3. Catholic missionaries including the Jesuits attempted to convert the Amerindian population of French America, but, meeting with indigenous resistance, they turned their attention to work in the French settlements. These settlements, dependent on the fur trade, were small and grew slowly. This pattern of settlement allowed Amerindians in French America to preserve a greater degree of independence than they could in the Spanish, Portuguese, or British colonies.

4. The French expanded aggressively to the West and South, establishing a second fur-trading colony in Louisiana in 1699. This expansion led to war with England in which the French, defeated in 1759, were forced to yield Canada to the English and to cede Louisiana to Spain.

IV. Colonial Expansion and Conflict

A. Imperial reform in Spanish America and Brazil

1. After 1713 Spain’s new Bourbon dynasty undertook a series of administrative reforms including expanded intercolonial trade, new commercial monopolies on certain goods, a stronger navy, and better policing of the trade in contraband goods to the Spanish colonies. These reforms coincided with the eighteenth-century economic expansion that was led by the agricultural and grazing economies of Cuba, the Rio de la Plata, Venezuela, Chile, and Central America.

2. The Bourbon policies were detrimental to the interests of the grazing and agricultural export economies, which were increasingly linked to illegitimate trade with the English, French, and Dutch. The new monopolies aroused opposition from creole elites whose only gain from the reforms was their role as leaders of militias that were intended to counter the threat of war with England.

3. The Bourbon policies were also a factor in the Amerindian uprisings, including that led by the Peruvian Amerindian leader José Gabriel Condorcanqui (Tupac Amaru II). The rebellion was suppressed after more than two years and cost the Spanish colonies over one hundred thousand lives and enormous amounts of property damage.

4. Brazil also underwent a period of economic expansion and administrative reform in the 1700s. Economic expansion fueled by gold, diamonds, coffee and cotton underwrote the Pombal reforms, paid for the importation of nearly 2 million African slaves, and underwrote a new wave of British imports.

B. Reform and reorganization in British North America

1. In the latter half of the seventeenth century the British Crown tried to control colonial trading (smuggling) and manufacture by passing a series of Navigation Acts and by suspending the elected assemblies of the New England colonies. Colonists resisted by overthrowing the governors of New York and Massachusetts and by removing the Catholic proprietor of Maryland, thus setting the stage for future confrontational politics.

2. During the eighteenth century economic growth and new immigration into the British colonies was accompanied by increased urbanization and a more stratified social structure.

V. Conclusion

A. All of the colonial empires in the New World grew by subjugating the Amerindian peoples, importing slaves, and using Old World technologies to change and exploit the natural environment of the New World in order to produce wealth and exploit the growing Atlantic market.

B. The colonies of Catholic Spain, France, and Portugal tended to rely on natural resources (minerals, fur, and agriculture) and to impose and enforce religious and cultural uniformity, while the British colonies were characterized by greater cultural and religious diversity.
C. During the eighteenth century American colonial societies experienced a wave of economic growth that was accompanied by the colonial elites' greater sense of self-awareness, local interest, and attraction to the ideas of the Enlightenment.

DISCUSSION QUESTIONS

1. How did European market demand for natural resources and forest products affect the relationship of Amerindian peoples with each other and with their environment?

2. What were the demographic effects of the Columbian exchange?

3. How and why did the colonial administrations of Spanish and Portuguese colonies differ from those established by the English colonies in North America?

4. What role did the environment play in the development of the economies of the New World colonies?

5. How many different forms of labor organization can you identify in the various New World colonies? What factors explain the development of different forms of labor organization and the transition from one form to another?

6. What factors explain the differences in social organization of the Spanish, Portuguese, French, and English colonies in the New World?

LECTURE TOPICS

1. The Columbian exchange in world history

   Sources:


2. Sugar and colonialism

   Sources:

3. The Canadian fur trade

Sources:


4. Relations between Europeans, Amerindians, and the environment

Sources:


5. Forced labor systems in Spanish America

Sources:


**PAPER TOPICS**

1. Compare and explain the reasons for differences or similarities between the European colonies of North and South America.

2. State and justify your position on the role of the Catholic Church in regard to relations with the Amerindian people in either the Spanish or the French American colonies.

3. Write a research paper on the effect of one of the following on Amerindian societies: sheep, cattle, horses, or guns.

4. Write an environmental analysis of the Jamestown settlement as compared to the Massachusetts Bay colony.
INTERNET RESOURCES

The following Internet sites contain written and visual material appropriate for use with this chapter. A more extensive and continually updated list of Internet resources can be found on *The Earth and Its Peoples* web site. Refer to the preface of this manual for information on how to locate the text homepage.

Colonial North America (University of Calgary)
http://www.ucalgary.ca/IIIST/tutor/colony/

Africans in America (WGBH/PBS Online)

Columbian Exchanges (Palomar College)
http://daphne.palomar.edu/scout/colexc.htm

Mexico: Splendors of Thirty Centuries (Humanities-Interactive)
http://www.humanities-interactive.org/splendors/index.html

Cultural Readings: Colonization and Print in the Americas (University of Pennsylvania)
http://www.library.upenn.edu/special/gallery/kislak/index/cultural.html
CHAPTER 20

THE ATLANTIC SYSTEM AND AFRICA, 1550–1800

INSTRUCTIONAL OBJECTIVES

After studying this chapter students should:

1. Describe and give concrete illustrations of the effects of the Atlantic system on African, European, and American societies and their environments.

2. Understand the relationship between the spread of sugar plantations and the growth of the slave trade.

3. Be able to describe capitalism and mercantilism and explain their roles in the development of the Atlantic system.

4. Be able to compare and account for the different roles and influence of the West and Islam in sub-Saharan Africa between about 1550 and 1800.

CHAPTER OUTLINE

I. Plantations in the West Indies
   A. Colonization before 1650
      1. Spanish settlers introduced sugar-cane cultivation into the West Indies shortly after 1500 but did not do much else toward the further development of the islands. After 1600 the French and English developed colonies based on tobacco cultivation.
      2. Tobacco consumption became popular in England in the early 1600s. Tobacco production in the West Indies was stimulated by two new developments: the formation of chartered companies and the availability of cheap labor in the form of European indentured servants.
      3. In the mid-1600s competition from milder Virginia tobacco and the expulsion of experienced Dutch sugar producers from Brazil combined to bring the West Indian economies from tobacco to sugar production.
      4. The Portuguese had introduced sugar-cane cultivation to Brazil, and the Dutch West India Company, chartered to bring the Dutch wars against Spain to the New World, had taken control of 1,000 miles of sugar-producing Brazilian coast. Over a fifteen-year period the Dutch improved the efficiency of the Brazilian sugar industry and brought slaves from Elmina and Luanda (also seized from Portugal) to Brazil and the West Indies.
      5. When Portugal reconquered Brazil in 1654, the Dutch sugar planters brought the Brazilian system to the French and English Caribbean Islands.
B. Sugar and slaves
1. Between 1640 and the 1680s colonies like Guadeloupe, Martinique, and particularly Barbados made the transition from a tobacco economy to a sugar economy. In the process of doing so, their demand for labor caused a sharp and significant increase in the volume of the Atlantic slave trade.
2. The shift from European indentured servants to enslaved African labor was caused by a number of factors including a decline in the numbers of Europeans willing to indenture themselves to the West Indies, the fact that the life expectancy of a slave after landing was longer than the term of the typical contract of indenture, and a rise in sugar prices that made planters more able to invest in slaves.

II. Plantation Life in the Eighteenth Century
A. Technology and environment
1. Sugar plantations both grew sugar cane and processed the cane into sugar crystals, molasses, and rum. The technology for growing and harvesting cane was simple, but the machinery required for processing (rollers, copper kettles and so on) was more complicated and expensive. The expenses of sugar production led planters to seek economies of scale by running large plantations.
2. Sugar production damaged the environment by causing soil exhaustion and deforestation. Repeated cultivation of sugar cane exhausted the soil of the plantations and led the planters to open new fields, thus accelerating the deforestation that had begun under the Spanish.
3. European colonization led to the introduction of European and African plants and animals that crowded out indigenous species. Colonization also pushed the Arawak and then the Carib people to extinction.

B. Slaves’ lives
1. West Indian society consisted of a wealthy land-owning plantocracy, their many slaves, and a few people in between.
2. A plantation had to extract as much labor as possible from its slaves in order to turn a profit. Slaves were organized into “gangs” for field work, while those male slaves not doing field work were engaged in specialized tasks.
3. Slaves were rewarded for good work and punished harshly for failure to meet their production quotas or for any form of resistance. On Sundays, slaves cultivated their own food crops and did other chores: they had very little rest and relaxation, no education, and little time or opportunity for family life.
4. Disease, harsh working conditions, and dangerous mill machinery all contributed to the short life expectancy of slaves in the Caribbean. The high mortality rate added to the volume of the Atlantic slave trade and meant that the majority of slaves on West Indian plantations were born in Africa.
5. Slaves frequently ran away and occasionally staged violent rebellions such as that led by a slave named Tacky in Jamaica in 1760. European planters sought to prevent rebellions by curtailing African cultural traditions, religions, and languages.

C. Free whites and free blacks
1. In Saint Domingue there were three groups of free people: the wealthy “great whites,” the less-well-off “little whites,” and the free blacks. In the British colonies, where sugar almost completely dominated the economy, there were very few free small landholders, white or black.
2. Only a very wealthy man could afford the capital to invest in the land, machinery, and slaves needed to establish a sugar plantation. West Indian planters were very wealthy and translated their wealth into political power, controlling the colonial assemblies and even gaining a number of seats in the British Parliament.
3. Slave owners who fathered children by female slaves often gave both mother and child their freedom; over time, this practice (manumission) produced a significant free black population. Another source of free black population was runaway slaves, known in the Caribbean as maroons.

III. Creating the Atlantic Economy
   A. Capitalism and mercantilism
      1. The system of royal monopoly control of colonies and their trade as practiced by Spain and Portugal in the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries proved to be inefficient and expensive. In the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries the two new institutions of capitalism and mercantilism established the framework within which government-protected private enterprise participated in the Atlantic economy.
      2. The mechanisms of early capitalism included banks, joint-stock companies, stock exchanges, and insurance.
      3. Mercantilism was a number of state policies that promoted private investment in overseas trade and accumulation of capital in the form of precious metals. The instruments of mercantilism included chartered companies such as the Dutch West India Company and the French Royal African Company and the use of military force to pursue commercial dominance.
      4. The French and English eliminated Dutch competition from the Americas by defeating the Dutch in a series of wars between 1652 and 1678. The French and the English then revoked the monopoly privileges of their chartered companies, but continued to use high tariffs to prevent foreigners from gaining access to trade with their colonies. The Atlantic became the major trading area for the British, the French, and the Portuguese in the eighteenth century.

   B. The Great Circuit and the Middle Passage
      1. The “Great Circuit” was a clockwise network of trade routes going from Europe to Africa, from Africa to the plantation colonies of the Americas (the Middle Passage), and then from the colonies to Europe. If all went well, a ship would make a profit on each leg of the circuit.
      2. The Great Circuit was supplemented by a number of other trade routes: Europe to the Indian Ocean, Europe to the West Indies, New England to the West Indies, and the “Triangular Trade” between New England, Africa, and the West Indies.
      3. As the Atlantic system developed, increased demand for sugar in seventeenth and eighteenth century Europe was associated with an increase in the flow of slaves from Africa to the New World.
      4. The slave trade was a highly specialized business in which chartered companies (in the seventeenth century) and then private traders (in the eighteenth century) purchased slaves in Africa, packed them into specially designed or modified ships, and delivered them for sale to the plantation colonies.
      5. Disease, maltreatment, suicide, and psychological depression all contributed to the average death rate of one out of every six slaves shipped on the Middle Passage. Disease was the single most important cause of death, killing the European crewmen of the slave ships at roughly the same rate as it killed the slaves themselves.

IV. Africa, the Atlantic, and Islam
   A. The Gold Coast and the Slave Coast
      1. European trade with Africa grew tremendously after 1650 as merchants sought to purchase slaves and other goods. The growth in the slave trade was accompanied by continued trade in other goods, but it did not lead to any significant European colonization of Africa.
2. African merchants were discriminating about the types and the amounts of merchandise that they demanded in return for slaves and other goods, and they raised the price of slaves in response to increased demand. African governments on the Gold and Slave Coasts were strong enough to make Europeans observe African trading customs, while the Europeans, competing with each other for African trade, were unable to present a strong, united bargaining position.

3. Exchange of slaves for firearms contributed to state formation in the Gold and Slave Coasts. The kingdom of Dahomey used firearms acquired in the slave trade in order to expand its territory, while the kingdoms of Oyo and Asante had interests both in the Atlantic trade and in overland trade with their northern neighbors.

4. The African kings and merchants of the Gold and Slave Coasts obtained slaves from among the prisoners of war captured in conflicts between African kingdoms.

B. The Bight of Biafra and Angola

1. There were no sizeable states—and no large-scale wars—in the interior of the Bight of Biafra: kidnapping was the main source of people to sell into slavery. African traders who specialized in procuring people for the slave trade did business at inland markets or fairs and brought the slaves to the coast for sale.

2. In the Portuguese-held territory of Angola, Afro-Portuguese caravan merchants brought trade goods to the interior and exchanged them for slaves, whom they transported to the coast for sale to Portuguese middlemen, who then sold the slaves to slave dealers for shipment to Brazil. Many of these slaves were prisoners of war, a byproduct generated by the wars of territorial expansion fought by the federation of Lunda kingdoms.

3. Enslavement has also been linked to environmental crises in the interior of Angola. Droughts forced refugees to flee to kingdoms in better-watered areas, where the kings traded the grown male refugees to slave dealers in exchange for Indian textiles and European goods that they then used to cement old alliances, attract new followers, and build a stronger, larger state.

4. Although the organization of the Atlantic trade varied from place to place, it was always based on a partnership between European traders and a few African political and merchant elites who benefited from the trade while many more Africans suffered from it.

C. Comparing European and Islamic contacts

1. In the centuries between 1550 and 1800 Europeans built a growing trade with Africa but did not acquire very much African territory. The only significant European colonies were those on islands; the Portuguese in Angola, and the Dutch Cape Colony, which was tied to the Indian Ocean trade rather than to the Atlantic trade.

2. Muslim territorial dominance was much more significant, with the Ottoman Empire controlling all of North Africa except Morocco and with Muslims taking large amounts of territory from Ethiopia. In the 1580s Morocco attacked the sub-Saharan Muslim kingdom of Songhai, occupying the area for the next two centuries and causing the bulk of the trans-Saharan trade in gold, textiles, leather goods and kola nuts to shift from the western Sudan to the central Sudan.

3. The trans-Saharan slave trade was smaller in volume than the Atlantic slave trade and supplied slaves for the personal slave army of the Moroccan rulers as well as slaves for sugar plantation labor, servants, and artisans. The majority of slaves transported across the Sahara were women destined for service as concubines or servants and children, including eunuchs meant for service as harem guards.

4. Muslims had no moral objection to owning or trading in slaves, but religious law forbade the enslavement of fellow Muslims. Even so, some Muslim states south of the Sahara did enslave African Muslims.
5. Muslim cultural influences south of the Sahara were much stronger than European cultural influences. Islam and the Arabic language spread more rapidly than Christianity and English, which were largely confined to the coastal trading centers.

6. The European and Islamic slave trade could not have had a significant effect on the overall population of the African continent, but they did have an acute effect on certain areas from which large numbers of people were taken into slavery. The higher proportion of women taken across the Sahara in the Muslim slave trade magnified its long-term demographic effects.

7. The volume of trade goods imported into sub-Saharan Africa was not large enough to have had any significant effect on the livelihood of traditional African artisans. Both African and European merchants benefited from this trade, but Europeans directed the Atlantic system and derived greater benefit from it than the African merchants did.

V. Conclusion
A. The development of the Atlantic system demonstrated that the Europeans were able to go beyond the conquest and capture of existing systems to create a new trading system, transforming the economies of places like the West Indies.

B. Africa played an essential role in the Atlantic system, but the continent was not dominated by Europeans the way the Americas were.

DISCUSSION QUESTIONS

1. How did participation in the Atlantic system affect the environment in the Americas?

2. How did participation in the Atlantic system affect social and political development in Africa and the Americas?

3. What factors led to the development of the African slave trade?

4. How and why did Islamic influence in sub-Saharan Africa differ from the influence of Europeans?

5. What effects did slavery have on economic life in Africa?

6. How did the technological requirements of sugar production affect West Indian society?

LECTURE TOPICS

1. The Atlantic System in world context

Sources:


2. The slave trade

Sources:


3. Plantation life

Sources:


4. Islamic commerce in sub-Saharan Africa

Sources:


5. Slavery in Africa

Sources:

PAPER TOPICS

1. Prepare a comparative analysis of slavery in the Atlantic system and slavery in the Roman Empire.

2. State and provide evidence to back up your position regarding the effects of the slave trade on African states.

3. Write a comparative analysis of the effects of the Atlantic trade and the effects of the Moroccan invasion of Songhai on the trans-Saharan caravan trade.

4. Write a report on the development of the sugar industry in the West Indies from about 1550–1800.

INTERNET RESOURCES

The following Internet sites contain written and visual material appropriate for use with this chapter. A more extensive and continually updated list of Internet resources can be found on *The Earth and Its Peoples* web site. Refer to the preface of this manual for information on how to locate the text homepage.

The Growth of the Slave Trade Maps (University of California at Santa Barbara)  
http://www.blacst.ucsb.edu/antillians/slave2.html

Plantation America (Duke University)  
http://scriptorium.lib.duke.edu/slavery/plantation.html

World Trading: The Gold Coast, 1450–1880 (University of Wisconsin, Eau Claire)  
http://www.history.uwec.edu/Projects/Trade/Goldcoast/coast.htm

The Mosque and West African Islam (Harvard University)  
http://web-dubois.fas.harvard.edu/DuBois/Baobab/narratives/islam/WestMosque.html
CHAPTER 21

SOUTHWEST ASIA AND THE INDIAN OCEAN, 1500–1750

INSTRUCTIONAL OBJECTIVES

After studying this chapter students should:

1. Understand how the Ottomans built and administered their territorial empire.

2. Understand the rise of the Safavids and the role of Shi’ite Islam in the development of Iranian identity under the Safavids.

3. Understand the construction of the Mughal Empire in India and the relations between Islam, Hinduism, and Sikhism.

4. Understand the internal and external factors that led to the decline of the Ottoman and Mughal Empires and to the fall of the Safavids.

5. Understand the roles of the Portuguese, Oman, and the Dutch in the development of trade in the Indian Ocean and Southeast Asia.

CHAPTER OUTLINE

1. The Ottoman Empire, to 1750
   A. Expansion and frontiers
      1. Osman established the Ottoman Empire in northwestern Anatolia in 1300. He and his successors consolidated control over Anatolia, fought Christian enemies in Greece and in the Balkans, captured Serbia and the Byzantine capital of Constantinople, and established a general border with Iran.
      2. Egypt and Syria were added to the empire in 1516–17, and the major port cities of Algeria and Tunis voluntarily joined the Ottoman Empire in the early sixteenth century. Sultan Suleiman the Magnificent (r. 1520–1566) conquered Belgrade (1521) and Rhodes (1522) and laid siege to Vienna (1529), but withdrew with the onset of winter.
      3. The Ottoman Empire fought with Venice for two centuries as it attempted to exert its control over the Mediterranean. The Ottomans forced the Venetians to pay tribute but continued to allow them to trade.
      4. Muslim merchants in the Red Sea and Indian Ocean requested Ottoman naval support against the Portuguese. The Ottomans responded vigorously to Portuguese threats against nearby ports such as Aden, but saw no reason to commit much effort to the defense of non-Ottoman Muslim merchants in the Indian Ocean.
B. Central institutions
1. The original Ottoman military forces of mounted warriors armed with bows were supplemented in the late fourteenth century when the Ottomans formed captured Balkan Christian men into a force called the “new troops” (Janissaries), who fought on foot and were armed with guns. In the early fifteenth century the Ottomans began to recruit men for the Janissaries and for positions in the bureaucracy through the system called devshirme—a levy on male Christian children.
2. The Ottoman Empire was a cosmopolitan society in which the Osmanli-speaking, tax-exempt military class (askeri) served the sultan as soldiers and bureaucrats. The common people—Christians, Jews, and Muslims—were referred to as the raya (flock of sheep).
3. During the reign of Suleiman the Magnificent, Ottoman land forces were powerful enough to defeat the Safavids, but the Ottomans were defeated at sea by combined Christian forces at the Battle of Lepanto in 1571. The Turkish cavalrymen were paid in land grants, while the Janissaries were paid from the central treasury.
4. In the view of the Ottomans, the sultan supplied justice and defense for the common people (the raya), while the raya supported the sultan and his military through their taxes. In practice, the common people had little direct contact with the Ottoman government, being ruled by local notables and by their religious leaders (Muslim, Christian, or Jewish).

C. Crisis of the military state, 1585–1650
1. The increasing importance and expense of firearms meant that the size and cost of the Janissaries increased over time while the importance of the landholding Turkish cavalry (who disdained firearms) decreased. At the same time, New World silver brought inflation and undermined the purchasing power of the fixed tax income of the cavalrymen and the fixed stipends of students and professors at the madrasas.
2. Financial deterioration and the use of short-term mercenary soldiers brought a wave of rebellions and banditry to Anatolia. The Janissaries began to marry, went into business, and enrolled their sons in the Janissary corps, which grew in number but declined in military readiness.

D. Economic change and growing weakness, 1650–1750
1. The period of crisis led to significant changes in Ottoman institutions. The sultan now lived a secluded life in his palace, the affairs of government were in the hands of chief administrators, the devshirme had been discontinued, and the Janissaries had become a politically powerful hereditary elite who spent more time on crafts and trade than on military training.
2. In the rural areas, the system of land grants in return for military service had been replaced by a system of tax farming. Rural administration came to depend on powerful provincial governors and wealthy tax farmers.
3. In the context of disorder and decline formerly peripheral places like Izmir flourished as Ottoman control over trade declined and European merchants came to purchase Iranian silk and local agricultural products. This growing trade brought the agricultural economies of western Anatolia, the Balkans, and the Mediterranean coast into the European commercial network.
4. By the middle of the eighteenth century it is clear that the Ottoman Empire was in economic and military decline. Europeans dominated Ottoman import and export trade by sea, but they did not control strategic ports or establish colonial settlements on Ottoman territory.
5. During the “Tulip Period” (1718–1730), the Ottoman ruling class enjoyed European luxury goods and replicated the Dutch tulip mania of the sixteenth century. In 1730, the Patrona Halil rebellion indicated the weakness of the central state; provincial elites took advantage of this weakness to increase their power and their wealth.
II. The Safavid Empire, 1502–1722

A. The rise of the Safavids
   1. Ismail declared himself shah of Iran in 1502 and ordered that his followers and subjects all adopt Shi’ite Islam.
   2. It took a century of brutal force and instruction by Shi’ite scholars from Lebanon and Bahrain to make Iran a Shi’ite land, but when it was done, the result was to create a deep chasm between Iran and its Sunni neighbors.

B. Society and religion
   1. Conversion to Shi’ite belief made permanent the cultural difference between Iran and its Arab neighbors that had already been developing. From the tenth century onward, Persian literature and Persian decorative styles had been diverging from Arabic culture—a process that had intensified when the Mongols destroyed Baghdad and thus put an end to that city’s role as an influential center of Islamic culture.
   2. Although Islam continued to provide a universal tradition, local understandings of Islam differed, as may be seen in variations in mosque architecture and in the distinctive rituals of various Sufi orders. Under the Safavids, Iranian culture was further distinguished by the strength of Shi’ite beliefs including the concept of the Hidden Imam and the deeply emotional annual commemoration of the martyrdom of Imam Husayn.

C. A tale of two cities: Isfahan and Istanbul
   1. Isfahan and Istanbul were very different in their outward appearance. Istanbul was a busy port city with a colony of European merchants, a walled palace and a skyline punctuated by gray domes and soaring minarets. Isfahan was an inland city with few Europeans, unobtrusive minarets, brightly tiled domes, and an open palace with a huge plaza for polo games.
   2. Both cities were built for walking (not for wheeled vehicles), had few open spaces, narrow and irregular streets, and artisan and merchant guilds.
   3. Women were seldom seen in public in Istanbul or in Isfahan, being confined in women’s quarters in their homes; however, records indicate that Ottoman women were active in the real estate market and appeared in court cases. Public life was almost entirely the domain of men.
   4. Despite an Armenian merchant community, Isfahan was not a cosmopolitan city, nor was the population of the Safavid Empire particularly diverse. Istanbul’s location gave it a cosmopolitan character comparable to that of other great seaports in spite of the fact that the sultan’s wealth was built on his territorial possessions, not on the voyages of his merchants.

D. Economic crisis and political collapse
   1. Iran’s manufactures included silk and its famous carpets, but overall, the manufacturing sector was small and not very productive. The agricultural sector (farming and herding) did not see any significant technological developments, partly because the nomad chieftains who ruled the rural areas had no interest in building the agricultural economy.
   2. Like the Ottomans, the Safavids were plagued by the expense of firearms and by the reluctance of nomad warriors to use firearms. Shah Abbas responded by establishing a slave corps of year-round professional soldiers armed with guns.
   3. In the late sixteenth century inflation caused by cheap silver and a decline in the overland trade made it difficult for the Safavid State to pay its army and bureaucracy. An Afghan army took advantage of this weakness to capture Isfahan and end Safavid rule in 1722.
   4. The Safavids never had a navy: when they needed naval support, they relied on the English and the Dutch. Nadir Shah, who briefly reunified Iran between 1736 and 1747, built a navy of ships purchased from the British, but it was not maintained after his death.
III. The Mughal Empire, 1526–1761
A. Political foundations
1. The Mughal Empire was established and consolidated by the Turkic warrior Babur (1483–1530) and his grandson Akbar (r. 1556–1605). Akbar established a central administration and granted nonhereditary land revenues to his military officers and government officials.
2. Akbar and his successors gave efficient administration and peace to their prosperous northern heartland while expending enormous amounts of blood and treasure on wars with Hindu rulers and rebels to the south and Afghans to the west.
3. Foreign trade boomed, but the Mughals, like the Safavids, did not maintain a navy or merchant marine, preferring to allow Europeans to serve as carriers.

B. Hindus and Muslims
1. The violence and destruction of the Mughal conquest of India horrified Hindus, but they offered no concerted resistance. Fifteen percent of Mughal officials holding land revenues were Hindus, most of them from northern Rajput warrior families.
2. Akbar was the most illustrious of the Mughal rulers: he took the throne at thirteen and commanded the government on his own at twenty. Akbar worked for reconciliation between Hindus and Muslims by marrying a Hindu Rajput princess and by introducing reforms that reduced taxation and legal discrimination against Hindus.
3. Akbar made himself the center of a short-lived eclectic new religion ("Divine Faith") and sponsored a court culture in which Hindu and Muslim elements were mixed.
4. The spread of Islam in India cannot be explained by reference to the discontent of low-caste people, nor does it appear to have been the work of Sufi brotherhoods. Islam was established in the Indus Valley region from the eighth century; the spread of Islam in east Bengal is linked to the presence of Muslim mansabdars and their construction of rice-agriculture farming communities on newly cleared land.
5. In the Punjab (northwest India), Nanak (1469–1539) developed the Sikh religion by combining elements from Islam and Hinduism. The Sikh community was reorganized as a militant "army of the pure" after the ninth guru was beheaded for refusing to convert to Islam: the Sikhs posed a military threat to the Mughal empire in the eighteenth century.

C. Central decay and regional challenges 1707–1761
1. The Mughal Empire declined after the death of Aurangzeb in 1707. Factors contributing to the Mughal decline include the land grant system, the failure to completely integrate Aurangzeb's newly conquered territory into the imperial administration, and the rise of regional powers. The real power of the Mughal rulers came to an end in 1739 after Nadir Shah raided Delhi; the empire survived in name until 1857.
2. As the Mughal government lost power, Mughal regional officials bearing the title of nawab established their own more or less independent states. These regional states were prosperous, but they could not effectively prevent the intrusion of Europeans such as the French, whose representative Joseph Dupleix captured the English trading center of Madras and became a power broker in southern India until he was recalled to France in 1754.

IV. Trade Empires in the Indian Ocean, 1600–1729
A. Muslims in the East Indies
1. It is not clear exactly when and how Islam spread in Southeast Asia. It appears that conversion and the formation of Muslim communities began in port cities and royal courts in the fourteenth century and was transmitted to the countryside by itinerant Sufis.
2. In the places where it had spread, Islam functioned as a political ideology that strengthened resistance to European incursions in places such as the Sulu archipelago, Mindanao, Brunei, and Aceh. The rulers and the people of Southeast Asian kingdoms
appear to have developed understandings of Islam that deviated from the standards of scholars from Mecca and Medina. Royal courts and port cities began to adopt the more orthodox practices advocated by pilgrims returning from Arabia, while the rural people developed forms of Islam that incorporated some of their pre-Muslim religious and social practices.

B. Muslims in East Africa
1. The Muslim-ruled port cities of the Swahili Coast were not well connected with each other, nor did they have much contact with the people of their dry hinterlands. Cooperation was hindered by the thick bush country that separated the tracts of coastal land and by the fact that the cities competed with each other for trade.
2. The Portuguese conquered all of the Swahili ports except for Malindi, which cooperated with Portugal. Between 1650 and 1729 the Arabs of Oman drove the Portuguese out of the Swahili Coast and created a maritime empire of their own.

C. The coming of the Dutch
1. The better-organized Dutch drove the Portuguese out of the Malacca in 1641, conquered local kingdoms on Sumatra and Java, and established a colonial capital at Batavia (now Jakarta).
2. When European merchants from other countries began to come to Southeast Asia, the Dutch found it impossible to maintain monopoly control over the spice market. Instead, they turned to crop production, focusing on lumber and coffee.

V. Conclusion
A. In the late seventeenth century most people in the lands of the Ottoman, Safavid, and Mughal Empires would not have realized that a major shift in world economic and political power was in progress.
B. The Ottoman, Mughal, and Safavid Empires were heirs to an Asian tradition in which it was assumed that imperial wealth was derived from the control of large amounts of agricultural land, not from taxes on maritime trade.
C. In all three of these empires, land-tax revenues did not keep up with the rising cost of armies equipped with firearms, but for the imperial courtiers, this appeared to be a temporary problem which did not affect their luxurious lifestyles.

DISCUSSION QUESTIONS

1. How did differences in geographical location and environment affect the economic and cultural development of the Ottoman Empire, the Safavid Empire, and the Swahili Coast?

2. What role did religion play in the development of political rivalries, alliances, and the formation of states in Southwest Asia and the Indian Ocean?

3. How did the European colonization of the New World and the development of the Atlantic System affect the economies and politics of Southwest Asia and the Indian Ocean?

4. How did Muslim rulers deal with religious and ethnic diversity among their subject peoples?

5. Compare the effects of European expansion on the land-based Ottoman, Safavid, and Mughal Empires and on the cities of the Swahili Coast.

6. What factors led to the decline of the Ottoman, Safavid, and Mughal Empires?
Chapter 21

LECTURE TOPICS

1. Ottoman institutions in the age of Suleiman the Magnificent

   Sources:


2. Religion and politics in the Islamic empires

   Sources:


3. Economic development and land tenure in the Ottoman, Safavid, and Mughal Empires

   Sources:


4. Cities and the changing society and economy of the Ottoman Empire

   Sources:


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5. Changes in the Indian Ocean Trade

Sources:


PAPER TOPICS

1. Compare one or more land empires discussed in this chapter with one or more of the maritime empires that you have studied. What are the advantages and disadvantages of a land empire as opposed to a maritime empire?

2. State and present the evidence to back up your position with regard to the role of Europe in the decline of the Ottoman, the Safavid, or the Mughal Empire (choose one).

3. Research the status and roles of Jews in the trade of the Ottoman Empire.

4. Compare the policies of the Mughal emperors Akbar and Aurangzeb.

INTERNET RESOURCES

The following Internet sites contain written and visual material appropriate for use with this chapter. A more extensive and continually updated list of Internet resources can be found on *The Earth and Its Peoples* web site. Refer to the preface of this manual for information on how to locate the text homepage.

Islamic Art: Late Islamic Art (Los Angeles County Museum of Art)
http://www.lacma.org/islamic_art/ lia.htm

Stileymaniye Mosque (Discovery Channel Online)
http://planetexplorer.online.discovery.com/ref/landmarks/landsuley.html

Persian Art Through the Centuries
http://www.artarena.force9.co.uk/safavidart.htm

The Mughals: Gallery (Washington State University)
http://www.wsu.edu:8080/~dee/MUGHAL/FATEHPUR.HTM
CHAPTER 22

EASTERN EURASIA, 1500–1800

INSTRUCTIONAL OBJECTIVES

After studying this chapter students should:

1. Understand the roles of the Jesuits and the East India Companies in the development of cultural exchange and trade between Europe and Eastern Eurasia.

2. Be able to use the concept of "land-based empires" to analyze the territorial expansion, the economic and political structures, and the foreign relations of the Russian and Qing empires.

3. Be able to describe the causes and symptoms of the decline of the Qing state in the eighteenth century.

4. Be able to describe the Tokugawa political system and explain why and how the decentralized political structure contributed simultaneously to economic growth and to the weakening of the Tokugawa state.

CHAPTER OUTLINE

I. New Patterns of Contact in Eurasia
   A. The land-based empires of Eurasia
      1. In comparison with sea-based empires like those of the Portuguese, Spanish, and Dutch, land-based empires like the Russian and Ming were much more expensive to defend and had fewer choices with regard to directions for possible expansion.
      2. Land-based empires were vulnerable to attack from Central Asia and therefore tried to absorb Central Asian territory and to make it self-supporting by developing agriculture and mining. The scale and expense of defending and transforming Central Asian lands strengthened the tendencies toward emphasis on agriculture and political centralization.
      3. In the long run, the land-based empires were at a disadvantage in their competition with the more flexible sea-based European commercial empires.
   B. New global influences: the Society of Jesus and the East India Companies
      1. European entry into sea trade and communications in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries was the work, not of European states, but of new global organizations: the Society of Jesus (Jesuits) and the East India Companies.
      2. Jesuits such as Francis Xavier and Matteo Ricci brought Catholicism and other European ideas to Japan and China and introduced information about and ideas from Eastern Eurasia to Europe.
3. European merchants including the Portuguese, the Spanish, the Dutch East India Company (VOC) and the East India Company of England opened up new avenues of trade between Europe and Eastern Eurasia.

II. The Triumph of the Russian Empire
A. The rise of Romanov power
1. Following the dissolution of Mongol power in Russia, the city of Moscow became the foundation for a new state, Muscovy, which absorbed the territory of the former Kievan state and Novgorod in the west and conquered the khanates of Kazan, and Astrakhan and the northern Caucasus region in the east. The Muscovite ruler Ivan IV took the title of “tsar” in 1547.
2. Threats and invasions by Sweden and Poland and internal disputes among the Russian aristocracy (boyars) in the seventeenth century led to the overthrow of the old line of Muscovite rulers and the enthronement of Mikhail Romanov in 1613. The Romanov rulers combined consolidation of their authority with territorial expansion to the east.
B. Russians and Turks
1. Speakers of the Slavic Russian tongue were surrounded by and, in some places, intermingled with speakers of Turkic languages. The strong suspicion between speakers of the two languages developed into hostility as the Ottoman Empire came to dominate the Caucasus and the Balkans.
2. Under the Romanovs, the division between Russians and Turks tended to be represented as a division between Christians and “infidels,” civilization and barbarism. In fact, interplay between Turkic and Russian influences produced the Russian Empire.
3. The interplay between Turkic and Russian influences may be seen in the development of the Cossacks, who combined “Turkic” horsemanship and military skills with Russian language and Christian belief.
C. Peter the Great, r. 1689–1725
1. Peter the Great fought the Ottomans in an attempt to gain a warm-water port on the Black Sea and to liberate Constantinople (Istanbul) from Muslim rule, but did not achieve either goal. Peter was more successful in the Great Northern War, in which he broke Swedish control over the Baltic and established direct contacts between Russia and Europe.
2. Following his victory in the Great Northern War, Peter built a new capital, St. Petersburg, which was to contribute the Westernization of the Russian elites and demonstrate to Europeans the sophistication of Russia. The new capital was also intended to help break the power of the boyars by reducing their traditional roles in the government and in the army.
3. Peter wanted to use European technology and culture in order to strengthen Russia and to strengthen the autocratic power of his government; he was not interested in political liberalization. As an autocratic ruler, Peter brought the Russian Orthodox Church under his control, built industrial plants to serve the military, and increased the burdens of taxes and labor on the serfs, whom the Russian Empire depended upon for the production of basic foodstuffs.
D. The Russian drive eastward
1. The natural direction for Russian expansion was the east: expansion in Siberia was led by groups of Cossacks who defeated the only political power in the region, the Khanate of Sibir, and took land from the small hunting and fishing groups of native people. Siberia was valued first for its furs and timber, after 1700 for gold, coal, and iron, and as a penal colony.
2. In the 1650s the expanding Russian Empire met the expanding Qing Empire in Mongolia, Central Asia, and along the Amur. Treaties between the two powers in 1689 and 1727 had the effect of weakening the Mongols and of focusing Russian expansion eastward toward the Pacific coast and across to North America.

3. Russian expansion in Alaska and the American northwest was driven by the search for furs, which British and American entrepreneurs had also been interested in. Control of the natural resources of Siberia put the Russians in a position to dominate the fur and shipping industries of the North Pacific.

4. During the reign of Catherine the Great (r. 1762–1796), Russia was the world's largest land empire, built on an economic basis of large territory, agriculture, logging, fishing, and furs.

III. The Late Ming and Early Qing Empires, 1500–1800
A. The end of the Ming

1. The cultural brilliance and economic achievements of the early Ming continued up to 1600. But at the same time, a number of factors had combined to exhaust the Ming economy, weaken its government, and cause technological stagnation.

2. Some of the problems of the late Ming may be attributed to a drop in annual temperatures between 1645 and 1700, which may have contributed to the agricultural distress, migration, disease, and uprisings of this period. Climate change may also have driven the Mongols and the Manchus to protect their productive lands from Ming control and to take more land along the Ming borders.

3. The flow of New World silver into China in the 1500s and early 1600s caused inflation in prices and taxes that hit the rural population particularly hard.

4. In addition to these global causes of Ming decline, there were also internal factors particular to China. These included disorder and inefficiency in the urban industrial sector (such as the Jingdezhen ceramics factories), no growth in agricultural productivity, and low population growth.

5. The Ming also suffered from increased threats on their borders: to the north and west, there was the threat posed by a newly reunified Mongol confederation, in Korea the Ming incurred heavy financial losses when it helped the Koreans to defeat a Japanese invasion. Rebellions of native peoples rocked the southwest, and Japanese pirates plagued the southeast coast.

6. Rebel forces led by Li Zicheng overthrew the Ming in 1644, and the Manchu Qing Empire then entered Beijing, restored order, and claimed China for its own.

B. Power and trade in the early Qing

1. A Manchu imperial family ruled the Qing Empire, but the Manchus were only a small proportion of the population, and thus depended on diverse people for assistance in ruling the empire. Chinese made up the overwhelming majority of the people and the officials of the Qing Empire.

2. The early Qing emperors wished to foster economic and demographic recovery in China. To this end they encouraged foreign trade and revived overland routes of communication.

3. Acquisition of territory in Central Asia gave the Qing access to the horses of Afghanistan and to deposits of coal, iron, gold, and silver. These conquests also eliminated the military danger of the Mongols.

C. Emperor Kangxi

1. Kangxi (r. 1662–1722) took formal control over his government in 1669 (at the age of sixteen) by executing his chief regent. Kangxi was an intellectual prodigy and a successful military commander who expanded his territory and gave it a high degree of stability.
2. During the Kangxi period the Qing were willing to incorporate ideas and technology from Mongolian, Tibetan, Korean, and Chinese sources. The Qing also adapted European knowledge and technology—mapmaking, astronomy, anatomical and pharmaceutical knowledge—taught by the Jesuits who frequented Kangxi’s court.

3. The Jesuits were also affected by their contact with China. They revised their religious teaching in order to allow Chinese converts to practice Confucian ancestor worship and they transmitted to Europe Chinese technology including an early form of inoculation against smallpox and the management techniques of the huge imperial porcelain factories.

D. Tea and diplomacy
1. The wealth and power of the Qing led to a tremendous enthusiasm in Europe for Chinese things such as silk, tea, porcelain, other decorative items, and wallpaper. Jesuit descriptions of China also led Europeans such as Voltaire to see the Qing emperors as benevolent despots or philosopher-kings from whom the Europeans could learn.

2. The Qing were eager to expand trade, but wanted to control it in order to be able to tax it more efficiently and to control piracy and smuggling. In order to do so, the Qing designated a single market point for each foreign sector: the market point for those coming from the South China Sea (including the various European traders) was the city of Canton. This system worked fairly well until the late 1700s.

3. In the late 1700s the British East India Company and other English traders believed that China’s vast market held the potential for unlimited profit and thought that the Qing trade system (the “Canton System”) stood in the way of opening up new paths for commerce. At the same time, the British Parliament was at once worried about the flow of British silver into China and convinced that opening the China market would help to bring more English merchants into the trade and bring about the end of the outmoded and nearly bankrupt EIC.

4. In 1793–94 the British sent a diplomatic mission led by Lord Macartney to open diplomatic relations with China and revise the trade system. The Macartney mission was a failure, as were similar diplomatic embassies sent by the Dutch, the French, and the Russians.

5. The Russians were now abandoning the Eurasian land-based pattern of imperial expansion and making the transition to the European style of sea exploration and colonization of overseas territories. Although the Qing emperors of the late 1700s did not understand it, this shift in the Russian mode of territorial expansion would destroy the status quo between the Russian and the Qing Empires.

E. Population and social stress
1. The peace enforced by the Qing Empire and the temporary revival of agricultural productivity due to the introduction of American and African crops contributed to a population explosion that brought China’s total population to between 350 million and 400 million by the late 1700s.

2. Population growth was accompanied by increased environmental stress: deforestation, erosion, silting up of river channels and canals, and flooding. The result was localized misery, migration, increased crime, and local rebellions.

3. While the territory and the population of the Qing Empire grew, the number of officials remained about the same. The Qing depended on local elites to maintain local order, but was unable to enforce tax regulations, control standards for entry into government service, or prevent the declining revenue, increased corruption, and increased banditry in the late 1700s.
4. In order to defend itself against Russia, the Qing had conquered a large amount of territory stretching from Northeast Asia to Turkestan, but population growth and the expense of transporting food to these vast non-agricultural areas stressed the agricultural system. The need to invest in agriculture and transport limited Qing investment in new industries and strengthened the government’s interest in taxing foreign trade.

IV. Decentralization and Innovation in Tokugawa Japan, to 1800

A. Shogunate and economy

1. In the late 1500s Japan’s Ashikaga Shogunate had lost control and the country had fallen into a period of chaotic wars between local lords: a new shogun, Tokugawa Ieyasu, brought all the local lords under the administration of his Tokugawa Shogunate in 1600.

2. The Tokugawa gave loyal regional lords rice lands close to the shogunal capital in central Japan, while those lords who had not been supporters of the Tokugawa were given undeveloped lands at the northern and southern extremes of the islands. The Japanese emperor remained in Kyoto but had no political power. This political structure had an important influence on the subsequent development of the Japanese economy.

3. The decentralized system of regional lords meant that Japan developed well-spaced urban centers in all regions, while the shogun’s requirement that the regional lords visit Edo frequently stimulated the development of the transportation infrastructure and the development of commerce, particularly the development of wholesale rice exchanges.

4. The samurai became bureaucrats and consumers of luxury goods, spurring the development of an increasingly independent merchant class whose most successful families cultivated alliances with regional lords and with the shogun himself. By the end of the 1700s the wealthy industrial families were politically influential and held the key to modernization and the development of heavy industry.

B. The “closing” of Japan

1. Jesuits came to Japan in the late 1500s, and while they had limited success in converting the regional lords, they did make a significant number of converts among the farmers of southern and eastern Japan. A rural rebellion in this area in the 1630s was blamed on Christians: the Tokugawa Shogunate responded with persecutions, a ban on Christianity, and, in 1649, the closing of the country.

2. The closed country policy was intended to prevent the spread of foreign influence, but not to exclude knowledge of foreign cultures. A small number of European traders, mainly Dutch, were allowed to reside on a small island near Nagasaki, and Japanese who were interested in the European knowledge that could be gained from European books developed a field known as “Dutch studies.”

3. Some of the “outer lords” at the northern and southern extremes of Japan relied on overseas trade with Korea, Okinawa, Taiwan, China, and Southeast Asia for their fortunes. These lords ignored the closed country policy, and those in the south, in particular, became wealthy from their control of maritime trade, giving them an advantage over the shogunate and the “inner” lords.

C. Elite decline and social crisis

1. Patterns of population growth and economic growth also contributed to the reversal of fortunes between the “inner” and “outer” lords. Population growth in central Japan put a strain on the agricultural economy, but in the outer provinces, economic growth outstripped population growth.

2. The Tokugawa system was also undermined by changes in rice prices and in interest rates which combined to make both the samurai and the regional lords dependent on the willingness of the merchants to give them credit.

3. The Tokugawa shoguns accepted the Confucian idea that agriculture should be the basis of the state and that merchants should occupy a low social position because they lacked
moral virtue, but the decentralized political system made it difficult for the shogunate to regulate merchant activities. In fact, the decentralized system stimulated commerce so that from 1600 to 1800 the economy grew faster than the population and merchants developed relative freedom, influence, and their own vibrant culture.

4. The ideological and social crisis of Tokugawa Japan’s transformation from a military to a civil society is illustrated in the “Forty-seven Ronin” incident of 1702. This incident demonstrates the necessity of making the difficult decision to force the military to obey the civil law in the interests of building a centralized, standardized system of law with which the state could protect the interests of the people.

V. Conclusion
   A. In the early eighteenth century Eurasia was dominated by the Russian and the Qing Empires, two land-based empires that competed for the same resources and preserved social systems that kept the majority of the people in the agricultural sector but which did not allow them the right of land ownership.
   B. The Qing court was open to foreign influences, but its geographical location limited its contact with Europe and its access to European ideas other than those brought by the Jesuits. By contrast, the Russian court of Peter the Great banned the Jesuits but had ready access to a variety of European knowledge, from which Peter chose to accept a variety of military technologies and to reject the tendencies toward liberalization.
   C. Japan differed from both Russia and the Qing empires in having a decentralized political system of local lords linked to the shogun’s court. The Tokugawa system allowed for a variety of regional economic and political policies, gave local lords an incentive to develop their lands, stimulated merchants and local enterprises, and fostered mutually productive relationships between regional lords and merchants.

DISCUSSION QUESTIONS

1. What did the Russian and Qing Empires have in common, and how did these common features affect the relationship between the two?

2. How and why did the role of the Jesuits as transmitters of European ideas differ in Russia, China, and Japan?

3. What role did foreign trade play in the economy of the Qing Empire?

4. How and why did Peter the Great’s attitude toward the west differ from that of Kangxi?

5. Both the Qing and the Tokugawa governments were in decline by 1800. What reasons lay behind the decline of each government?

6. How did the political structure of the Tokugawa Shogunate influence the economic development of early modern Japan?