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**Core Paper VI
RISE OF THE MODERN WEST - I**

COLLECTED AND COMPILED BY

DR. MADHAB CHANDRA SETHI



**ଦୂରନିରନ୍ତର ଶିକ୍ଷା ନିର୍ଦ୍ଦେଶାଳୟ, ଉତ୍କଳ ବିଶ୍ୱବିଦ୍ୟାଳୟ
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Core Paper VI
RISE OF THE MODERN WEST - I

Unit-I: Transition from Feudalism to Capitalism:

1. The problems of Transition: Economic Expansion, Industrial production
2. Trade and Commerce
3. Urban Development, Town Life

Unit-II: Early Colonial Expansion:

1. Motives, Voyages and Explorations.
2. The Conquests of America
3. Mining and Plantation, The African Slaves.

Unit-III: Renaissance and Reformation:

1. Its Social Roots Spread of Humanism in Europe.
2. The Renaissance: Art, Architecture, Sculpture, Painting and Literature
3. Origins and Spread of Reformation Movements.
4. Emergence of European State system: Spain, France, England, Russia

Unit-IV: Economic Developments of the Sixteenth Century:

1. Shift of economic balance from the Mediterranean to the Atlantic.
2. Commercial Revolution- Causes and Nature
3. Growth of Industries and its Impact

Suggested Text Books:

1. Charles A. Nauert, Humanism and the Culture of the Renaissance (1996).
2. Harry Miskimin, The Economy of Later Renaissance Europe: 1460 û1600.

Reference Reading:

1. Meenaxi Phukan, Rise of the Modern West: Social and Economic History of Early Modern Europe.
2. F. Rice, The Foundation of Early Modern Europe.
3. Toynbee, A.J, A Study of History (12 volumes).
4. Maurice Dobb, Transition from Feudalism to Capitalism.
5. Wallbank, T.W. & Bailey, N.M. Civilization: Past and Present.

UNIT-I
CHAPTER-1
THE PROBLEMS OF TRANSITION: ECONOMIC EXPANSION,
INDUSTRIAL PRODUCTION

1.1. Introduction

The atypical system of land tenure in the form of “Feudalism” existed in Europe from about 300 to the end of 13th century C.E. After that the concept of capitalism made its beginning in Europe. Generally it is considered that feudalism ended with the renaissance in Europe, a period in which there was a great resurgence of art, science, literature and human freedom. Though the renaissance played an important role in the transition from feudalism to capitalism, several other reasons also contributed to the transition. These reasons include defects within the feudal system as well as external forces which created a long-lasting impact on the medieval societies in Europe. So, let us first know the meaning of feudalism and capitalism.

Meaning of feudalism and capitalism

Feudalism is a peculiar system of land tenure and of government which existed in Europe in the medieval period. It was an organization of society through the medium of land. The word *feudalism* is derived from the Latin word *feudum*, which means a fief or piece of land held by a vassal on condition of service. Hence, the system evolved by the kings of Europe under which land was given to the landlords and their tenants in return for military services and other services is known as feudalism. This was a system of society in which all social, political and economic rights were closely related to the system of land holdings. It was based on the principle of protection, service, and payments. Those who needed protection secured it from a nobleman, who had his own army and retainers. The nobleman in return secured services and payments from those whom he protected.

Feudalism was developed at a time when land was the only source of wealth and power. Industry and trade had suffered much during barbarian invasions, and it was difficult to sell goods and have cash. Feudalism was comprehensive in its range, but it lacked regularity and uniformity. A study of feudal society in different countries shows that conditions were not the same everywhere, though the main principles were almost the same in all countries. The want of uniformity makes some writers speak of feudalism instead of a feudal system. In the words of Stubbs, feudalism "may be described as a complete organization of society through the medium of land tenure in which from the king down to the lowest landowner all are bound together by obligation and defence ". Thus, the prominent feature of Feudalism were the granting of fiefs or feuds, chiefly in the form of land and labour in return for political and military services- a land contract sealed by ‘Homage’, ‘Oath of Fidelity’ and ‘Investiture’.

On the other hand, the term 'capitalism' in broad sense is difficult to define as different scholars have given different opinions on capitalism. The scholars like Tawney says, “capitalism is no more than a political catchword”. Cromwell and Czerwonky explained capitalism as "an economy of free and fair competition for profit and continuous work opportunity for all." These scholars identify capitalism with the system of 'free enterprise' in which the individual has unfettered economic freedom; a system where economic and social regulations are ruled by contract, where men and free agents in seeking their livelihood and legal compulsions and restrictions are observed. Max Weber defines “capitalism is present wherever the industrial

provision for the need of a human group is carried out by the method of enterprise". He emphasized that the spirit underlying capitalism is the attitude to "seek profit rationally and systematically". Hamilton has mentioned capitalism as a "system in which wealth other than land is used for the definite purpose of securing an income." In the words of Lipson, "The fundamental feature of capitalism is the wage-system under which the worker has no right of ownership in the wares he manufactures he sells not the fruits of his labour but the labour itself a distinction of vital economic significance." According to Cunningham, "The distinguishing feature of capitalist organisation of industry is the possession of material by the employer, who engages the workman and pays his wages; he subsequently makes a profit by the sale of the goods." Furthermore he describes, "The intrusion of capital may not make much apparent change in the conditions under which the work is done but it makes a tremendous change in the personal relations of the workman to his fellowmen when he is reduced to a position of dependence." In short, capitalism is an economic arrangement where production and distribution of goods is carried on by the individuals or group of individuals, who use their stock of accumulated wealth for making more wealth for themselves.

1.2. TRANSITION FROM FEUDALISM TO CAPITALISM IN EUROPE

As we know that nothing happens in this world without any causes. The feudalism which flourished between eleventh and thirteenth centuries began to decline towards the close of the thirteenth century in France and Italy. However, in other parts of Europe it continued to thrive for some time and ultimately disappeared only by 1500 A.D. and led to the beginning of capitalism. There were certain factors which were responsible for the transition from feudalism to capitalism. Some of the internal factors which led to the collapse of feudalism comprise internal wars, rebellions by the common folk and incompetence of the system as a whole.

Causes responsible for the Transition from Feudalism to Capitalism

The term transition means the process or a period of changing from one state or condition to another. Here the transition was from the decline of feudalism to the rise of capitalism. The causes responsible for the decline of feudalism and helped in the rise of capitalism are given below:

Feudalism contained the seeds of self destruction

The system of feudalism contained in itself the seeds of its destruction. According to Henry Martin, "Feudalism concealed in its bosom the weapons with which it would be-itself one day smitten". In course of time when the feudal lords began to assert themselves too much and even did not obey the kings. Hence, the kings who headed the feudal hierarchy, thought of bringing them under their control. In this matter, they got the support from the newly emerged middle classes and freemen who were not under the control of the lords.

Emergence of the Middle Class

The emergence of the middle class also weakened the feudal structure. The middle classes consisting of traders and businessmen provided the king with money with which they began to maintain independent armies. Middle class people were against the mischievous and exploiting feudal barons, and they were ready to help the king in crushing the power of the nobles.

Rise of Towns and development of industries : The growth of towns and industries was a blow to feudalism and rise of capitalism. Due to the growth of trade and commerce, industries in Europe received a boost. The merchants and artisans residing in the towns wished to free themselves from the control of feudal over-lords. Therefore, they either purchased freedom or obtained it by force. They secured the right of self-government and freedom from feudal dues and taxes. After freeing themselves from the control of the nobles, the towns began to maintain their own armed militia and constructed high towers to protect themselves. Thus, the towns enabled the serfs to have their freedom from the clutch of the feudal lords.

The Crusades

The Crusades or the Holy Wars between the Christians and the Muslims weakened the nobles leading to the decline of feudalism. Many nobles from various Christian countries had gone to the East to take part in the Crusades. They lost heavily in the Crusades in terms of men and money. Many died, and those who returned had lost much of their wealth. The nobles impoverished by the Crusades began selling their feudal rights. The Crusades and travel during the middle ages opened new trade options for England. More trade saw the growth of more towns and thus more merchants.

Emergence of Strong Monarchy

The emergence of powerful kings in several countries went far in bringing about the decline of feudalism. Strong kings like Henry VII in England seriously planned to put down the nobles. They had the moral and material support of the middle class. When gun-powder was discovered, kings made it their monopoly. In England, Henry VII used gun-powder to batter the walls of the baronial castles, in which the nobles had entrenched themselves. As Europe became safer, merchants invaded the rural society giving way to wealthy towns and cities. Vassals and fiefs were replaced by private armies and commoners, as merchants became the new source of power for the kings.

The impact of the new ideas

The impact of the new ideas was against feudalism. As feudalism had outlived its purpose, it had to go. In the Dark Age people were in need of protection from nobles against barbarians. Such protection was no more needed. People, who were increasingly becoming conscious of their rights, were no more prepared to tolerate the tyranny of the feudal barons.

Liberation of the serfs

The liberation of the serfs due to enormous growth in trade and commerce also greatly contributed to the decline of feudalism. With the growth of trade and commerce a number of new cities and towns grew which provided new opportunities for work. The serfs got an opportunity to free themselves of the feudal lords. According to custom, a serf could not run away from the manor. If he left the manor and was detected, he would be brought back to the manor. But if he ran away to a nearby town, and evaded detection for one year and one day after his escape, he would earn his freedom. Many serfs escaped to the towns, and evaded detection for a period longer than the stipulated period.

Peasant Revolts of 14th century

The feudal system placed heads of groups between the monarch and the inhabitants, thereby increasing tension between the common folk and the monarch. Peasant Revolts ensued all over Europe in the 14th century, which resulted into the old system being broken up and the beginning of the modern capitalism.

Growth of communications

Another factor was the increase of communication, which broke down the isolated homesteads, assisted the rise of towns, and facilitated the emergence of the middle-class. This process was greatly accelerated in the 14th century and did much to destroy the feudal classifications of society. Towns and cities in turn provided alternative employment opportunities, improving the livelihoods of the peasants and in the process encouraging rural to urban migration.

The expansion of trade and commerce

One of the major factors that led to the transition from feudalism to capitalism was the expansion of trade. Merchants began to prosper as Europe became more stable. They were a unique class of individuals in that they were not bound by obligations, thereby conducting trade in their own interest, or else everything would come to a standstill. Merchants started to transform society, from subsistence to an economic one, thereby revitalizing the notion of capital gain. The new merchant class also provided important money for kings, who stood much to gain by encouraging their trade.

Establishment of Standing Army

Now the monarchs could get money with the help of the merchants and build standing armies that were only loyal to the king, instead of relying on the commoners for military force. The private army had few loyalties, except to money, and were feared all through Europe. The threat of mercenaries led to the employment of professionally trained private soldiers; the Standing Armies, and ultimately the end of Feudalism in Europe.

The Black Death and the Demographic crisis in 14th century

The Black Death which occurred between 1348 to 1350 C.E. severely decreased Europe's population, thereby making labour a valuable commodity. The lords tracked their tenants as capital pleaded for labour. All provisions to control labour proved futile, as poor men entered into service of their own lords as hired labourers. Another factor that weakened feudalism was the demographic crisis in the 14th century. The Great Famine (1315-1317) led to a decline in agricultural production, meaning the lords had to come up with new strategies to obtain sustainability.

Decline of the manorial system

The growing agricultural production led to the decline of the manorial system. The feudal lords started depending more on cities for their demand of luxury items. They needed money for the purpose. To meet their need for money they started renting their land to peasants in exchange for money rent. In this process they simply became the landlords and in most of the cases absentee landlords.

Appearance of nation states

This period also witnessed the appearance of nation states. The monarchs needed help from the emerging capitalist class to fight the war with the feudal lords. Capitalists provided resources to

monarch to fight wars and in return the monarch promised them military support and freedom from various rules and regulations of the manorial control.

Thus, the above factors were responsible for the decline of feudalism and rise of capitalism in Europe.

1.3. PROBLEMS OF TRANSITION

The problems of transition from feudalism to capitalism consists of two aspects (a) Economic Expansion, and (b) Industrial production which was faced by the European states.

1.4. ECONOMIC EXPANSION

The economic expansion is considered as one of the problems of transition from feudalism to capitalism. It is said that capitalism in Europe was preceded by feudalism. The economy of Medieval Europe was based primarily on farming, but as time went by, trade and industry became more important. The towns grew in number and size, and merchants became more important.

Economy in the pre-industrial period

During the pre-industrial period, Medieval Europe had a predominantly agricultural economy. The basic economic unit was the manor, managed by its lord and his officials. This was, in the early Middle Ages especially, a largely self-sufficient farming estate, with its peasant inhabitants growing their own crops, keeping their own cattle, making their own bread, cheese, beer or wine, and as far as possible making and repairing their own equipment, clothes, cottages, furniture and all the necessities of life. Surplus produce was sold at the nearest markets of towns, where equipment which could not be made or maintained in the manor workshops, or luxuries unavailable locally, could be purchased.

On the other hand, the feudal lords in many places had very little interest in improving the technique of agriculture and expansion of output. The feudal lords wanted to extract more taxes from the peasants. So the peasants sometimes used to revolt against the feudal lords, and sometimes fled to the towns. In course of these struggles many peasants were able to free themselves from the clutch of the feudal lords. They also started to keep surplus with themselves and tried to improve and extend their cultivation. Moreover, some artisans and merchants became wealthy enough to buy land from the feudal lords. These factors also weakened the position of feudal lords. In course of time, the economy of medieval Europe expanded with the changes in agriculture and business transaction.

Economy in the Transition period

Changes in agriculture and business transaction

The economy during this period witnessed the changes both in agriculture and business transaction. The changes in the agriculture brought changes in business transaction in Europe. Due to technological advancement, the demand of labour slumped where as the population and land under cultivation increased. The restoration of trade in Europe increased the supply of money in European economy. The increase of the money transaction slackened off the grip of the feudal lords. The internal structure of manor changed due to increase in the money based transaction. During this period, the feudal lords preferred to receive the tax in form of money in place of service. These feudal lords also desired to employ labourers on wages to work on their

fields. The serfs also preferred to pay tax in form of money in place of service. The increase of production and rise in business activities encouraged urbanization and business in Europe.

Long distance trade and increased agricultural product

Economists like Paul Sweezy considered long distance trade as another important factor for the economic expansion. On the other hand, Hunt counter argues that increased agricultural output and productivity provided surplus food and raw materials for handicrafts. It also led to the rapid growth of towns and freed workforce for the manufacturing sector. In due course, the changes in the agricultural sector, freed the workforce from agriculture. The supplementary workforce and increased output of raw material provided a growth momentum to the industrial sector also. All these helped for long distance trade and commerce.

Spread of commercial activities

The spread of commercial activities also became a factor for economic expansion. In the medieval time, barter system(exchange of goods and services) was existing at the annual trade fair, where people could exchange commodities like grain, salt, spices, brocades, gold, diamonds, etc. By the 15th century these fairs were replaced by a market throughout the year. These new emerging markets and cities were free from all feudal lords. During this time, unlike the feudal artisans the new artisans detached all their relations with the agricultural activities. In these upcoming markets, the new and complex systems of currency exchange, debt clearing, credit facilities, and modern business instruments like bills of exchange came into vogue. Now commercial laws started taking shape to deal with commercial crimes. In the mean time capitalist negotiations, contracts, etc. were also started.

The recovery of European economy

More stable conditions began to prevail in western Europe from 11th century onwards. Population began to increase, the volume of trade expanded, and towns in many parts of Europe multiplied in number and grew in size. On the North Sea coast a particularly dense network of trading towns emerged in Flanders; and in northern Italy an even greater concentration of large urban centres developed. Cities such as Venice, Genoa, Milan and Florence grew wealthy on the growing trade handled by their merchants. Much of this went north-west, up the Rhone valleys into central and northern France, where the trade routes linked up with those coming south west from Flanders and the North Sea. International trade fairs in the towns of Champaign, in north-east France, became a regular feature of the international trading scene where merchants from Italy and Flanders dealt directly with one another.

The rise of banking

The growth of trade led to the rise of banking. At first, banking was in the hands of Jewish moneylenders, who were able to use their links with Jewish communities throughout Europe and the Middle East to handle the money needed for international trade. Given the strategic place of north Italy in international trade, it is no surprise that banking networks tended to be based in northern Italian cities. The word “bank” derives from the Italian word for the tables at which the bankers sat in the market place. In the 13th century indigenous Italian banking houses grew up, with agencies as far as London and Paris.

Spread of the market economy

The expansion of trade drew more and more rural communities into the market economy, and links between countryside and towns grew stronger. Manors lost a large measure of their self-sufficiency as they participated more in the money economy. These developments stimulated the expansion of towns, of merchant communities, and of coinage. After great initial disruption, the Black Death accelerated the spread of the markets in the longer term. In proportion to the rest of the economy, towns and cities rose in size and influence. Indeed many cities had regained their pre-plague populations by 1400. All over Western Europe merchants became increasingly wealthy, and politically more powerful. Meanwhile the countryside languished, in levels of population if not in prosperity. In those areas, the influence of large towns and their trade was strongest particularly in southern England, Flanders and northern Italy. With this economic expansion, the feudalism began to die out Europe.

1.5. INDUSTRIAL PRODUCTION

Industrial production is a measure of output of the industrial sector of the economy. The people of Medieval Europe were self dependent. There were no such big industries existed like today. But there were different industries like wool or textile industry, mining industry, etc. However, their main focus was on development in advanced equipment for agriculture and innovative methods of cultivation. We get very few sources regarding the organisation of industrial production in early medieval Europe. In spite of that the people of medieval Europe were advanced in establishing industries. The major event in Europe's history during the early middle ages was the development in agriculture between 6th to late 8th centuries. During this period a novel system of agriculture appropriate to the northern lands emerged. Different elements of it got materialized and consolidated into a new pattern of cultivation which spread to various parts of Europe. This proved to be the most productive agrarian method in relations to manpower that the world had ever seen.

Innovation in agriculture field

In this connection, the first major innovation was the use of a heavy wheeled plough. It was used to deal with heavy soils instead of the light scratch plough of the ancient period. The new plough spread from the Slavs in the 6th century to the Po Valley in the 7th century, Germany in the 8th century and Britain in the 9th century. Its spread revolutionized both agricultural techniques and the relations among cultivators in manorial communities. The new plough was most efficiently used if peasants tilled strips of land and needing eight, rather than two oxen to pull it. This encouraged peasants to pool their resources through a new emphasis on communal co-operation. The spread of the heavy plough was followed by further major innovations like

- ❖ The adoption of a three field system in which only a third of the land was left fallow at any point in time.
- ❖ Emphasis on the use of animal dung to reinvigorate the soil.
- ❖ The planting of pulses which raised the protein content of people's diet.
- ❖ The cultivation of oats which enabled some peasants at least to replace the slow ox with the much faster, although more expensive horse.

Thus, the heavy plough, the open fields, the new integration of agriculture and herding, three field rotation, the modern horse harness, nailed horse shoes, and the whipple tree (for pulling horse drawn vehicles) had combined to into a total system of agrarian development by the year 1100 A.D. This development provided a zone of peasant prosperity stretching right across Northern Europe from the Atlantic to the Dnieper in Russia.

Different Industries

Besides advancement in agricultural equipments and improvement in the methods of cultivation, the people of medieval Europe were accustomed with some industries for their necessities like wool or textile industry, Mining industry, etc. In general the medieval people were self-supporting. Most of what they needed was made and found locally. The sheep they raised provided mutton and wool. Hemp and flax was gathered from the fields and woven into cloth. The hides of animals were tanned to produce leather and the wood from trees was used to keep the blacksmiths' furnaces burning. Potters might not be found locally, but the average medieval person would not have to have gone far to find someone who was making pottery items. The modern system of concentrated manufacturing has come about because of machinery and means of transport that make it possible to produce and transport goods more cheaply than locally by hand.

Although most industries were practiced across the whole of the country, such as weaving cloth, tanning hides and blacksmiths producing metal goods, some industries were concentrated in certain areas. Not all areas were rich in iron ore, or had clay for pottery for instance. It was industries such as mining that could only exist where the minerals could be found.

Mining Industry

In medieval Europe coal was mined and used in the production of iron. Most of the coal was mined from open-cast mines where the coal seams were easily found on or just below the surface of the land. When the easily mined coal began to run out people turned to sea coal. The name sea coal is thought to have been used because the coal was found washed up on beaches but this seems unlikely.

Coal Industry

Coal was the easiest of the minerals to find and simply could be dug up, but other minerals such as tin and lead could only be found in certain areas of England. Cornwall was important for the amount of tin that was mined there, whereas Derbyshire was important for the amounts of lead and silver. It is a county in the East Midlands of England. Henry II granted licenses to those who wanted to dig mines in the royal forests. Due to the skill of the miners digging for these special minerals, the miners became a privileged group. They developed their own courts and were not taxed like other medieval people. They were exempt from normal military service, but due to their specialist skills, could be expected to help dig the mines that were dug beneath castle walls to bring them down.

Wool Industry or Textile Industry

From the twelfth century onwards, wool was the staple industry of England. The production of good-quality woollen cloth for the home market began to expand in the fourteenth century. The home-based woollen industry was made possible, at least in part, by the introduction of water-powered fulling stocks. Fulling means pleat (fabric) so as to make a garment full. Fulling was a

vital process in the production of cloth, converting a relatively loosely-woven fabric into a close-knit one, by soaking it in fresh clean water and fuller's earth, and then pounding it by foot (rather like treading grapes). Fulling stocks, heavy wooden hammers driven by water wheels, achieved the same result with less labour and greater efficiency. During the reign of Henry VII (1485-1509) a fulling mill was constructed on the River Darent at the foot of what is now East Hill close to the town centre.

Textile industry

Wool was a very important trade for England in medieval times and large amounts of wool were produced and exported. Looking after sheep was much easier than growing crops and the Church made large amounts of money from farming sheep on its land. The wool was in high demand from areas in northern Europe like Flanders where it was made into high quality cloth and sold all over Europe and back in England. Wool was woven in England by individuals to clothe their own families and was the basic material used for the clothes they wore.

Lime Industry

Lime (calcium oxide) was used for the manufacture of mortar and also as a fertiliser. It was discovered in medieval times that lime improved soil structure and neutralised excessive soil acidity, leading to increased crop yields. For lime-burning, only broken chalk was required; this was usually quarried right next to the lime-kiln site.

Lime industry in Medieval Europe

Lime was obtained by burning chalk in a specially constructed lime-kiln. Most medieval lime-kilns were 10 or 12 feet in diameter, walled round to three or four feet high, with draught tunnels at the base. Inside the kiln a fire of brushwood was made and broken chalk added to alternate layers with the fuel to the top of the wall, and this was continued up to make a heaped top. The whole was covered with slabs of turf and left to burn for a week or two.

By the thirteenth century, lime-kilns were being built with a tapering bowl-shaped interior with one or two wind tunnels set into the base. Wood was the main fuel used in lime kilns, but was gradually replaced by coal after c.1500. The earliest written reference to this industrial activity at Dartford dates from 1445. It is likely that in early medieval times, Dartford's lime kiln existed to supply the building trade.

Chalk Industry

The Chalk industry was also existed during the medieval period in Europe. The area around Dartford is characterised by man-made structures known as Deneholes. These features consist of a well-like shaft dug through the strata into the chalk. Deneholes were dug in medieval times as a means of extracting good-quality chalk, which could be spread on local farmland to improve the

quality of the soil. This process of fertilising soil was known as far back as Roman times. Chalk was also used for building purposes.

Milling

Of all the machines in use, the mill was the most widespread. It turned wind or water power into cost-effective energy for grinding flour, tanning leather, processing cloth and a variety of other tasks. The mills played an important economic role in medieval society. Although the initial investment in mill machinery and plant was expensive, the long-term return in profits was excellent. It is not therefore surprising to find that important institutions such as the Church and the Knights Templars owned mills on the River Darent either in or close to the town. The River Darent provided a constant and reliable flow of water ideal for driving rudimentary mill machinery.

Metal work

A very high standard of metal-work was achieved by medieval craftsmen. Goldsmiths and Silversmiths produced outstanding pieces. Pewter, which is a mixture of tin and copper or lead, was used in medieval times for making all kinds of goods.

Other industries

Woodworkers were in high demand as most of the houses and the day-to-day utensils were made from wood. Clay potters also made many of the products that were required in medieval times. Plates, bowls and jars made from clay were common in Europe.

CHAPTER-2 TRADE AND COMMERCE

2.1. Introduction

The Middle Ages witnessed a great expansion of trade and commerce between countries in Europe. Prior to this, the society during the early feudalism was essentially a rural society. So, the rise of towns was not something unrelated to this feudal society but a result of its internal development. The development in the productivity both land and labour in the 10th and 11th centuries provided the feudal lords with an increasing surplus of agricultural products. They could use this surplus either for personal consumption (luxury) or for waging war against other feudal lords. In course of time, they encouraged the creation of new centres of trade and commerce i.e. the new towns. However, towards the late Middle Ages, trade and commerce was expanding through the development of these new towns, the agricultural revolution and technological innovations. In towns, trade fairs were hosted as an important venue for merchants to exchange goods and settle accounts. The agricultural revolution also produced surplus food. As trade grew, money transactions replaced the barter system and by the 13th Century, coins

were used extensively and were in high demand. Medieval kings and Italian city-states began to produce their own coins and banks were established as the need to borrow, standardize, secure, store and transport money increased.

2.2. Trade and Commerce

The trade and commerce in the medieval Europe developed to such an extent that even relatively small communities had access to weekly markets. The markets and fairs were organised by large estate owners, town councils, and some churches and monasteries who granted a license to do so by their sovereign. They had hoped to gain revenue from stall holder fees and boost the local economy as shoppers used peripheral services. International trade had been present since Roman times but improvements in transportation and banking, as well as the economic development of northern Europe, caused a boom from the 9th century CE. For example, English wool was sent in huge quantities to manufacturers in Flanders. The trade and commerce was kicked off by the Crusades. The Venetians expanded their trade interests to the Byzantine Empire and new financial mechanisms evolved which allowed even small investors to fund the trade expeditions across Europe by both sea and land.

Growth of markets

The monarchs had given the privilege of license to establish markets in villages, towns and large cities. Markets were regularly held in public squares (or sometimes triangles), in wide streets or even in purpose-built halls. Markets were also organised just outside many castles and monasteries. Usually the markets were held once or twice a week, but the larger towns might have a daily market which moved around different parts of the city depending on the day or have markets for specific goods like meat, fish, bread, etc. The sellers of particular goods, who paid an estate owner, the town, or borough council a fee for the privilege to have a stall, were typically set next to each other in areas so that competition was kept high. Generally the sellers of meat and bread tended to be men, but women stallholders were often the majority, and they sold such staples as eggs, dairy products, poultry, and ale. There were middlemen and women known as regrators who bought goods from producers and sold them on to the market stallholders or producers might pay a vendor to sell their goods for them. The term 'regrator' means a person who regrates or buys up commodities in advance and sells them for a higher price, especially during a crisis. Besides the markets, the sellers of wares also went knocking on the doors of private homes, and these were known as hucksters. The term 'huckster' means a person who sells small items door-to-door or from a stall.

Long distance trade and commerce

The long distance trade and commerce also existed in medieval Europe. Trade of common and low-value goods remained a largely local affair because of the costs of transportation. But merchants had to pay tolls at certain points along the road and at key points like bridges or mountain passes so that only luxury goods were worth transportation over long distance trade. Moving goods by boat or ship was cheaper and safer than by land but then there were potential losses to bad weather and pirates to consider. Thus, the local markets were supplied by the farmed estates that surrounded them and those who wanted non-everyday items like clothing, cloth, or wine had to be prepared to walk half a day or more to the nearest town.

Business shops

Besides the markets in towns, the consumer had the additional option of shops for his convenience. The business men generally lived above their shop which presented a large window onto the street with a stall projecting out from under a wooden canopy.

Business shops along with residence of the traders

In cities, shops selling the same type of goods were often clustered together in the same neighbourhoods, again to increase competition and make the life of city and guild inspectors easier. Sometimes location was directly related to the goods on sale such as horse sellers typically being near the city gates so as to tempt the passing traveller or booksellers near a cathedral and its associated schools of learning. Those trades which involved goods whose quality was absolutely vital such as goldsmiths and armourers were usually located near a town council's administration buildings where they could be kept a close eye on by regulators. Towns also had banks and money-lenders, many of which were Jews as usury was forbidden to Christians by the Church. As a consequence of this clustering of trades, many streets acquired a name which described the trade most represented in them, names which in many cases still survive today.

Annual Trade Fairs

In large towns trade fairs were held annually in large-scale sales. Here people could find a greater range of goods than they might find in their local markets and traders could buy goods at wholesale rate. Prices also tended to be cheaper because there was more competition between sellers of specific items. Fairs boomed in France, England, Flanders, and Germany in the 12th and 13th centuries CE, with one of the most famous areas for them being the Champagne region of France. The fairs which were held in June and October in Troyes, May and September in Saint Ayoul, at Lent in Bar-sur-Aube, and in January at Lagny were encouraged by the Counts of Champagne who also provided policing services and paid the salaries of the army of officials who supervised the fairs.

Products for the market

Traders of wool, cloth, spices, wine, and all manner of other goods gathered from across France and even came from abroad, notably from Flanders, Spain, England, and Italy. Some of these fairs lasted up to 49 days and brought in healthy revenue to the Counts. The fairs had such importance that the French kings even guaranteed to protect merchants travelling to and from the fairs. Not only did the fairs of Champagne become famed across Europe but they were a great boost to the international reputation of Champagne wine.

For many ordinary people, fairs anywhere were a great highlight of the year. People usually had to travel more than a day to reach their nearest fair and so they would stay one or two days in the many taverns and inns which developed around them. There were public entertainments such as the dancing girls of Champagne and all kinds of performing street artists as well as a few more unsavoury aspects such as gambling and prostitution that gave the fairs a poor reputation with

the Church. By the 15th century CE trade fairs had gone into decline as the possibilities for people to buy goods everywhere and at any time had greatly increased.

Growth of International Trade and Commerce

Around 9th century CE, a clearer picture of international trade begins to emerge in medieval Europe. Trade in Europe in the early Middle Ages continued to some degree as it had under the Romans, with shipping being fundamental to the movement of goods from one end of the Mediterranean to the other and via rivers and waterways from south to north and vice versa. However, the extent of international trade in this early period is disputed among historians. There was a movement of goods, especially luxury goods (precious metals, horses, and slaves to name a few), but in what quantities and whether transactions involved money, barter, or gift-exchange is not clear. Jewish and Syrian merchants may have filled the gap left by the demise of the Romans up to the 7th century CE while the Levant also traded with North Africa and the Moors in Spain. It is probable that international trade still remained the affair of only the elite aristocracy and it supported economies rather than drove them.

Goods for international trade and commerce

Different goods traded between the Arab world and Europe included slaves, spices, perfumes, gold, jewels, leather goods, animal skins, and luxury textiles, especially silk. Italian cities specialised in the exports of cloths like linen, unspun cotton, and salt (goods which originally came from Spain, Germany, northern Italy, and the Adriatic). The Italian city-states under the nominal kingship of the Byzantine Empire, began to take over the trade networks of the Mediterranean, particularly Venice and Amalfi coast who would later be joined by Pisa and Genoa and suitable ports in southern Italy. There developed important inland trading centres like Milan which then passed on goods to the coastal cities for further export or more northern cities. The trade connections across the Mediterranean are evidenced in descriptions of European ports in the works of Arab geographers and the high numbers of Arab gold coinage found in, for example, parts of southern Italy.

Slave trade and other articles of trade

In the 10th and 11th centuries CE, Northern Europe also exported internationally, the Vikings amassing large numbers of slaves from their raids and then selling them on. Silver was exported from the mines in Saxony, grain from England was exported to Norway, and Scandinavian timber and fish were imported in the other direction. After the Norman Conquest of Britain in 1066 CE, England switched trade to France and the Low countries, importing cloth and wine and exporting cereals and wool from which Flemish weavers produced textiles.

Crusades and Medieval European Trade

Since the Italian trio of Venice, Pisa, and Genoa gained more and more wealth, so they spread their trading tentacles further, establishing trading posts in North Africa, also gaining trade monopolies in parts of the Byzantine Empire. In return for providing transport, men and fighting

ships for the Crusaders, a permanent presence of Christian armies in cities conquered were kept in Levant from the 12th century CE. In the same century, the Northern Crusades provided southern Europe with yet more slaves. The 13th century CE witnessed more long-distance trade in less valuable and everyday goods as traders benefitted from better roads, canals, and especially more technologically advanced ships. Such factors helped to cut down transportation time, increase capacity, reduce losses and make costs more attractive. In addition, when the goods arrived at their point of sale, more people now had surplus wealth.

Establishment of Trading Ports

During this period international business was booming as many city-ports established international trading posts where foreign merchants were allowed to live temporarily and trade their goods. In the early 13th century CE Genoa, for example, had 198 resident merchants of which 95 were Flemish and 51 French. There were German traders on the famous (and still standing) Rialto bridge of Venice and in the Steelyard area of London. Traders from Marseille and Barcelona permanently camped in the ports of North Africa. Economic migration reached such numbers that these ports developed their own consulates to protect the rights of their nationals and shops and services sprang up to meet their particular tastes in food, clothing, and religions.

Guilds in Medieval Europe

With the growth of towns and trade, people working in specialist occupations united in associations called guilds. There was a guild for each occupation, including bakers, butchers, brewers, weavers, merchants, artisans and tradesmen. Guilds controlled the quantity and quality of goods produced, set prices and trained apprentices in the skills of their trade. Guilds obtained power, limited membership to control trade and protected their members in times of hardship or sickness. During the late middle ages, two types of guilds were developed: the merchant and craft guilds

CHAPTER-3

URBAN DEVELOPMENT, TOWN LIFE

3.1. Introduction

The fall of the Roman Empire and the destruction caused by barbarian invasions resulted in the disappearance of several towns. The population of Rome, which was more than one million, came down to not more than fifty thousand. The same was the fate of several other cities. Nimes in France and Bath in England had almost been wiped out. The set-back to town life in the Dark Age was a great blow to civilization and culture. The centuries of anarchy provided no suitable climate for the continuation of existing towns and the establishment of new ones. Europe took about four hundred years to build or rebuild towns. Owing to business activities of the Vikings and of the Venetians, the tenth century witnessed the beginning of town life in Europe. This was undoubtedly a healthy sign indicating the recovery of urban development in Europe.

3.2. URBAN DEVELOPMENT

In the beginning of the Middle Ages, most of the people of Europe lived in the countryside, either on feudal manors or in religious communities. Many of them worked on farms where they

produced their own food. But by the 12th century, towns were emerging around castles and monasteries and along trade routes. These bustling towns became centers of trade and industry leading to the urban development. Almost all medieval towns were protected by thick stone walls.

Now question comes where this urban development took place. Urban centres grew at certain places having an advantageous position.

- i.* Urban developments arose on the ruins of the old Roman cities or where Roman armies used to be stationed
- ii.* Towns rose around the castles of feudal barons, if favourable conditions prevailed.
- iii.* Urban development also took place near churches and monasteries.
- iv.* Market centres were also favourable for the growth of towns.
- v.* Places easily accessible to the sea grew into urban centres.
- vi.* Some urban centres also rose on banks of rivers,

Factors responsible for the growth of urban centres

Some factors were responsible for the growth of urban centres which are given below.

Death of Nobles

There were many wars fought between the nobles in different times throughout the feudal period. In those wars many nobles died and the towns became free from the feudal control.

Needs of Nobles and Desire to Purchase Rights

Feudal barons, who went on wasting their substance on useless wars, were in want of money. The construction of castles, luxurious living and private wars made the barons seek new sources of money. People of towns were ready to offer money to the needy barons to secure charters of rights. Many barons leased out lands to towns, as they yielded much income.

Brisk Trade

The tremendous increase in trade gave a great impetus to towns. Towns started producing more commodities than what a particular area needed previously. The surplus goods could be sold to the merchants of the East and the articles of the East could be purchased. French traders established commercial contact with the Muslim merchants of North Africa and Italian business men had commercial intercourse with the Muslims of the East. Merchants in countries like England, Belgium, Portugal and also Germany developed brisk commercial activities.

Crusades

Though Christians fought against the Turks in the Crusades in the 12th and 13th centuries to free the holy land of Palestine, they became friendly with each other for the sake of trade. The Crusades created a strong demand for Oriental articles. Spices, silk, precious stones and other articles of the East were imported by the eastern and southern ports of the Mediterranean.

Big urban centers

In the medieval Europe we come across many urban centers. We may mention here the town life and the names of some big towns that became famous in Italy, Flanders and Germany as great centres of trade and commerce, culture and civilization.

Italy

Venice, Florence, Milan, Rome and Genoa were the important towns in Italy. Florence, where a great cultural renaissance began, was called the Athens of Italy. Venice earned fame as the Queen of the Mediterranean. Florence had risen as a town two centuries before Christ. It succumbed to barbarian destruction and recovered only in the 8th century. It was on the cross-

roads between France and Rome had easy access to the Mediterranean. It had its own fleet carrying goods to and fro. It had fabulously rich merchant princes and many flourishing guilds.

Venice, which was built by Italian fugitives during the Lombard invasion in the sixth century, became rich, as the commerce of northern and central Europe flowed to the Near East through this city. Venetians earned fame for their boats and trade, their riches, culture, love of art and learning. For some time, Genoa exercised virtual monopoly over the Black Sea trade.

Flanders (Belgium)

Bruges and Ghent became famous in Flanders (Belgium) as centres of trade in woollen cloths.

Germany

In Germany Cologne, Hamburg, Bremen, Lubeck, Augsburg and Nuremberg were prominent towns. Augsburg and Nuremberg became rich and prosperous, as they were located on the trade route between Venice and the North. They became distributing centres for the goods from the East. Hamburg, Bremen and Lubeck carried on brisk trade with England and the countries of the Baltic Sea.

3.3. TOWN LIFE

The town life in medieval Europe had the following characteristics.

Homes and Households

Medieval towns were typically small and crowded. They were narrow and could be up to four stories high. Most of the houses were made of wood, and they tended to lean over time. Sometimes two facing houses would lean so much, they touched across the street. Rich and poor lived in quite different households. In poorer neighbour hoods, several families might occupy a single house with only one room in which they cooked, ate, and slept. In general, people worked where they lived. For example, if a father or mother was a weaver, the loom would be in their home. Wealthy merchants often had splendid homes. The first level might be given over to a business, including offices and store rooms. The family's living quarters might be on the second level, complete with a solar, a space where the family gathered to eat and talk. An upper level might house servants and apprentices. Even for wealthy families, life was not always comfortable compared to life today. With fireplaces as the main source of heat and light, rooms were cold, smoky, and dim. Most windows were small and covered with oiled parchment instead of glass, so little sunlight came through. Growing up in a medieval town wasn't so easy.

Education and Marriage life

About half of all children died before they became adults, and those who did survive began preparing for their adult roles around the age of seven. Some boys and a few girls attended school, where they learned to read and write. Children from wealthier families might learn to paint and to play music on a lute (a stringed instrument). Other children soon began work as apprentices. In general, people of the Middle Ages believed in an orderly society in which everyone knew their place. Most boys grew up to do the same work as their fathers. Some girls trained for a craft, but most married young, usually around the age of 15, and were soon raising children of their own. For many girls, their education was at home, where they learned cooking, cloth making, and other skills necessary to care for a home and family.

Unhealthy conditions and Disease

Unhealthy living conditions in medieval towns led to the spread of disease. Towns were very dirty places. There was no running water in homes, and instead of bathrooms, people used outdoor privies (shelters used as toilets) or chamber pots that they emptied into nearby streams and canals. Garbage, too, was tossed into streams and canals or onto the streets. People lived

crowded together in small spaces and usually bathed only once a week. Rats and fleas were common and often carried diseases. It's no wonder people were frequently ill. Many illnesses that can be prevented or cured today had no cures in medieval times. One example is leprosy, a disease of the skin and nerves that causes open sores. Because leprosy can spread from one person to another and can cause death, lepers were ordered to live by themselves in isolated houses, usually far from towns. Some towns even passed laws to keep out lepers. Common diseases for which there was no cure at this time included measles, cholera, smallpox, and scarlet fever. The most feared disease was bubonic plague, known as the Black Death. No one knew exactly how diseases were spread. Unfortunately, this made many people look for someone to blame. For example, after an outbreak of illness, Jews were sometimes accused of poisoning wells.

Medical Treatment

Although hospitals were invented during the Middle Ages, there were few of them. When sickness struck, most people were treated in their homes by family members or, sometimes, a doctor. Medieval doctors believed in a combination of prayer and medical treatment, many involving herbs. Using herbs as medicine had a long history based on traditional folk wisdom and knowledge handed down from ancient Greece and Rome. Other treatments were based on less scientific methods. For example, medieval doctors sometimes consulted the positions of the planets and relied on magic charms to heal people.

Another common technique was to “bleed” patients by opening a vein or applying leeches (a type of worm) to the skin to suck out blood. Medieval doctors believed that this “bloodletting” helped restore balance to the body and spirit. Unfortunately, such treatments often weakened a patient further.

Crime and Punishment

Besides being unhealthy, medieval towns were noisy, smelly, crowded, and often unsafe. Pickpockets and thieves were always on the lookout for vulnerable travellers with money in their pouches. Towns were especially dangerous at night because there were no streetlights. In some cities, night watchmen patrolled the streets with candle lanterns to deter, or discourage, criminals. People accused of crimes were held in dirty, crowded jails. Prisoners relied on friends and family to bring them food or money, or else they risked starving or being ill-treated. Wealthy people sometimes left money in their wills to help prisoners buy food.

Trial of the criminals

In the Early Middle Ages, trial by ordeal or combat was often used to establish an accused person's guilt or innocence. In a trial by ordeal, the accused had to pass a dangerous test, such as being thrown into a deep well. Unfortunately, a person who floated instead of drowning was declared guilty because he or she had been “rejected” by the water. In a trial by combat, the accused person had to fight to prove his or her innocence. People believed that God would ensure the right party won. Clergy, women, children, and disabled people could name a champion to fight on their behalf.

Punishments for crimes were very harsh. For lesser crimes, people were fined or put in the stocks (a wooden frame with holes for the person's arms and sometimes legs). Being left in the stocks publicly for hours or days was both painful and humiliating. People found guilty of crimes, such as highway robbery, stealing livestock, treason, or murder, could be hanged or burned at the stake. Executions were carried out in public, often in front of large crowds.

In most parts of Europe, important nobles shared with monarchs the power to prosecute major crimes. In England, kings in the early 1100s began creating a nationwide system of royal

courts. The decisions of royal judges contributed to a growing body of common law. Along with an independent judiciary, or court system, English common law would become an important safeguard of individual rights. Throughout Europe, court trials based on written and oral evidence eventually replaced trials by ordeal or combat.

Leisure and Amusements

Many aspects of town life were challenging and people worked hard, but they also participated in leisure activities. They enjoyed quite a few days off from work, too. In medieval times, people engaged in many of the same activities we enjoy today. Children played with dolls and toys, such as wooden swords, balls, and hobby horses. They rolled hoops and played games like badminton, lawn bowling, and blind man's bluff. Adults also liked games, such as chess, checkers, and backgammon. They might gather to play card games, go dancing, or enjoy other social activities.

Cultural life

Medieval town's people also took time off from work to celebrate special days, such as religious feasts. On Sundays and holidays, animal baiting was a popular, though cruel, amusement. First, a bull or bear was fastened to a stake by a chain around its neck or a back leg, and sometimes by a nose ring. Then, specially trained dogs were set loose to torment the captive animal. Fair days were especially festive, as jugglers, dancers, and clowns entertained the fairgoers. Minstrels performed songs, recited poetry, and played instruments such as harps, while guild members paraded through the streets dressed in special costumes and carrying banners.

Guilds also staged mystery plays in which they acted out Bible stories. Often they performed stories that were appropriate to their guild. In some towns, for instance, the boat builders acted out the story of Noah, which describes how Noah had to build an ark (a large boat) to survive a flood that God sent to "cleanse" the world of sinful people. In other towns, the coopers (barrel makers) acted out this story, too. The coopers put hundreds of water-filled barrels on the rooftops. Then they released the water to represent the 40 days of rain described in the story. Mystery plays gave rise to another type of religious drama, the miracle play. These plays dramatized the lives of saints, often showing the saints performing miracles, or wonders. For example, in England it was popular to portray the story of St. George, who slew a dragon that was about to eat the king's daughter.

Centres of Culture

When compared to the people of the rural areas, the town-dwellers were cultured; they wished to have all the facilities available according to the standards of those days. A well built town had strong protective walls and watch towers known as belfries. They had their own administrative offices, assembly halls, churches, prisons and guilds. They patronised art, architecture, literature and learning, and became centres of culture and civilization.

Administrative and Political Experiments

Some of the medieval towns had good administration. Enterprising town-dwellers were keen on having a well organized and efficient government. Particularly, Italian towns like Venice and Florence were well-governed. They even conducted political and constitutional experiments like the ancient Greek city states. Their functions were similar to those of a state. Town councils organized defence, made laws, imposed taxes, collected customs duties, administered justice, gave charity, encouraged colonies abroad, and made treaties.

The Medieval Guilds

In medieval towns, guilds played a conspicuous part. In fact a study of towns cannot be conducted without discussing them. Hundreds of merchant guilds and craft guilds emerged. They rendered invaluable services to the manufacturers, traders, workers and consumers. They had

much social service to their credit, and social life moved around them. They arranged social functions and feasts in guild halls enabling members to meet one another. They had religious functions too. They participated in religious celebrations and processions. Each guild had a patron saint and generally supported a shrine or chapel.

In ancient Rome there were guilds, but these were destroyed when the barbarians looted and burnt towns and cities. When there was a revival of town life in the 10th and 11th centuries, guilds once again made their appearance. These were organized along the lines of the guilds at Constantinople. Medieval guilds should not be regarded as trade unions of the present day, because their activities were multifarious. The efficient guilds discharged the combined functions of modern employers' associations and employees' unions.

Italian Guilds

Italian guilds, whose number was large, were the leading ones in Europe, as it was in that country that Roman institutions were preserved. In the city of Florence, there were many craft unions and guilds. Textile dealers, wool traders, chemists, bankers, fish-mongers, butchers, bakers, candle-makers, innkeepers, clock-makers, weavers, armour-makers, sword-smiths and silver-smiths had organized themselves into unions. In France and Flanders guilds were revived in the 11th century.

Guilds in Germany

Germany had several local associations of a religious or cultural character and from these emerged guilds of various types. By the thirteenth century German guilds were efficiently organized, and they played a great part in the life of the community. Some of them became so strong and influential that they desired to dominate over municipal councils, political institutions and economic organizations. The Hanseatic League was a very strong and influential guild with a membership of 80 cities of which Lubeck, Cologne, Brunswick, Wisby and Danzig were the most important. It even established factories in Denmark, Sweden, Russia and England.

It is worth to mention that by 13th Century A.D., almost all towns had well developed guilds.

Merchant Guilds

In the 11th century, most of the guilds were of independent merchants and master craftsmen. They were organized on sound lines, and had good leadership, and ample funds. They did much to protect the interests of merchants, and all those who depended on them. The services they rendered were manifold, and all persons in a community, manufacturers, buyers, sellers, workers and consumers derived benefits from them. Purchasing raw materials in bulk, insuring goods against fire and losses, organizing food supply, building and maintaining roads and docks, protecting highways, maintaining high standard of goods, fixing reasonable prices and wages, supervising markets and labour, and weeding out dishonest traders and producers were some of the basic functions of the leading guilds.

They also took deep interest in political and government affairs, controlled municipal councils and helped communes struggling against oppressive kings, nobles, and bishops. Unfortunately, in course of time they became so powerful that they themselves became oligarchies, which could be oppressive like kings and nobles.

A guild had a patron saint. Its affairs were managed by its own capable officers consisting aldermen, recorders, treasurers, bailiffs, sergeants and others. It had its own courts for settling disputes between members before going to a court of the government. It had its own well built and beautified guild hall.

Craft Guilds

Craftsmen were controlled by but excluded from the merchant guilds. So in the twelfth century craftsmen in each industry formed their own guilds. In the thirteenth century, craft guilds could be found all over Europe. Paris had about one hundred craft guilds, Venice fifty-eight, Genoa thirty-three, Florence twenty-one and Cologne twenty-six guilds. Like the merchant guilds, the craft guilds also were managed with great efficiency. Each protected the interests of its members and developed a kind of monopoly. It paid great attention to division of labour, and expected a high level of efficiency from craftsmen. Each guild guarded its interests most jealously, and no one could become a craftsman unless he was a member of a particular craft guild.

Rules and regulations of craft guild

Craft guilds had their own assemblies, which elected the guild leaders. Each guild made its own rules subject to the laws of the state and the regulations made by merchant guilds. These rules dealt with the working conditions of craftsmen, their wages, prices of their products, number of masters in an area, apprenticeship and other matters. Each guild aimed at producing high quality goods on which it put its own trade-mark or guild-mark guaranteeing the standard. Disciplinary action was taken against members indulging in fraudulent practices like cornering goods and creating artificial scarcity, lowering the quality of the products and raising prices. Poor quality goods were seized and destroyed or given away.

Like merchant guilds, craft guilds also rendered beneficial social services. They built churches, schools, hospitals, gave poor relief, provided insurance protection, arranged for funerals, paid dowries, and rendered many other odd services. They gave protection to craftsmen from the oligarchic tendencies developed by merchant guilds.

Apprenticeship in guilds

Craft guilds prescribed a long and hard apprenticeship. In a craft a person had to work long to develop the necessary skill, and strict regulations were made to ensure the production of high quality goods. The parents of a boy who aspired to be a skilled craftsman entered into a contract with a master craftsman. Generally they paid him a small fee. The boy had to undergo an apprenticeship under the master for three years, if it was a simple craft, and for ten to twelve years, if it was a difficult craft like the jeweller's. He had to live with the master and serve him in his house and shop. An intimate relationship would be developed between the two. The master would behave as a foster father and exercise the father's authority. Food, clothing and shelter were provided by the master, though the boy received no payment. The master taught him to read and write, and brought about his social, moral and technical progress. In a way, an apprentice was like a serf. Though he was not a slave, he had no freedom. If he ran away, he would be brought back and punished, and if he continued to play truant, he would not be admitted to the craft guild.

After serving successfully for the term as required, the apprentice would be promoted to the rank of a journeyman moving from one master to another as a worker. The lot of the journeyman was hard and unenviable. Hours of work were long and payment small. However, he had more freedom than an apprentice.

After two to three years of service as a journeyman, his ability was put to a difficult test by a board of the guild. If he passed the test, he became a master. A master was a worker, employer, and retail merchant all rolled into one. In some cases, a good sample of the craft known as the Masterpiece had to be submitted to the governors of the guild. A master would not be recognized till he married and settled down, and was formally admitted into the guild as a master in the craft. Generally, a young man followed the craft of his father. But there were exceptions. The son of a butcher might take up the craft of a carpenter.

Decline of Guilds

In course of time guilds declined owing to various causes. As towns became very rich and prosperous, guilds became less democratic. They were dominated by a few powerful and wealthy masters, and the production and sale of goods were controlled by them. Gradually the power of the state increased, and it deprived the guilds of their former powers. The activities of the state expanded and those of the guilds contracted.

Hardships of the people in towns

In the middle ages in Europe manufacturers, traders, craftsmen and people in general suffered from many hardships.

(a) Restrictions:

In certain parts of Europe, trade restrictions were too many, and these acted as a wet blanket on manufacturers and traders. Towns, which continued to remain under baronial control, had to cater to the whims of the lord. For instance, feudal barons would demand dues in the form of fish or wine. Tolls were levied at every village, castle, bridge and ford, and these proved to be vexatious. Wholesale trading was difficult, as a producer or trader could not dispose of the entire stock to one merchant. Manufacturers, traders and craftsmen had to struggle hard to rise in society. The barons and the clergy regarded themselves as superior to others and looked down on the trader.

(b) Coinage Problems:

Coinage also presented great problems. Impoverished or needy kings and barons debased coins, and antisocial elements clipped their rough edges. Enough coins were not put into circulation, as gold and silver mines in Western Europe could not meet the increasing demand for coins. Then again, much confusion was caused by different coins being put in circulation at the same time.

(c) Inadequate Credit Facilities:

Credit facilities were meagre, and manufacturers and merchants could not run their business easily or expand it. In the middle ages, financiers and money-lenders were looked down upon as parasites. The Church condemned money-lending as immoral and anti-Christian, and even the collection of moderate rates of interest was forbidden. The Jews became unpopular on account of money-lending, and Christian conduct could not be expected from them.

(d) Problem of Transport and Security:

Transporting goods was by no means an easy problem. Despatch of goods by sea presented special difficulties. In addition to the natural dangers in the high seas, there were man-made perils. Well-organized, well-financed and well-patronised pirates made shipping truly dangerous. Sometimes many towns had to pool their resources to fight the menace of the sea-thugs. In Germany, the Hanseatic League having a membership of as many as eighty cities was established to check the plague of piracy.

(e) Never ending quarrels and disunity

Many towns suffered heavily owing to never ending quarrels and disunity. At times long-standing rivalry between business houses, guilds, or political groups suddenly flared up into a civil war resulting in much loss of life and property. In certain cases, there was bitter enmity between cities, which fought recklessly till one of them was destroyed.

Contributions of towns

Medieval towns made significant contributions to enrich the culture and civilization of Europe.

Political Contribution

Prosperous towns had excellent administrative machinery and various successful political experiments were conducted. Through their councils, they made representative polity possible. Rich and populous cities successfully ran their political institutions, and kings were forced to recognize their importance. Representatives of cities and boroughs were given seats in the councils of kings. Town councils provided precedents for the establishment of national parliaments.

Economic Contribution

Medieval towns made great contribution in the economic field. Commodities of many kinds were produced for meeting the needs of society. Merchants exported the surplus goods and imported necessary goods from foreign countries. Thus towns produced much wealth and brought prosperity. Periodical fairs were well organized in important European cities for the display and sale of many kinds of goods. The greatest contribution in the economic field was made by guilds. The cities of northern Italy took the initiative to bring about a transition from barter to money economy. They began using coins and standardised coinage. The coins of great cities like Venice and Florence acquired prestige, and in course of time the Florentine Florin and the Venetian Ducat were accepted at face value by traders in all countries.

Medieval cities developed banking. The Knights Templars of France established the earliest banks, which accepted deposits with current accounts. As the cities of Florence and Siena, which also started banks, handled the revenues of the Pope, they secured the prestigious title of the Pope's Money-changers.

Improvement of Culture

Towns did much for improving the culture of society. Social standards in towns went up with the accumulation of wealth. The contact of European towns with wealthy Oriental countries brought about great social changes. Merchants, who saw luxurious standards in other countries, introduced them in their own home-towns. People in towns mixed with one another for buying goods and also for hearing the news about the outside world brought by traders from foreign countries.

Art and Agriculture

Medieval towns did much in the field of art, architecture and learning. Particularly the Italian cities were vying with one another in contributing richly to art and literature. Florence, Venice and other towns patronised celebrated artists, architects, scholars and poets. In Florence, poets like Dante and artists like Fra Filippo Lippi made classical contribution. Towns had beautiful paintings, pictures, carvings, palaces, churches, schools and monasteries and they became centres of culture and civilization. The early medieval buildings were in Roman style. But in the twelfth century a new type of architecture called Gothic arose. The city of Venice looked like Constantinople on account of its grand buildings, many of which were Oriental in style. Tile medieval town halls and cathedrals built in the medieval age in England, France, Italy, Spain and Germany were far more beautiful than the modern structures.

Inter-Town Co-operation

Medieval towns set examples of Inter-town co-operation. Civic institutions in towns conducted the functions of a state and made treaties with foreign towns. In some cases, many towns co-operated with one another to realise common objectives. In 1167, the important cities of north Italy formed the Lombard League with the help of the Pope to protect themselves from German aggression. In 1241, for mutual co-operation and support Hamburg and Lubeck formed the Hanseatic League. The League expanded and by 1300 it had a membership of eighty cities from Holland to Livonia. The League organized its own fleet and navy for fighting against pirates. It

started industries, expanded trade and commerce by establishing trading stations in London, Novgorod and Bruges, and helped ship-wrecked sailors.

Unit-2
CHAPTER-4
MOTIVES, VOYAGES AND EXPLORATIONS

4.1. Introduction

The European Age of Exploration had a great effect on the course of history of the world. During the period of 15th and 16th centuries, the countries of Europe were involved in explorations and discovered a number of new countries and sea routes. These European countries colonized and Europeanized those explored countries. The mission of explorations was begun by Marco Polo of Venice in the thirteenth century who reached China and Japan. On his return, he published a book in which he mentioned about the profuse wealth of the Eastern countries. This created the interest among the Europeans in the Eastern lands and inspired them to undertake explorations to different parts of the world.

4.2. MOTIVES OF VOYAGES AND EXPLORATIONS

Like the Renaissance and the Protestant Reformation, the voyages and explorations were not made suddenly. Several motives were at work for a long time, which prompted European powers to undertake the epoch-making explorations:

Capture of Constantinople by the Turks

The capture of Constantinople, the capital of the Byzantine Empire, by the Ottoman Turks was one of the most important motives prompting the explorations of new sea routes and new countries. According to Webster, "The deed of commerce largely accounts for early voyages and explorations. Eastern spices like cinnamon, cloves, nutmeg and ginger, etc. were used more freely in medieval times than now." For many years, Europe had enjoyed a flourishing trade and commerce with Asia through Constantinople, the capital of the Eastern Roman Empire. In 1453 Constantinople fell into the hands the Ottoman Turks and Europe's trade with the East disturbed. As the Europeans were very keen to have trade with the East they embarked upon the task of exploring new sea routes.

Strong Demand for Oriental Commodities

Consumers in European countries expressed a strong demand for Oriental commodities. Particularly the demand for Asian spices and slaves was great, and to meet this demand European sailors and traders were working ceaselessly. The temptations of the East like silk from China, pepper and cinnamon and other spices from the Indies, cotton goods and precious stones from India, and weapons from Muslim cities made the Europeans brave death. The use of ice as a preservative was not known, and so there was a great demand for spices. The ever increasing and insatiable demand for these goods amongst the affluent sections of the European society encouraged the European merchants for explorations of new sea routes to the East so that they could bring these luxury items and make enormous profits.

Desire to Spread Christianity

The desire to spread Christianity was another motive of geographical explorations. Christianity is a highly missionary religion. In the fifteenth century a powerful Christian missionary movement merged and a large number of Christian missionaries showed their keenness to spread the message of Christ to every nook and corner of the world even at the cost of their lives. These missionaries were often supported by the European traders and merchants who were also keen to

exploit the unexplored lands. The hope of converting the people of the newly discovered countries to Christianity encouraged the kings, nobles and missionaries for explorations of new lands. Kings of Portugal and Spain had the ambition of spreading Christianity in the new countries as soon as they were discovered.

Love of Adventure

Many enterprising young men came forward to sail to the distant nooks and corners of the world for the sake of satisfying their keen desire to experience adventure and face dangers. Profits were undoubtedly also tempting their mind. Apart from the desire to gain wealth and luxurious articles from East, some young men were also inspired by the spirit of adventure to undertake voyages to unknown lands and discovered the undiscovered lands.

Ambition of Non-Italian Traders

In the middle ages the major share of profits of European trade went to Italy. The merchants of other countries of Europe felt that the Italian monopoly over Oriental trade prevented them from making huge profit. The only way of improving their trade prospects was to have direct contacts with the East. This would be possible only if new routes by the sea were discovered.

Increase of Geographical Knowledge

The increase of geographical knowledge also led to the explorations of new routes and lands. Travellers, sailors and lovers of adventure had the advantage of a number of books published in the fifteenth century which provided useful information about the trade routes between Far East and West and improved the geographical knowledge of the Europeans. Some of the prominent works produced during this period were *A Merchants Handbook* by Florentine; *The Secrets of the Faithful Crusades* by a Venitian writer; and books on travels such as *The Holy Lands* and *Africa*. The repeated assertion of the clergy that the earth was flat and the unknown seas as filled with terrible monsters, as against the assertion of the geographers that the earth was round, also inspired the eager explorers to test it for themselves whether the earth was flat or round. Therefore, they undertook voyages and explored the lands.

Mariner Compass and knowledge of ship building

The invention of the Mariner Compass gave the navigator an idea about the direction in which they were sailing also provided an impetus to geographical explorations. Mariners' Compass Along with it improvement in the ship-building techniques provided further encouragement to the explorers to undertake voyages.

Patronage of Kings

The patronage of kings also went far in the field of geographical explorations. Prince Henry the Navigator of Portugal (1394-1460) who took great interest in shipping and navigation, earned him the title "Navigator". Though he himself was not an explorer, he was the motive force behind the great sailors. His school of navigators engaged the services of the best sailors and geographers. For forty years Henry was a perennial source of inspiration and guidance to the European sailors and explorers.

Improvements in Navigation

Improvements in navigation also led to geographical explorations. Besides having the adventurous spirit to sail in the unknown seas, sailors had developed much knowledge, skill and experience in navigation. Inquisitively the activities of smugglers and pirates proved to be very useful in the progress of navigation. As the Renaissance was slowly unfolding itself, new inventions and discoveries were made, and these were helpful to navigators. The mariner's compass with the magnetic needle, the astrolabe, the quadrant, the art of map-making, and the growth of knowledge in geography and astronomy were useful to geographical explorers. The

astrolabe made it possible for a navigator out of sight of land to know his latitude, and the quadrant enabled him to know the altitude.

Fabulous Wealth of the East

The Oriental countries were rich, and the European travellers who visited them gave glowing accounts of fabulous wealth of the east. In the middle ages, the Crusades (from the 11th to the 13th century) brought about a closer contact between the Christians and the Muslims. Christians were eager to improve to their standards of living by earning more. This was possible by enlarging commercial contacts with the Oriental countries. Trade profits would be huge only if Europeans were able to discover new sea routes. Many adventurous sailors and traders were ready to risk their lives for realising their ambitions. To the people of Europe, Cathay (China) about which Marco Polo gave a glowing description became a land of promise.

Thus, the above motives prompted the European powers to go for voyages and exploration of new lands around the world.

4.3. VOYAGES AND EXPLORATIONS

In geographical explorations and discoveries, though, all the major powers like Portugal, Spain, England and France of Europe were involved at that time, but the lead in this respect was taken by Portugal.

Portuguese Explorations

The Portuguese were pioneers in the field of geographical exploration and discoveries. Henry, the navigator, known as the prince of navigators paid special attention to explorations. (Prince Henry, the navigator)

He set up a school for sea men and provided them every possible help and encouragement. Under his patronage annual expeditions were organised to explore the west coast of Africa. Henry requisitioned the services of learned geographers, map-makers, sailors and ship designers. He is also credited with having built a ship named Caravel which could undertake long voyages in stormy weather through the open sea. With the patronage of Henry, the Portuguese explored a number of islands on the western coast of Africa such as Madrina Islands, the Azores and West African Guinea Coast. Apart from helping in the establishment of a number of Portuguese colonies, Henry also discovered the ocean routes to India as well as America. No wonder in view of his contributions he is often described as the father of modern colonisation.

Equator Crossed

One great achievement was the crossing of the equator in 1472 by Lopo Gonsalves, The significance of this can be fully understood in the light of the fact that people had all kinds of superstitious beliefs and fears about the crossing of the equator. It was seriously believed that it would be impossible to cross the equator as the heat of the equator would reduce human beings to ashes.

Exploration of Congo

In 1482 the mouth of the river Congo was explored by Diego Cao.

Bartholomew Diaz

In the year 1486 one more Portuguese sailor Bartholomew Diaz set out on a voyage in the belief that ships which sailed down the coast of Guinea would be sure to reach the end of the land by persisting in a southward direction. However, after sometime he was handicapped by the adverse currents and sailed South. He then took an easterly course and again changed his course

to north and thus landed at Mossel Bay. He further followed up the coast and reached the southern tip of Africa which he named as the Cape of Storms because he was caught in one serious storm there. Afterwards the King renamed this cape as Cape of Good Hope as it gave a definite hope of exploring a sea route to the East. He died in 1500 in a storm off the African coast on a voyage led by Cabral, who discovered Brazil.

Explorations of Christopher Columbus

Christopher Columbus, a sailor from Genoa in Italy, discovered America. He was not a Spaniard, though he secured the help of the Spanish government. He was a great sailor, who had joined several expeditions. Originally he was employed under Portugal, and by making voyages to the Guinea coast and to Iceland he had gained actual experience of the Atlantic Ocean right from the Arctic regions to the Equator.

Christopher Columbus (1451-1506)

The idea which inspired him and fired his imagination came from books on adventurous voyages, particularly those of Marco Polo and Toscanelli, the geographer. From Toscanelli he had the idea that the best way of sailing to the East Indies was by sailing westwards. His appeal to the rulers of Genoa (his native place) and Venice for help failed. His idea of sailing to the Far East was regarded as foolish. After appealing for help from one court to another for long years, he was able to have the patronage of King Ferdinand and Queen Isabella of Spain, who entertained the ambition of converting a large number of people to Christianity in the land which Columbus hoped to reach. Santaguel, an Aragonese official, agreed to meet the cost of his expedition. Columbus carried with him a letter of Ferdinand to the Khan of Cathay (China). Thus he set sail not for discovering a new continent but for reaching Cathay, When the 41-year-old Columbus set sailing from Palos near Cadiz on August 3, 1492 at the head of 88 men in three small ships, the Santa Maria, the Nina, and the Pinta, with provisions for a year, the destination was the Far East. The ships were ridiculously small when compared to the modern ships, which are of 20,000, 40,000 or even 80,000 tons. The largest ship of Columbus, the Santa Maria, was only of 100 tons, which could carry only 52 men. However, he was able to secure the help of two captains, the Pinzon brothers.

After sailing for two months and nine days, they sighted land on October 12, 1492 and reached San Salvador (Holy Saviour) or the Watling Island, one of the Bahama Islands, and believed that they had reached the East. During their stay for a few months, he and his men explored Cuba and Haiti, and had a good knowledge of the West Indian Archipelago. They thought that Cuba was a part of the mainland of Asia, and Haiti was regarded as Zipangu, the golden land of Marco Polo. It may be noted here that they did not discover the mainland of America. On his return, great honour was shown to Columbus in Spain.

In 1493, the second voyage of less than six weeks was undertaken to the new world by 17 ships and 1,500 men. This time they carried with them all the necessary materials and even animals for establishing a new colony. The colonists disembarked on Hispaniola (Little Spain), now known as Haiti. Columbus discovered most of the islands now known as the Greater Antilles, and not the mainland. The colony of Haiti was a dismal failure. The explorers sent to Spain five ships full of Red Indians to be sold as slaves. The third expedition was made in 1498. This resulted in the discovery of South America at the mouth of the Orinoco River and the island of Trinidad. When Columbus returned to Haiti, the government imprisoned him and sent him back to Spain in chains. Though by royal decree he was released, his popularity severely walled. In 1503 Columbus conducted his fourth and final expedition, but this again was not very successful. The fourth expedition resulted in the discovery of Martinique, Honduras on the coast of

Central America and the southern coast of the Gulf of Mexico Columbus died in broken health and obscurity in 1506 at Vanadolio.

Columbus succeeded in discovering the West Indies Islands, and the coasts of Honduras, Costa Rica, Darien and Para in Venezuela. On order to commemorate the day on which Columbus discovered America, October 12, which is Columbus Day, is a legal holiday in most of the States in America. It is significant to note here that he died before knowing that he had discovered America.

French and English Explorations

Exploration of north-west and north- east routes

At a time when the Portuguese and Spanish sailors were discovering new seas and new lands, English and French explorers launched expeditions to discover North-west and North-east routes to the East. Though their efforts proved abortive, they succeeded in discovering new lands, which were useful for trade and colonisation.

French Explorations

A great French explorer, Jacques Cartier had to his credit the exploration of North America and the mouth of the river St. Lawrence between 1534 and 1541.

King Francis I of France (1515-1547) could extend French colonies to Canada and the Mississippi Valley owing to the explorations of Govianni De Verrazano, Samuel De Champlain, Robert Chevalier De La Salle, Louis Joliet and Jacques Marquette.

English Explorations

The English also did not lack behind in the field of explorations. The following explorations were made by the English explorers.

John Cabot

King Henry VII of England sent in 1497 an expedition under John Cabot, an Italian from Genoa, to sail westward. Cabot reached Cape Breton Island after crossing the Atlantic.

John Cabot

He believed that he had reached the country of the Great Khan. Cabot's expedition enabled England to lay claim on the mainland of North America. He named one of the islands there as New Foundland. Later on, English advanced their claims over the mainland of North America on the basis of this exploration of Cabot.

Walter Raleigh

Another sailor named Walter Raleigh also sailed to America and established the colony of Virginia, after the name of Queen Elizabeth, the Virgin Queen. Raleigh brought the plants of tobacco and potatoes from America to Europe. He took another voyage to South America in search of gold mines during the period of James I, but his voyage proved unsuccessful.

Francis Drake

Another famous explorer of England who went round the earth was Francis Drake. He set out on his voyage in 1577 and returned to England in 1580. He also rendered valuable service to the British navy in defeating the Spanish Armada.

Results of the geographical explorations

The outcomes of the geographical explorations were both good and bad. We may analyse these briefly here.

Good Effects

The Western countries enjoyed the good effects of geographical exploration.

World Became Larger

The world that human beings knew became larger than what it was to their knowledge. The two huge continents of North America and South America were added. The size of the continent of Africa was known. History since these geographical explorations was of an enlarged world.

Increase of Human Knowledge

The world is grateful to Henry the Navigator, Bartholomew Diaz, Vasco da Gama, Columbus, Amerigo Vespucci, Magellan, John Cabot and others for bringing to the knowledge of the world sea routes and lands unknown till then. They added to the stock of human knowledge and enlarged intellectual horizons. The explorations contributed much to the making of the modern times. The successful voyages and explorations clearly proved that many of the ideas stubbornly supported by the Church in the middle ages were wrong. It was actually demonstrated beyond a shadow of doubt that the world is round, and not flat and that the sun is the centre of the solar system and not the earth. The increase of knowledge and the development of the new outlook weakened the Church. The dogmas and theories of the Church stood debunked and exposed in all their hollowness.

Established East-West Contact on a Large Scale

The discovery of the new sea routes and the new lands established East west contact on a large scale. The comparative isolation of the West was broken. Since the explorations, a large number of Europeans came to the East for various reasons like trade, conquest, colonisation and Conversion to Christianity. The effects of their mutual impact were felt by the East and the West.

Entry of New and more Articles into Europe

The geographical discoveries enabled Europe not only to have an adequate supply of essential commodities, but also to have articles unknown to it till then. The new commodities on their entry into the European markets became very powerful, and European consumers expressed greater demand for the articles. Indian textiles and Persian carpets had more and more demand only after the discovery of the new sea routes. From the Americas, commodities, which the Europeans had never seen or known, were imported. Thus, tobacco, potatoes, cocoa, chocolate, quinine, cane sugar, dye-woods, furs, whale oil, indigo, coffee, tea, porcelain, cotton, spices, silks, and many other commodities entered European markets and homes.

Supplies of Precious Metals to Europe

Huge hoards of gold from Mexico and Peru, and silver from Bolivia poured into Europe, which witnessed unprecedented prosperity. The metals were utilised to purchase commodities of various kinds, and there was further increase in commercial activities. The supply of money in circulation increased, prices shot up, profits multiplied, and wages followed a similar trend, though not to the same extent. The period following the explorations saw brisk economic activities at places, which were lying dormant earlier. "With the increase in wealth, the standard of living of Europeans went up. The prosperity, however, was not shared reasonably by all sections of society. While the manufacturers and traders reaped the lion's share of profit, the workers had to rest content with only a relatively meagre increase in wages.

Centre of Trade Shifted from the Mediterranean to the Atlantic

The discovery of the new sea routes increased the importance of the Atlantic Ocean and reduced that of the Mediterranean and the Baltic Seas. In the middle ages Asiatic and European merchants carried on trade at the ports of the two seas. Particularly Italian ports like Genoa and Venice were of great importance.

After the centre of trade was shifted to the Atlantic, ports like London, Lisbon, Antwerp, Amsterdam and other ports became important as great centres of commerce and industry, and Venice, Genoa, Hamburg and Lubeck suffered a great set-back. The industry and trade of Italy

and Turkey suffered, and these countries were no more at the top as commercial powers. Norway, Sweden. Germany and Russia also had a great economic set-back.

Rise of New Classes

New classes emerged in society as a result of expansion in industry and trade. A new nobility of merchant princes arose all over Europe. Members of the lower classes from Europe settled down in the colonies abroad, and these in course of time taking full advantage of the opportunities they had rose in rank and status to become a powerful middle class.

Spread of Christianity

Christianity had unlimited scope of expansion all over the world. Christian missionaries introduced Christianity in the Americas, Africa and Asia. Often missionaries were supported by kings, nobles and explorers themselves.

Rise of Stable Monarchy

The effects of the geographical explorations were favourable for the rise of stable monarchy. The new class of rich merchants and the middle classes welcomed the stable rule of absolute monarchs in England, Spain, France and other countries.

Relief to the Oppressed

The discovery of the new lands provided opportunities to the oppressed people of Europe to have a better lease of life. In Europe, after the Christian Church broke up as a result of the Reformation movement, cruel persecution of people went on unchecked. Now these oppressed people sought refuge in the colonies of the New World.

Bad Effects

Most of the bad effects were on the Oriental countries:

Colonialism, Imperialism and Exploitation

The Oriental countries felt all the evil effects of Western colonialism, imperialism and exploitation. While the explorations brought immense wealth and unprecedented prosperity to the West, they brought poverty, misery and humiliation to the East. European countries, which patronised and financed the expeditions, built up huge colonial empires. Thus, arose the colonial empires of Portugal, Spain, Holland, France, Britain and other European powers. People in these empires were ruthlessly exploited. The exploitation and oppression was aggravated by the Industrial Revolution (1750-1850) about two hundred years later.

Rivalry between Spain and Portugal

After the explorations, great enmity rose between Spain and Portugal, and it was ended only when Pope Alexander VI interfered to settle the rival claims and divided the discovered countries between Spain and Portugal by the Treaty of Tordesillas in 1494. Spain was assigned all lands lying west of a line of demarcation drawn three hundred and seventy leagues to the West of Azores, and Portugal those east of that line. The Portuguese were to enjoy monopoly of trade and colonisation over Brazil, Africa, India and the East Indies. The Spaniards were to have monopoly over West Indies, North America, Central America and South America except Brazil. On the division of the countries, the representatives of Spain and Portugal rushed to the new world like cruel and bloodthirsty maniacs to take possession of their shares, Casting mercy, decency and humanity to the winds, Balboa, Ponce de Leou, Hernando Cortez, Francisco Pizarro and others expanded the Spanish empire, which now covered Central America, Mexico, Peru, the Mississippi Valley, Southwest of the United States of America, the Floridas and the Philippines. Portugal was less lucky than Spain, though both were equally aggressive and ruthless. She could only occupy Brazil, but she richly compensated herself by building up a far-flung commercial empire including the parts of Africa, India, China, Japan, the Malaya Archipelago and the East

Indies. In the years following the outbreak of the Industrial Revolution (1750-1850) the colonies were more thoroughly exploited with systematic ruthlessness.

Destruction of Ancient Cultures

European explorers and conquerors destroyed the old civilizations of Peru, Mexico and Brazil, and imposed Christianity on the peoples of these countries, by following the most un-Christian methods. Mexico was conquered by Cortez in the early years of the sixteenth century. A little later Peru was conquered by Pizarro. The Aztec culture of Mexico and the Inca culture of Peru were among the earliest rich cultures of the world, and they could challenge comparison with the ancient cultures of Egypt and Babylonia. The Aztec Empire of Mexico was destroyed by the Spanish vandals under Cortez in 1519. The Aztecs in Mexico had superseded an earlier culture called the Maya. The Maya culture was flourishing as indicated by the rich crops grown by the people, and the beautiful cities, temples and palaces built by them. The Inca culture of Peru, which could boast of wealth and splendour and numerous works of public utility, was also annihilated by the ruthless Spanish adventurers.

East Pushed Backward

Ultimately the East was pushed back by the West Countries which were once upon a time the nurseries of the earliest cultures of the world fell far behind the western countries. To the East, the age of political and economic slavery dawned, while the West reaped the rich fruits of the new age.

THE CONQUESTS OF THE AMERICAS

5.1. Introduction

The conquest of Americas constitutes a significant episode in the history of the world in general and America in particular. With this the era of colonisation started. The discovery of new lands followed the interesting story of exploration, colonialism, imperialism and exploitation by the European countries. The account of North American exploration includes a wide display of European powers and their subsequent exploitation in the name of colonization. It began with the Vikings' brief period in Newfoundland around 1000 CE and continued through England's colonization of the Atlantic coast in the seventeenth century. This laid the foundation for the United States of America. The centuries following the European arrivals could see the culmination of this effort, as Americans pushed westward across the continent, attracted by the temptation of riches, open land and a desire to fulfil the nation's apparent destiny.

5.2. THE CONQUEST OF AMERICA

The conquest of the Americas by the European Colonial powers describes the history of the settlement and establishment of control over America by most of the European naval powers.

5.3. CAUSES OF THE CONQUEST OF AMERICA

The European nations like Spain, France, England, and the Netherlands were interested to conquer and colonise America for four main causes:

- ❖ To acquire wealth and establish power in America
- ❖ To spread the Christian religion
- ❖ To settle in America and spread nationalism
- ❖ To conquer America out of the spirit of Renaissance spirit of curiosity and adventure.

The Europeans aspired to acquire wealth and power through reaching the continent of Asia and trading. Even after learning that America was a new continent; explorers kept looking for a Northwest Passage to Asia. During this period, the Europeans looked for wealth by finding

gold and silver, engaging in the fur trade, and claiming land and colonies. On the other hand, France, Spain, and the Netherlands also wanted to convert Native Americans to the Roman Catholic Church. The English came to have freedom of religion in many different Protestant churches. The English were also the only country to allow explorers and colonists to come to America who were in conflict with their government, coming to America to live differently than they could in Europe. The following causes were responsible for the colonisation of conquest and colonisation of America:

Land for settlement and agriculture

The growth of population, forced some European countries to explore the new land, to conquer it and to colonise those countries. They were looking for a new land as there was not enough land for everybody to grow crops. Farmers from the parent country wanted to leave their lands and put their efforts into building up a new farming life in a new land. They also wanted to settle down permanently in the new country. One of the best example of this type of colonisation is the expansion of the Greeks from 800BCE-600 BCE. As the population increased Greek increased, the Greek Government could not afford enough land for its people. Therefore, it decided to send out colonies both eastwards and westwards. Subsequently, the Greeks settled down in the Italian Peninsula, Sicily, some parts of the western Mediterranean and around the shores of the Black Sea.

The lust for wealth

The greed of wealth always tempts a nation to conquer another country and colonise it. Two examples of this were the Vikings' colonisations around 800 AD and the Spanish search for gold in the 15th century. In the beginning, the Vikings were known as energetic traders. They were exchanging goods across the North Sea with the people of Ireland and England from 1500 BCE. By the first century CE, they were trading with the Romans. The Vikings were exposed to the riches of people from different countries and became determined to search for wealth. After the Vikings began to make long ships, specifically designed for long journeys, they were able to plunder other lands. In the 15th century the Spanish made many conquests in Central and South America that brought large amounts of gold and silver to Spain. The people of Spain were looking for conquest of other countries to acquire gold and silver.

Religious motives

The religious motives also inspired the European mind to conquer new land like America to spread the Catholic Christianity in it. The idea of "America" antedated America's discovery and even Viking exploration. That idea had two parts: one utopian; the other savage and dangerous. Ancient tales described distant civilizations, usually to the west, where European-like peoples lived simple, virtuous lives without war, famine, disease, or poverty. Such utopian visions were reinforced by religious ideas. Early Christian Europeans had inherited from the Jews a powerful prophetic tradition that drew upon apocalyptic biblical texts in the books of Daniel, Isaiah, and Revelations. They connected the Christianization of the world with the second coming of Christ. Such ideas led many Europeans (including Columbus) to believe that it was God's plan for Christians to convert pagans wherever they conquer.

If the secular and religious traditions evoked utopian visions of the New World, they also induced nightmares. The ancients described wonderful civilizations, but barbaric, evil ones as well. Moreover, late medieval Christianity inherited a rich tradition of hatred for non-Christians derived in part from the Crusaders' struggle to free the Holy Land and from warfare against the Moors.

Thus, the European attackers wanted to conquer the New Land with the view of preconceived notions:

- ❖ To plunder the New Land and its treasures was acceptable because it was populated by pagans (Pagan means people of other religions).
- ❖ To Christianize the pagans was necessary because it was part of God's plan.
- ❖ To kill them was right because they were Satan's or Antichrist's warriors.

At the same time as the European powers conquered the territories of the New Land, they justified wars against Native Americans and the destruction of their cultures as a fulfilment of the European secular and religious vision of the New World.

Expansion of territory in the New Land

One of the major causes of the conquest of the new lands was to expand their territory and powers. The Roman Empire is one example of this type of colonisation. In ancient times, the Romans conquered a large part of Western Europe, North Africa and West Asia. Rome's increased population needed more lands to house their people. So, the conquest of new land was the only alternative before them.

Expansion of trade and commerce

The expansion and control of trade and commerce in the new land was another cause of conquest of America. In order to successfully trade a certain product with one region or another, it was important that the parent country take hold of a particular country on their trading route. Many colonies came into existence this way. The European countries had the same intention in their mind. Therefore, they wanted to explore and conquer America.

THE CONQUEST OF AMERICA BY THE EUROPEANS

In this context, the first attempt by Europeans to colonize the New World occurred about 1000 CE, when the Vikings established a colony finally in Newfoundland. There they established a colony named Vineland (meaning fertile region) and from that base sailed along the coast of North America, observing the flora, fauna, and native peoples. Mysteriously, after few years Vineland was deserted.

Though the Vikings never returned to America, their achievements were well-known to other Europeans. On the other hand, Europe was made up of many small principalities whose concerns were mainly local in nature. Europeans may have been intrigued by the stories of the feared Vikings' discovery of a "new world," but they lacked the resources or the will to follow their path of exploration. Trade continued to revolve around the Mediterranean Sea, as it had for hundreds of years. However, between 1000 CE and 1650 CE, a series of interconnected developments occurred in Europe which provided the momentum for the exploration and subsequent colonization of America.

Portugal's Explorations and conquests

The Portuguese were the pioneers in the field of geographical explorations. Henry, the navigator, known as the prince of the navigators paid special attention to explorations. He set up a school for sea men and provided them every possible help and encouragement. Under his patronage annual expeditions were organised to explore the west coast of Africa. He requisitioned the services of learned geographers, map-makers, sailors and ship designers. He is also credited with having built a ship named Caravel, which could undertake long voyages in stormy weather through open sea. With the patronage of Henry, the Portuguese explored a number of islands on the western coast of Africa such as Madrina Islands, the Azores and West African Guinea Coast. He had also discovered the sea routes to India as well as America. No wonder in view of his contributions he is often described as the father of modern colonization.

In 1487 Bartholomew Dias was sent to find a water route to India. Dias sailed around the tip of Africa which he named as the 'Cape of Storms' because he was caught in one serious storm there. Later the king renamed this cape as 'Cape of Good Hope' as it gave good hope to Portugal. A year later, Vasco da Gama succeeded in reaching India and returned to Portugal laden with jewels and spices. During the 16th century the Portuguese established a number of small settlements on the coasts of Africa, Persia, India and south-East Asia.

Explorations and conquest of America by Spain

Though the Spanish entered the field of exploration after the Portuguese, their imperial ambitions found expressions in the explorations, proved more fruitful. The lead in this regard was taken by Christopher Columbus, an Italian Sailor. Born in Genoa, Italy, around 1451, Columbus learned the art of navigation on voyages in the Mediterranean and the Atlantic. At some point he probably read Cardinal Pierre de Ailly's early fifteenth-century work, *Imago mundi*, which argued that the East could be found by sailing west of the Azores for a few days.

In order to make such a voyage, Columbus spent years together in seeking a sponsor. He finally found Ferdinand and Isabella, the king and queen of Spain to sponsor his project. In August 1492, he sailed west with his now famous ships, *Nina*, *Pinta*, and *Santa Maria*. After ten weeks he saw an island in the Bahamas, which he named San Salvador On 12th October, 1492. Thinking he had found islands near Japan, he sailed on until he reached Cuba (which he thought was mainland China) and later Haiti. Columbus returned to Spain with many products unknown to Europe-coconuts, tobacco, sweet corn, potatoes-and with tales of native peoples whom he called "Indians" because he assumed that he had been sailing in the Indian Ocean.

Though he found no gold or silver, he was hailed by Spain and much of Europe as the discoverer of western route to the East. John II of Portugal, however, believed Columbus had discovered islands in the Atlantic already claimed by Portugal and took the matter to Pope Alexander II. Twice the pope issued decrees supporting Spain's claim to Columbus's discoveries. But the territorial disputes between Portugal and Spain were not resolved until 1494 when they signed the Treaty of Tordesillas, which drew a line 370 leagues west of the Azores as the demarcation between the two empires. Despite the treaty, controversy continued over what Columbus had found. He made three more voyages to America between 1494 and 1502, during which he explored Puerto Rico, the Virgin Islands, Jamaica, and Trinidad. Each time he returned more certain that he had reached the East. Subsequent explorations by others, however, persuaded most Europeans that Columbus had discovered a "New World." Ironically, that New World was named for someone else. A German geographer, Martin Waldseemuller, accepted the claim of Amerigo Vespucci that he had landed on the American mainland before Columbus. In 1507 Waldseemuller published a book in which he named the new land "America."

Spanish conquests of America

Inspired by the discoveries of Columbus more Spanish expeditions were made. Juan Ponce de Leon explored the coasts of Florida in 1513. Vasco Nufiez de Balboa crossed the Isthmus of Panama and discovered the Pacific Ocean in the same year. Ferdinand Magellan's expedition (in the course of which he put down a mutiny and was later killed) sailed around the tip of South America, across the Pacific to the Philippines, through the Indian Ocean, and back to Europe around the southern tip of Africa between 1519 and 1522.

Conquests by Hernando Cortes

There were two conquests which led Spain's emergence as sixteenth-century Europe's wealthiest and most powerful nation. The first conquest was headed by Hernando Cortes, who in

1519 led a small army of Spanish and Native Americans against the Aztec Empire of Mexico. Completing the conquest in 1521, Cortes took control of the Aztecs' fabulous gold and silver mines. Ten years later, another conquest under Francisco Pizarro overwhelmed the Inca Empire of Peru, securing for the Spaniards the great Inca silver mines of Potosi.

Pedro de Mendoza went as far as present-day Buenos Aires in Argentina in 1535 -36, where he founded a colony. In the mean while, Cabeza de Vaca explored the North American Southwest, adding that region to Spain's New World Empire. A few years later (1539-1542) Francisco Vasquez de Coronado discovered the Grand Canyon and journeyed through much of the Southwest looking for gold and the legendary Seven Cities of Cibola. About the same time Hernando Soto explored south eastern North America from Florida to the Mississippi River. By 1650 Spain's empire was complete and fleets of ships were carrying the plunder back to Spain. Hence, in course of time the two continents of North America and South America were discovered. Amerigo Vespucci, a Florentine sailor, who was in the service of Spain and Portugal at different times, was luckier than Columbus, for the new continents were named after him.

Explorations and conquest of America by France

At a time when Spain was building its New World Empire, France was on the path of exploring the Americas. Giovanni da Verrazano was commissioned to locate a northwest passage around North America to India in 1524. He was followed by Jacques Cartier, who explored the St. Lawrence River as far as present-day Montreal in 1534. On the other hand, Jean Ribault headed an expedition that explored the St. Johns River area in Florida around 1562. His efforts were followed two years later by a second venture headed by Rene de Laudonniere. But the Spanish soon pushed the French out of Florida, and thereafter, the French directed their efforts north and west. Samuel de Champlain built a fort at Quebec and explored the area north to Port Royal, Nova Scotia, and south to Cape Cod in 1608.

Like Spain, France could not bring gold and silver from America; rather it traded with inland tribes for furs and fished off the coast of Newfoundland. The New France was thinly populated by trappers and missionaries and dotted with military forts and trading posts. Though the French sought to colonize the area, the growth of settlements was stifled by inconsistent policies. In the beginning France encouraged colonization by granting charters to fur-trading companies. After that under Cardinal Richelieu, the control of the empire was put in the hands of the government sponsored Company of New France. However, the company was not successful, and the king took direct control of New France in 1663. Although more prosperous under this administration, the French empire failed to compete with the wealth of New Spain or the growth of neighbouring colonies of the England.

Explorations and conquest of America by Netherlands

In the race of exploration and colonization of America, the Dutch were also not lacked behind. They were also engaged in the exploration of America. In earlier times as a Protestant province of Spain, the Netherlands was determined to become a commercial power and saw exploration as a means to that end. Henry Hudson led an expedition to America in 1609 for the Dutch East India Company and laid claim to the area along the Hudson River as far as present-day Albany. The newly formed New Netherland Company obtained a grant from the Dutch government for the territory between New France and Virginia In 1614. After ten years another trading company known as the West India Company confined itself with Manhattan Island and at Fort Orange. The Dutch also established trading colonies in the West Indies.

Conquest of America by England

Like other colonial powers, England also established its trade settlements in America. Henry VII of England sponsored an expedition to the New World headed by John Cabot In 1497, who explored a part of Newfoundland and reported an abundance of fish. But until Queen Elizabeth's rule, the English showed little interest in exploration, being preoccupied with their European trade and establishing control over the British Isles. However, by the mid-sixteenth century, England had recognized the advantages of trade with the East, and in 1560 English merchants enlisted Martin Frobisher to search for a northwest passage to India. Between 1576 and 1578 Frobisher as well as John Davis explored along the Atlantic coast.

Subsequently Queen Elizabeth granted charters to Sir Humphrey Gilbert and Sir Walter Raleigh to colonize America. Gilbert headed two trips to the New World. He landed on Newfoundland but was unable to carry out his intention of establishing military posts. A year later, Raleigh sent a company to explore territory he named Virginia after Elizabeth, the "Virgin Queen," and in 1585, he sponsored a second voyage, this time to explore the Chesapeake Bay region. By the seventeenth century, the English had taken the lead in colonizing North America, establishing settlements all along the Atlantic coast and in the West Indies. This enabled England to lay claim on the mainland of North America.

Conquest of America by Sweden & Denmark

Like other Europeans Sweden and Denmark also succumbed to the attractions of America, although to a smaller extent. The Swedish West India Company established a settlement in 1638 on the Delaware River near present-day Wilmington called Fort Christina. However, this colony was for very short time, and was occupied by the Dutch in 1655. The king of Denmark chartered the Danish West India Company in 1671, and the Danes established colonies in St. Croix and other islands in the cluster of the Virgin Islands.

Thus, the above colonial powers established their colonial settlements in America and traded in it.

5.4. THE IMPACT OF THE CONQUEST OF AMERICA

The conquest of America had made a deep impact on the people of America. As Europeans moved beyond exploration and into colonization of the Americas, they brought changes to virtually every aspect of the land and its people, from trade and hunting to warfare and personal property. European goods, ideas, and diseases shaped the changing continent. As Europeans established their colonies, their societies also became segmented and divided along religious and racial lines. Most people in these societies were not free. They laboured as slaves to produce wealth for others. By 1700, the American continent had become a place of stark contrasts between slavery and freedom. The conquest of America had the following impacts on the people of America.

The existence of slavery in America

The existence of slave society was one of the worst impacts of the conquest of America. In the American colonies, there was a crushing demand for labour which existed to grow New World cash crops, especially sugar and tobacco. This need led Europeans to rely increasingly on Africans, and after 1600, the movement of Africans across the Atlantic accelerated. The English crown chartered the Royal African Company in 1672, giving the company a monopoly over the transport of African slaves to the English colonies. Over the next four decades, the company transported around 350,000 Africans from their homelands. By 1700, the tiny English sugar

island of Barbados had a population of fifty thousand slaves, and the English had encoded the institution of chattel slavery into colonial law.

Slave trade in America

This new system of African slavery came slowly to the English colonists, who did not have slavery at home and preferred to use servant labour. Nevertheless, by the end of the seventeenth century, the English everywhere in America and particularly in the Chesapeake Bay colonies had come to rely on African slaves. While Africans had long practiced slavery among their own people, it had not been based on race. Africans enslaved other Africans as war captives, for crimes, and to settle debts; they generally used their slaves for domestic and small-scale agricultural work, not for growing cash crops on large plantations. Additionally, African slavery was often a temporary condition rather than a lifelong sentence, and, unlike New World slavery, it was typically not heritable (passed from a slave mother to her children). The growing slave trade with Europeans had a profound impact on the people of West Africa, giving prominence to local chieftains and merchants who traded slaves for European textiles, alcohol, guns, tobacco, and food. Africans also charged Europeans for the right to trade in slaves and imposed taxes on slave purchases.

Different African groups and kingdoms even staged large-scale raids on each other to meet the demand for slaves. Once sold to traders, all slaves sent to America endured the hellish Middle Passage, the transatlantic crossing, which took one to two months. By 1625, more than 325,800 Africans had been shipped to the New World, though many thousands perished during the voyage. An astonishing number, some four million, were transported to the Caribbean between 1501 and 1830. When they reached their destination in America, Africans found themselves trapped in shockingly brutal slave societies. In the Chesapeake colonies, they faced a lifetime of harvesting and processing tobacco. Thus, the existence of slaves and slave trade created a barrier in the life of the people of America.

Conflict between the native people and colonial rulers

Another major impact of conquest of America was the conflict between the native people and the colonial rulers. While the Americas remained firmly under the control of native peoples in the first decades of European settlement, conflict increased as colonization spread and Europeans placed greater demands upon the native populations, including expecting them to convert to Christianity (either Catholicism or Protestantism). Throughout the seventeenth century, the still-powerful native peoples and confederacies that retained control of the land waged war against the invading Europeans, achieving a degree of success in their effort to drive the newcomers from their land.

Impact of European goods and services on the native people

The European goods and services had a deep impact on the native people of America. In the meanwhile, European goods had begun to change their life radically. In the 1500s, some of the earliest objects Europeans introduced to native people were glass beads, copper kettles, and metal utensils. Native people often adapted these items for their own use. As European settlements grew throughout the 1600s, European goods flooded native communities. Soon native people were using these items for the same purposes as the Europeans. For example, many native inhabitants abandoned their animal-skin clothing in favour of European textiles. Similarly, clay cookware gave way to metal cooking implements.

Native weapons changed dramatically as well, creating an arms race among the peoples living in European colonization zones. The most prized piece of European weaponry to obtain was a musket or light European gun. In order to trade with Europeans for these, native peoples

intensified their harvesting of beaver, commercializing their traditional practice. The influx of European materials made warfare more lethal, changed traditional patterns of authority among tribes. Formerly weaker groups, if they had access to European metal and weapons, suddenly gained the upper hand against once-dominant groups. The Algonquian (People of North America), for instance, traded with the French for muskets and gained power against their enemies, the Iroquois. In due course of time, the native people used their new weapons against the European colonizers (provided them) to get freedom from them.

Impact on the life of the people of America

The European presence in America spurred countless changes in life of the people of America. Native people did not believe in private ownership of land rather, they viewed land as a resource to be held in common for the benefit of the group. The colonizers established fields, fences, and other means of demarcating private property. Native peoples who moved seasonally to take advantage of natural resources now found areas off limits, claimed by colonizers because of their insistence on private property rights.

Impact of disease in the life of the Americans

The greatest impact of the conquest and colonisation of America was the introduction of disease. Microbes to which native inhabitants had no immunity led to death everywhere Europeans settled. Along the New England coast between 1616 and 1618, epidemics claimed the lives of 75 percent of the native people. In the 1630s, half the Huron and Iroquois around the Great Lakes died of smallpox. As is often the case with disease, the very young and the very old were the most vulnerable and had the highest mortality rates. The loss of the older generation meant the loss of knowledge and tradition, while the death of children only compounded the trauma, creating devastating implications for future generations. Some native peoples perceived disease as a weapon used by hostile spiritual forces, and they went to war to exorcise the disease from their midst. These "mourning wars" in eastern North America were designed to gain captives who would either be adopted or ritually tortured and executed to assuage the anger and grief caused by loss of the Americans.

Introduction of medicinal plants

One of the great impacts of American conquest and colonisation was the introduction of medicinal plants. European expansion in the Americas led to an unprecedented movement of plants across the Atlantic. A prime example is tobacco, which became a valuable export as the habit of smoking, previously unknown in Europe, took hold. Another example is sugar. Columbus brought sugarcane to the Caribbean on his second voyage in 1494, and thereafter a wide variety of other herbs, flowers, seeds, and roots made the transatlantic voyage. Just as pharmaceutical companies today scour the natural world for new drugs, Europeans travelled to America to discover new medicines. The task of cataloguing the new plants found there helped give birth to the science of botany. Early botanists included the English naturalist Sir Hans Sloane, who travelled to Jamaica in 1687 and there recorded hundreds of new plants. Sloane also helped popularize the drinking of chocolate, made from the cacao bean, in England. English naturalist Sir Hans Sloane travelled to Jamaica and other Caribbean islands to catalogue the flora of the new world. Indians, who possessed a vast understanding of local New World plants and their properties, would have been a rich source of information for those European botanists seeking to find and catalogue potentially useful plants.

The enslaved Africans, who had a tradition of the use of medicinal plants in their native land, adapted to their new surroundings by learning the use of New World plants through experimentation or from the native inhabitants. Native peoples and Africans employed their

knowledge effectively within their own communities. One notable example was the use of the peacock flower to induce abortions: Indian and enslaved African women living in oppressive colonial regimes are said to have used this herb to prevent the birth of children into slavery. Europeans distrusted medical knowledge that came from African or native sources, however, and thus lost the benefit of this source of information. The introduction of medicinal plants helped a lot to the people of America in recovering from different diseases.

Copper Mines

Copper mining is first heard of in Connecticut and the Simsbury mines being worked as early as 1709. But they were abandoned as unprofitable about the middle of that century. The Schuyler Mine, near Belleville, New Jersey, was discovered in 1719. This created history for producing the first steam-engine in America in 1793-94. Lake Superior copper was first mined by the whites in 1771, but in small quantities. In the early colonial days the settlers used wood for fuel, and charcoal for the forge and smelting-works.

Coal Mines

Coal was found in Rhode Island in 1768 and mined for use. The great bituminous steam near Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania was struck in 1784. Previous to this time coal, was found in huge quantities in Virginia; and canals were cut, connecting parallel rivers to facilitate its transportation. Many colonies were established for export trade and commerce by 1789. At numerous other points along the Atlantic seaboard, these and other metals were found prior to the American Revolution.

Smelting works

The smelting works and forges were erected to reduce the ores. Some of the ores were also exported to other places. However, the home government discouraged the manufacture of metals in this country. The Revolutionary War cut off supplies from England, and created a special demand for iron and copper ordnance and lead bullets, as well as other metal for domestic and other implements. This gave a peculiar stimulus to mining in America.

Growth of mining business

By the early 19th Century there was no marked pace in the mining business. In 1820 attempts were made to mix anthracite coal with charcoal in iron smelting. This experiment was not successful till the hot-blast was invented in 1831. After that both the coal and iron industry took a tremendous start off. In 1835 lead mining received a wonderful impetus in Missouri and Iowa from new discoveries. Copper mining was revived along Lake Superior and made a sudden jump in 1842. The California gold fever of 1849 was the beginning of the search and procurement of that metal on a considerable scale. Petroleum came prominently into notice for the first time in August, 1859, when the Drake Well struck oil. The Comstock Lode was also discovered in Nevada in the same year. This laid the foundation of these silver mining businesses in America.

The history of mining during this significant period shows that the mining businesses were characterized by intense excitement and magnified speculative speculation, by gross blunders and by great waste. The possibility of making a great deal of money in a short time always crazes people. The discovery of large deposits of metal brought possibilities to the workmen and to the capitalists in America.

A large proportion of the country's population were anxious in case of each of the great discoveries of lead, copper, gold, oil, and silver. Towns got developed in the mines areas. Many people tried their best to get the fortune in their hand by investing in land, mines and stock

companies. In order to fulfil their dreams, they also borrowed money for investment. In this mad race of mining business, some got benefitted and some also got ruined. As a result of which poverty, sickness and death, prevailed among the people in the mushroom type of towns and some of them also got wiped out.

Government Policies

There were two causes which had stimulated the American mining were (a) the government's general policy of encouragement, and (b) the advancement in mechanic and natural science. Under the old English laws, the crown was entitled to the gold and silver mines found on government lands and a certain proportion of other minerals. But in America, the legislation was very insignificant till the late 1800's. The gold and silver miners of the Pacific Coast were ruled only by self-made regulations.

The government had favoured the free occupation and investigation of the rocks for minerals, and facilitated the cheap purchase and lease of mining lands. There has been a protective tariff on foreign metals since 1861 and this has greatly promoted the development of iron, copper, coal, and other minerals. Among the most serviceable inventions in practical mining and metallurgy in the late 19th century were the California stamp mill for crushing quartz, the mercury amalgamation process for gold, the pan process for silver, the hydraulic process of gold mining in alluvial regions, the application of new explosives to rocks, new methods of drilling, new blast-furnaces, and new methods of converting iron into steel. Thus, America had developed due to profusion of mines and minerals in the country.

6.3. PLANTATION

In the present context, plantations can be defined as large farms in the colonies of America that used the enforced labour of slaves to harvest cotton, rice, sugar, tobacco and other farm produce for trade and export. Crops were planted on a large scale with usually just one major plant species growing. Typical plantations ranged from 500 to 1,000 acres and each acre produced about 5,000 plants. The agriculture system of plantations was implemented in the Southern Colonies during Colonial times of America. In America the five Southern Colonies who introduced the system of plantations were the Maryland Colony, Virginia Colony, North Carolina Colony, South Carolina Colony and the Georgia Colony. The reason that plantations sprang up in the South was due to the geography and climate of the Southern colonies of America.

The Geographical and Climatic condition of South America

The geographical and climatic condition of South America had favoured for the growth of plantations. The geography of the Southern Colonies featured and fertile soil, hilly coastal plains, forests, long rivers and swamp areas. On the other hand, mild winters, hot and humid summers made it possible to grow crops throughout the year and were ideally suited for plantations. The Southern Colonies concentrated on developing plantations like cotton, tobacco, rice, sugar cane and indigo. Among these plants, tobacco, rice, cotton, sugar cane and indigo were grown as cash crops. It is important to note that cash crops (as opposed to subsistence crops) were specialized crops that were grown by planters for profits. The planters had no trouble in transporting their crops as there were many waterways in the Southern colonies which made it easy for ocean going ships to tie up at plantation docks of different colonies of America.

America's slave plantation economy

The slave plantation economy of America was based on agricultural mass production requiring a large labour force. Southern Plantations were labour intensive and required thousands of slaves. The longer a crop's harvest period, the more efficient the plantations were. There was no machinery and only oxen and horses for power. Vast areas of land had to be cleared for planting and crops had to be sown and harvested by hand. Cheap labour was essential for the plantations to become profitable. Slaves, both men and women, worked all year round undertaking back breaking work for up to eighteen hours per day. The women were compelled to do as much as the men. The use of slaves kept the costs down on the plantations. After the initial outlay required purchasing a slave, little expenditure was required and with the successive generations of slaves born on the slave plantations their masters gained new employees at no cost. The plantation slaves lived in basic, crude wooden cabins consisting of one or two rooms, often with a dirt floor, in the slave quarters. The condition of the slaves working in plantation was very precarious.

The chain of command of the plantations

The chain of command of the plantations was based on three people:

(1) **The Plantation owner (the planter).**

The owners of the plantations were usually rich and refined gentlemen from England. The owners of the plantations relied heavily on the overseers to run their plantations. The owners lived in colonial mansions.

(2) **The overseer.**

The overseers were the men hired by the owners to manage and direct the work of slaves. The overseers were living in small houses.

(3) **The slaves.**

The slaves were working under the above two, particularly at the direction of the overseers. They were living in a wretched condition. The slaves lived in wooden cabins in the slave quarters. Some slaves also lived in very dirty wooden cabins.

Nature of Plantations

In the colonies of South America, different types of crops were grown but the crops most suited to the South were:

- ❖ Tobacco Plantations
- ❖ Rice Plantations
- ❖ Indigo Plantations
- ❖ Cotton Plantations
- ❖ Sugar Plantations

Tobacco Plantations

The tobacco plantations were the first to emerge in the colonies of South America. It was also the most important cash crop. The tobacco industry produced tobacco which was originally used for pipes and snuff. The first Southern plantations were worked by bonded servants. However, the massive sizes of the plantations needed more and more labour. More work on the tobacco plantations required more slaves.

The process of growing tobacco required attention throughout the year. Tobacco was harvested in the late summer and then had to be dried "cured" in a tobacco house for six weeks. The tobacco leaves were then stripped from the stems and packed into hogsheads (round, wooden casks or barrels) used to hold tobacco for shipment. Tobacco became the biggest of all the trade exports during the Colonial period and tobacco plantations were highly profitable in South America.

Rice Plantations

The instability of tobacco prices encouraged the planters to diversify and different types of slave plantations were established. Slave plantations included the rice plantations, cotton plantations and indigo plantations. Rice was a particularly difficult crop to cultivate but the owners of the slave plantations in the Southern colonies mastered its culture by following the example of rice cultivation in Africa with information provided by their African slaves. The English and European colonists during the Colonial period had no practical experience of rice crops and the production of rice required its workers on the rice plantations to possess knowledge of the land and how to cultivate. The slaves provided sufficient labour force to produce the demanding crop on the rice plantations. In Delaware alone swampland covered over 30,000 acres. The swampland first had to be cleared. The construction of rice fields to create the rice plantations was an arduous task.

Generally sowing the rice seeds was undertaken by female slaves on the rice plantations who trampled the seeds into the swampy soil with their bare feet. The rice fields were flooded at certain times of the year, and then drained back out. The slaves had to act as scarecrows to keep the birds away from the rice crops. The rice was flailed then harvested and then the rice was removed from the hulls in a winnowing basket. The rice was then polished before being packed into barrels and shipped for export. By the 1690's, rice became the mainstay of the colonies of Georgia and South Carolina. The cultivation of highly lucrative rice quickly spread to all of the slave plantations in the Southern colonies. The rice became one of the top ten trade exports to England during the American Colonial history.

Indigo Plantations

Indigo was a non-edible plant that was grown on the slave plantations in the Colonial period of South America. It was the highly prized source of blue dye. Indigo was not grown on colonial plantations until an enterprising woman called Eliza Lucas Pinckney (1722-1793) developed the indigo plants as an additional cash crop for the Southern slave plantations. During the 1720s the French government had supplied the French colonists and settlers in Louisiana with indigo plant seeds.

The indigo crop was successfully cultivated in Louisiana, and factories were built for the manufacture of dye. When the indigo plants were in bloom, they were cut and put in large tubs to soak. There they fermented until it was time to drain the liquid and complete the process. Different blue shaded dyes were obtained from the leaves of the indigo plant from ranging from bright blue to violet and purple. A variant of the indigo plant is native to South Carolina and Georgia. The English encouraged the American colonists to produce indigo as it was highly dependent on Spain and France for this dye, so the indigo plantations flourished. The cultivation and processing of the indigo dye produced one-third of the total value of the exports from the Southern slave plantations in America.

Cotton Plantations in Colonial America

Cotton was not included in the cash crops because cotton was not grown on Southern plantations until 1793 when Eli Whitney invented the cotton gin which made the production of cotton more profitable. Cotton plants prosper in dry, hot sunny climates and rich soils. A cotton plant formed bolls containing seeds with many long hairy fibres. The cotton fibres need to be separated from the seeds. This process was much time consuming, and therefore expensive. The cotton gin was a machine that separated the cotton fibres from the seed ten times faster than the slaves could do by hand.

The cotton industry and the number of cotton plantations boomed in the Southern colonies with the introduction of the cotton gin. Growing cotton as a crop required intensive labour. The existing slave plantations of the South America increased the number of slaves to undertake the hard and back breaking work. Cotton plants had to be tended and weeds had to be chopped out. Picking took a few months during which time the cotton was put through the cotton gins, then pressed and finally baled before being shipped for market and export. Large-scale cultivation of cotton using slave labour was extremely profitable for the owners of the cotton plantations in the colonies of South America.

Sugar cane Plantations of South America

The plantation of sugar cane was also profitable for the plantation owners of South America. Cane sugar was first imported to the 13 colonies from British West Indies. However, after the United States purchased the Louisiana Territory from France in 1803, slave plantation owners also began growing sugar cane in addition to indigo on their plantations.

The first years of sugar cane harvesting in Louisiana produced 300,000 tons of sugar per year. Consequently it became a profitable crop for the slave plantations of the southern colonies. Sugarcane is a tropical, grass that forms shoots at the base producing multiple stems. Sugarcane usually grows three to four meters high and is about five centimetres in diameter. The sugar cane stems grow into cane stalk from which the sugar is extracted. Another product of sugar cane is molasses were used to produce rum - a major trade export of the Northern colonies. Cane sugar was grown on the sugar plantations. Sugar is best grown on relatively flat and fertile land. The early sugar plantations had an extensive use of slaves because sugar was considered as a cash crop exhibiting economies of scale in its cultivation. Sugar was most efficiently grown on the existing large slave plantations of the South. The construction of sugar cane fields to create the sugar plantations was an arduous task. The slaves on the sugar plantations, including men, women, and children, had to endure the backbreaking work of planting rows upon rows of sugar cane seeds.

IMPACTS OF PLANTATION

The plantations in the southern colonies had a deep impact on the colonial history of America. The plantation system can be seen as the factory system applied to agriculture, with a concentration of labour under skilled management. But while the industrial manufacturing-based labour economy of the North was driven by growing demand, maintenance of the plantation economic system depended upon usage of crude labour that was both abundant and cheap. The five major products of the southern plantations were cotton, grain, tobacco, sugar, and rice. Among the production of the leading cash crops in South America, the production of cotton was found in the Deep South of Mississippi, Alabama, and Louisiana. The plantation system eventually grew to form the industrial and social frame of government in the Southern slave states. On the other hand, the associated institution of slavery became the basis of the Southern social system, ideology, and a set of psychological patterns in America.

Impact on slave plantation

The plantation had an imposing impact on the slave plantation in colonial America. It became the base of social and economic system of the then America. The leading historian of the era was Ulrich Bonnell Phillips who studied slavery not so much as a political issue between North and South, but as a social and economic system. He focused on the large plantations that dominated the South. Phillips addressed the unprofitability of slave labour and slavery's ill effects on the southern economy. Phillips systematically hunted down and opened plantation and other southern manuscript sources. An example of pioneering comparative work was "A Jamaica Slave

Plantation" (1914). His methods inspired the "Phillips school" of slavery studies between 1900 and 1950.

Historian Phillips opined that large-scale plantation slavery was inefficient and not progressive. It had reached its geographical limits by 1860 or so, and therefore eventually had to fade away. In 1910, he argued in "The Decadence of the Plantation System" that slavery was an unprofitable relic that persisted because it produced social status, honour, and political power. Most farmers in the South had small to medium sized farms with few slaves, but the large plantation owner's wealth, often reflected in the number of slaves they owned, afforded them considerable prestige and political power.

Increased inequality of wealth

The slave plantation was also responsible for inequality of wealth in South America. The slavery began to displace indentured servitude as the principal supply of labour in the plantation systems of the South. However, the economic nature of the institution of slavery helped in the increased inequality of wealth in the antebellum South. The demand for slave labour and the U.S. ban on importing more slaves from Africa drove up prices for slaves, making it profitable for smaller farmers in older settled areas such as Virginia to sell their slaves further south and west. The actual risk or the potential loss in investment of owning slaves from death, disability, etc. was much greater for small plantation owners. Accentuated by the rise of price in slaves just prior to the Civil War, the overall costs associated with owning slaves to the individual plantation owner led to the concentration of slave ownership was seen at the eve of the Civil War.

Impact on social structure of America

The slave plantation had also made an impact on the social structure of America. Much of the antebellum South was rural, and in line with the plantation system, largely agricultural. With the exception of New Orleans and Baltimore, the slave states had no large cities, and the urban population of the South could not compare to that of the Northeast or even that of the agrarian West. This led to a sharp division in class in the southern states between the landowning, "master" class, poor whites and slaves. On the other hand, in the northern and western American states much of the social spectrum was dominated by a wide range of different labouring classes.

Thus, while both the North and the South were characterized by a high degree of inequality during the plantation era, the wealth distribution was much more unequal in the South than in the North arises with regard to the equality of land, slave, and wealth distribution. For example, in certain states and counties, due to the concentration of landholding and slave holding, which were highly correlated, six percent of landowners ended up commanding one-third of the gross income and an even higher portion of the net income. The majority of landowners, who had smaller scale plantations, saw a disproportionately small portion in revenues generated by the slavery-driven plantation system.

While the two largest classes in the South included land and slave-owners and slaves, various strata of social classes existed within and between the two. In examining class relations and the banking system in the South, the economic exploitation of slave labour can be seen to arise from a need to maintain certain conditions for the existence of slavery and from a need for each of the remaining social strata to remain in status quo order to meet conditions where slavery may continue to exist, members of the master class(white, landowning, slave-owning) must compete with other members of the master class to maximize the surplus labour extracted from slaves.

6.4. THE AFRICAN SLAVES

Slavery was a heinous system that existed in different parts of the world's ancient societies to early modern societies. The enslavement of both Native American and African peoples in the Americas was exceptional as the transatlantic slave trade developed concurrently with a nascent capitalist system that touched much of the Western world. During this transformation, older forms of slavery-where enslavement was often a temporary status mediated by tribal customs or protective legal codes- were transformed into an institution on which the enslaved were marked as personal property. A kind of inferior racial status developed in America towards the slaves during this period.

African slaves in America

The slavery in America was largely led to European colonies' need for labour, especially plantation agricultural labour in their Caribbean sugar colonies operated by Great Britain, France, Spain, and the Dutch Republic. Most slaves who were brought or kidnapped to the Thirteen British colonies which later became the Eastern seaboard of the United States were imported from Africa. They arrived in the Caribbean predominantly as a result of the Atlantic slave trade. On the other hand, the indigenous people were also enslaved on a much smaller scale in the North American colonies. The slave status for Africans usually became hereditary in America.

African Slaves in American colonies

The European colonizers settle down the African slaves in the thirteen colonies of America for their mines and plantation.

James Town

England established Jamestown as its first permanent colony on the North American continent in 1607. Due to the efforts of John Rolfe in 1611, Tobacco became the chief crop of the colony. In order to work in the plantation areas, the major possibilities were indentured servants from Britain, Native Americans, and West Africans.

During this time, off the North American mainland, Barbados became an English Colony in 1624 and the Caribbean's Jamaica in 1655. These and other Caribbean colonies became the center of wealth and the focus of the slave trade for the growing English empire. At first, indentured servants were used as the needed labour. However, colonists began to see indentured servants as too costly.

In 1619, Dutch traders brought the first African slaves to Jamestown, who nonetheless were in North America at first generally treated as indentured servants. By the 1680s, with the consolidation of England's Royal African Company, enslaved Africans were arriving in English colonies in larger numbers, and the institution continued to be protected by the British government. The European Colonists now began purchasing slaves in larger numbers America.

Charles Town and the Province of Carolina

One of the most important establishments of African slavery in these colonies occurred with the foundation of Charles Town and the Province of Carolina in 1670. The colony was founded mainly by planters from the overpopulated British sugar island colony of Barbados, who brought large numbers of African slaves from that island. For several decades it was difficult to acquire African slaves north of the Caribbean. To meet agricultural labour needs, colonists practiced Indian slaves for some time. The Carolinians transformed the Indian slave trade during the late 17th and early 18th centuries by treating slaves as a trade commodity to be exported, mainly to the West Indies. Alan Gally estimates that between 24,000 and 51,000 captive Native Americans were exported from South Carolina between 1670 and 1715. During the same period

this was much more than the number of Africans imported to the colonies of the future United States.

The colony of Virginia

In 1619, the first African slaves to be brought to British North America landed in Virginia. These African slaves arrived on a Dutch ship that had captured them from the Spanish. These approximately 20 individuals appear to have been treated as indentured servants, and a significant number of enslaved Africans even won their freedom through fulfilling a work contract or for converting to Christianity. According to 1690 census, 950 African slaves were found in Virginia.

African and indigenous, were a smaller part of the New England economy. The Puritans codified slavery in 1641. The Massachusetts royal colony passed the *Body of Liberties*, which prohibited slavery in many instances. This colony allowed three legal bases of slavery America, (1) slaves could be held if they were captives of war, (2) if they sold themselves into slavery or were purchased from elsewhere, (3) if they were sentenced to slavery by the governing authority.

African slaves in New York and New Jersey colonies

The African slaves were also brought to the colonies of New York and New Jersey. In this context, the Dutch West India Company introduced slavery in 1625 with the importation of eleven enslaved blacks who worked as farmers, fur traders, and builders to New Amsterdam (present day New York City), capital of the nascent province of New Netherland, which later expanded across the North River (Hudson River) to Bergen (in today's New Jersey). Afterwards the slaves were held privately by the settlers in these colonies. Here rules and regulations were something different from other areas which are given below:

- (1) Even though enslaved, the Africans had a few basic rights and families were usually kept intact.
- (2) They could be admitted to the Dutch Reformed Church.
- (3) They could also married by its ministers and their children could be baptized.
- (4) The slaves could testify in court, sign legal documents, and bring civil actions against whites.
- (5) Some slaves were also permitted to work after hours earning wages equal to those paid to white workers.

As soon as the colony fell to the English in the 1660s, the company freed all its slaves. The English continued to import slaves to support the work needed. The enslaved Africans performed a wide variety of skilled and unskilled jobs, mostly in the burgeoning port city and surrounding agricultural areas in the colonies. In 1703 more than 42% of New York City's households held slaves.

African slaves in Midwest, Mississippi River and Louisiana

The French also introduced legalized slavery into their colonies in New France near the Great Lakes and the Mississippi River. More African slaves were imported for use as agricultural or mining labourers to the port of New Orleans which was founded in 1718. By the mid-eighteenth century, African slaves accounted for as many as 1/3rd of the population in that area. Slavery also existed in colonial Louisiana continuously during the French (1699 - 1763, and 1800 - 1803) and Spanish (1763 -1800) periods of government. The first people enslaved by the French were Native Americans. Africans were brought to the area in the early 18th century, as part of efforts to develop the colony.

Louis XIV of France's 'Code Noir' regulated the slave trade and the institution of slavery in the French colonies of America. This code was first introduced in colonial Louisiana in 1724, This

code gave Louisiana a different outline of slavery compared to the rest of the America. The "Code of Noir" had given the following rights for the African slaves in America.

- (1) The 'Code Noir' gave some rights to slaves, including the right to marry.
- (2) Though it authorized and codified cruel corporal punishment against slaves under certain conditions, it forbade slave owners to torture them or to separate married couples (or to separate young children from their mothers).
- (3) It also required the owners to instruct slaves in the Catholic faith, implying that Africans were human beings endowed with a soul, an idea that had not been acknowledged until then.
- (4) The Code Noir also forbade interracial marriages, but interracial relationships were formed in New Orleans society of America.

Slavery in South American Economy

The slavery system of the South America was rural and agrarian in nature. They were giving importance on the growth and sale of cash crops. To do this, plantation owners used slaves to obtain the greatest amount of agricultural labour for the least financial investment. After the American Revolution the significance of slave labour and the cotton "grew" in importance to southern culture. The planters desired more slave labour to accomplish the task of plantation. The cotton gin was the only major technological advancement in which Southerners invested their money. Southerners did not diversify their economy, as Northerners did. In particular, cotton became more important to the southern economy, due to the demand created by the British and New England textile industries. Thus, there was a large and profitable market for southern, slave-produced cotton. With the boom in cotton, plantation owners invested more of their profits into the purchase of slaves for labour. This importance on slave labour was an inherent weakness in the South America's economy.

Role of Slave Traders in America

The domestic slave trade was legalized and increased after the international slave trade by Congress in 1808. After 1808 new domestic professionals emerged in America popularly known as the "slave trader". The slave traders were brokers or distributors of human beings for making income. There were over 50 slave traders in Charleston, South Carolina and over 100 in New Orleans, Louisiana by 1850. The domestic slave production was centered in the northern part of the South. The slaves raised on breeding plantations usually were sold to the large plantations of the South. Approximately four million slaves were under-valued in terms of their productivity as human beings in this slave trade of America.

Rules and regulations for the slaves

During this period, the ownership of slaves by southern whites was very much tied to wealth. Those who possessed slaves had great prestige and owning slaves were considered as a symbol of prosperity. In spite of that the whites also lived in constant fear and suspicion of slave rebellions. In order to sort out the problem, the states passed laws regulating the slave population and masters. Laws were varied from state to state. However, the rules state that slaves could not: own property, assemble, carry weapons, testify in court against whites, be out after dark, or marry. On the other hand, the masters also had laws applying to them. They could not teach slaves to read or write and had to issue passes to slaves leaving their immediate control. Masters could not be prosecuted for killing a slave during the act of punishment. All types of suspected slave rebellions were suppressed, and the leaders were beaten or executed in order to create fear among the fellow slaves in America.

However, some slave owners were little bit kind towards the slaves as they relied on the Bible. Interestingly, as part of their culture, these planter classes had an informal "code of ethics," in order to treat with their slaves. Owners commonly believed that harsh physical punishments might encourage slave rebellions. Thus planters were to treat their slaves kindly. Owners also kept an eye on the activities of the overseers who, perhaps due to their lowly positions in southern society, were of the most violent toward the slaves. Overseers who used excessive abuse, depending on the owner, might be reprimanded, docked pay, or fired from their jobs. Some masters were kinder than other slave owners and they had a very good reputation among the slaves.

Expansion of Slave Trade

As the southern plantation system was rapidly expanding, the demand for slave labour was also expanding by 1817. The slave frontier was further extended into Texas by 1860. The federal government played a major role in this expansion of slavery by securing Louisiana from the French in 1803 and annexing Texas and Mexican territories in the 1840s. Throughout the Old South, the African American slaves were growing rapidly. After the War of 1812 the internal slave trade expanded rapidly in size and scope, boosting the southern financial system. The high demand for slaves created a forced migration that was massive in scale, leading to the transfer of one million African Americans from the upper to the New South. A majority of African Americans lived and worked in the New South by 1860. The internal slave trade took two forms: (a) a coastal system through the Atlantic seaports, (b) and inland commerce using river and roads.

On other hand, the relative numerical strength of African populations throughout the Americas was in turn shaped by each region's relationship to the Atlantic slave trade. Estimating the volume of the trade remains a difficult and contentious exercise. Philip Curtin (1969) offered the first systematic scholarly effort to measure the slave trade, concluding that as many as 11.8 million Africans were shipped to the Americas and approximately 9.4 million reached its shores during the time limit of three and a half centuries. Out of 11.8 million, about 1.5 million may not have survived the infamous Middle Passage, a horrific experience marked by inhuman conditions of transport, insufficient food, and disease. Thus, between 1662 and 1867 Brazil obtained some 40 percent of all slaves shipped to the Americas, while the British, French, and Spanish Caribbean combined received over 47 percent of the total slaves of Africa.

Social life of the slaves of America

Generally there were three types of slaves existed in America. They were field slaves, household slaves, and urban slaves. The types and pattern of life of the slaves are given below:

Field slaves

The field slaves worked in the fields from sunrise to sunset, gruelling, and with little time for rest. They working in the plantation areas of rice, cotton, sugar cane, indigo, etc.. They were also working in the mines areas as well.

Household slaves

The household slaves were working in the household of the owner. They were on duty for 24 hours. They had no privacy and were culturally separated from the slave community. They were given better food and clothing (since they were seen publicly), and the female slaves always were vulnerable to sexual assaults by their owners.

Urban slaves

The urban slaves were living in a better condition in comparison to the filed slaves and household slaves. The urban slaves were hired out, could travel around the city (making running

away easier), had more privacy, could mingle with different people, could pretend they were free blacks, and usually were trained with a skill that had some value in the market place. There were rare examples of urban slaves who were allowed to work for themselves and use a portion of their earnings to save enough money to eventually buy their own freedom.

Basic necessities of slave life

The condition of the African slaves in America was very precarious. The slaves were malnourished. They had a high calorie diet with low nutrition. Some slaves fished and trapped, giving a source of dietary protein. The clothing of the slaves was plain, simple, uncomfortable, and generally inadequate. Even many slaves were not given shoes and blankets until the winter months. They were living in small rooms, with dirt floors, poor locations, unsanitary, crowded with more than one family, bug infested and disease-bearing areas.

Physical and mental mistreatment of slaves

The slaves were living in a hazardous atmosphere of life. The physical and mental mistreatment of slaves by the owners was a continuous feature of slave life. The most feared weapon was the whip, and masters were judged as being "good" or "bad" by how much they used it. Sexual abuse and rape were usual. The results of such relations were mulatto children, who usually were rejected by their white fathers and kept enslaved in some capacity or another. (A person's status - free or slave - was determined via the mother's race.) These children were more readily accepted into the slave community. Some time they were also rejected by other blacks because of the ambiguity of the father of the child.

Family Life of African slaves

The family life was very important in slave culture. The marriage was recognized within the slave community. Extended families were embraced due to death and the splitting up of families among the slaves. Strong emotional ties existed between spouses and with children. Families actively sought to preserve their family heritage through the use of family names and oral histories passed from generation to generation. In the slave family, the fathers were respected highly. The women folk worked in groups and also for child care and for emotional purposes.

African slave culture in America

Although the African slaves were residing in America, but they had not forgotten their own culture. By 1820 most black slaves in America had been born in the United States, helping to create a homogenous black culture based on evangelical Christianity, English as a common language, and labour in a slave regime America. Although the black population was becoming more homogeneous, African cultural influences remained important, such as dancing, marriage, and religion. Unlike white marriages, slave marriages were not recognized in law, and followed African forms of union, such as jumping the broomstick, the naming of children, and adopting older unrelated slaves as aunts and uncles.

Rebellion of the African slaves

When the torture of the slave owners became unbearable, they started rebellion against them in different times in different ways. So the planters always concerned that enslaved African Americans would rebel against them. African American resistance severely limited a master's power. Fear of slave resistance reduced a white master's use of violence and increased the use of positive incentives and work discipline as control mechanisms. The African slave rebellion came in a variety of forms. The least common was organized and violent rebellion. Some of the famous slave rebellions of the period were: Gabriel Presser's in Virginia around 1800 and Nat Turner's in Virginia around 1831. There were other rebellions occurred, but these two were very famous at that time. In both cases, the rebellions failed, the leaders were executed and southern

fear about slave rebellions increased in their aftermath. Most of the resistances were non-violent in nature because for the slaves it was difficult to get weapons. They also did not know where to runaway. They had also not enough strong, young, male slaves to keep a rebellion continue.

Adaptation of different resistant methods by the slaves

When the violent rebellion of the slaves got failed, the African slaves in America adopted other forms of resistance. Most of the resistance methods were designed to hurt the planter economically. These forms of rebellion included: running away, laying out (refusing to work for a few days by finding a remote area on the plantation at which to rest in private), conducting work slow-downs, stealing food and selling it to free blacks, faking illness, and destroying equipment. In the worst cases, slaves killed their children, mutilate themselves (in order to be given different work), and commit suicide. There also were cases of slaves poisoning their masters and mixing finely ground glass into breads and meats in order to slowly kill the masters consuming these foods. Thus, the slaves adopted the above methods for their survival from the clutches of the slave owners of America.

Anti-Slavery Movement in America

The African and African American slaves also expressed their opposition to slavery through armed uprisings such as the Stono Rebellion (1739) and the New York Slave Insurrection of 1741. Prior to this, in 1688, four German Quakers in Germantown, a town outside Philadelphia, wrote a petition against the use of slaves by the English colonists in the nearby countryside. They presented the petition to their local Quaker Meeting, and the Meeting was sympathetic, but could not decide what the appropriate response should be. The Meeting passed the petition up the chain of authority to Philadelphia Yearly Meeting, where it continued to be ignored and was archived and forgotten for 150 years. However, in 1844 the petition was rediscovered and became a focus of the burgeoning abolitionist movement. It was the first public American document of its kind to protest slavery. It was also one of the first public declarations of universal human rights. Thus although the petition itself was forgotten, the idea that every human has equal rights was discussed in Philadelphia Quaker society over the next century. Slavery was officially sanctioned by Philadelphia Yearly Meeting in 1776. Following the Revolution, the northern states all abolished slavery, with New Jersey acting last in 1804, although some of these laws merely reclassified slaves as indentured servants effectively maintaining slavery by another name. These state jurisdictions enacted the first abolition laws in the entire "New World". By 1808 all states (except South Carolina) had banned the international buying or selling of slaves. Acting on the advice of President Thomas Jefferson, who denounced the international trade as "violations of human rights which have been so long continued on the unoffending inhabitants of Africa, in which the morality, the reputation, and the best interests of our country have long been eager to prescribe" in 1807 Congress banned the international slave trade. However, the domestic slave trade continued.

Freedom of slaves

During this crucial period, whatever they did and wherever they worked, Africans and their descendants faced brutal oppression and a total lack of freedom. This was because owners lived in a constant fear of rebellion. Owners and overseers frequently mistreated their slaves. However, there were substantial numbers of free Black people in the United States, the Caribbean and Brazil by 1800. But they were still denied most of the rights enjoyed by white people. Europeans and Africans inevitably influenced each other's social, religious and cultural customs. Built in 1863 by Jones, Quiggin and Coof Liverpool, the Banshee was the first of the

so-called 'blockade runners' ordered by the Confederate States to beat the blockade imposed by the Federal Navy during the American Civil War.

Abolition of slavery in United States

The slave trade was abolished in the United States from 1 January 1808. However, some slaving continued on an illegal basis for the next fifty years. The campaign to end slavery itself in the United States was long and bitter. Whilst slavery was gradually reduced in the northern states, the determination of the southern states to oppose emancipation led to the Civil War of 1861 - 65. Many Blacks fought on the Federal side and separate Black units were formed. The ending of slavery in 1865 during the period of President Abraham Lincoln did not improve a lot of most the Black Americans and white Americans developed new forms of discrimination, such as segregation, over the following years. The civil rights movements, led by such figures as Martin Luther King, eventually achieved success in establishing legal equality. However, despite the undoubted achievement of individual Blacks, most Americans of colour still face economic and social discrimination and disadvantage.

Abolition of slavery in the Caribbean and South America

In spite of the abolition of the slave trade by several European states in the early years of the 19th century and the subsequent attempts to suppress it, illegal slaving continued until the 1870s. Indeed, approximately a quarter of all Africans who were enslaved for the trade were transported across the Atlantic after 1807. The largest proportion of this trade operated directly between Africa and the Americas, notably Brazil and Cuba. The last known slave ship landed its cargo in Cuba in 1867. The abolition of slavery was equally protracted. Slavery was abolished in British Caribbean colonies from 1834, though slaves were forced to undertake a further 4 year period of apprenticeship before they were finally freed. The achievement of freedom is thus dated from 1 August 1838. Brazil was the last country to emancipate all its slaves in 1888. Thus, the slave system came to an end in America and other European countries after a long time of struggle for freedom.

CHAPTER-7

ITS SOCIAL ROOTS, SPREAD OF HUMANISM IN EUROPE.

7.1 Introduction

The Renaissance and Reformation were the outcome of the reactions against the medieval civilization and thought. The period of Renaissance was a turning point in the history of world. The European society witnessed far-reaching intellectual changes during this period. It is considered as a bridge between the medieval period and the modern period in Europe. The fourteenth and fifteenth centuries are considered to be the period of Renaissance. During this time the learned people of Europe turned from religious speculation to the study of ancient Greek and Roman writers and challenged the religious and philosophical teachings of the medieval church. They were not satisfied with the study of the medieval ideas and ideologies. Instead of blindly supporting the medieval religious dogmas and superstitions, they asked wh(?) questions like what, why, where, when, etc. They also searched the monasteries for old Latin manuscripts and translated many hitherto unknown works from Greek antiquity to Latin. These European writers tried to induce classical learning into the main stream of the western thought. This period not only saw the revival of interest in Greek literature but also in classical architecture and sculpture. Most of the scholars of the Renaissance period focussed on the individual and humanist approach. They emphasised the value of man and tried to project the individual as a free agent of the society.

7.2. Social roots of Renaissance

The Renaissance was rendered possible by a number of social roots which were given bellow:

Decline of Feudalism

The decline of feudalism which was the basis of life during the medieval period, greatly contributed to the rise of Renaissance in Europe. The feudalism which began to decline by the close of the thirteenth century in France and Italy practically disappeared from Western European countries by the end of 1500 CE. In this context, the middle class society in Europe played a dominant role in the decline of feudalism. The decline of feudalism opened the path of Renaissance.

Rise of Middle Class in European society

The middle class consisting of teachers, traders, lawyers, businessmen, doctors. Etc contributed a lot for the growth of renaissance in Europe. These middle classes provided the kings necessary money for the maintenance of armies and thereby enabled them to reduce their dependence on the feudal lords. Further, due to development of trade and commerce during this period, there was great increase in prices which greatly benefited the craftsmen, merchants and cultivators. As the feudal lords could not increase their rents they were forced to borrow to maintain themselves. As the feudal lords were not able to repay the debts they were often obliged to sell off their lands. This gave a serious setback to feudalism and manorial life. Thus, the rise of the middle class society opened the way for the Renaissance.

Capture of Constantinople by the Turks

The capture of Constantinople, in the hands of the Turks in 1453 CE provided an impetus to Renaissance. It was a great centre of art, literature, and learning for more than eleven centuries. The fanatical Turks had no liberal outlook, love of learning, and tolerance of the Arabs. When it was captured, a large number of Greek and Roman scholars who were working in the libraries at Constantinople, fled to different parts of Europe with valuable literature. They began to teach Greek and Latin in various European countries. As passionate admirers of classical writers they searched for lost manuscripts of Greek and Latin literature and discovered many works which had been hitherto ignored and neglected. They collected the writings of classical writers, studied and edited them and later on printed their original editions. One prominent scholar who studied works of ancient writers and edited them was Erasmus. He asserted that the priests and theologians had distorted the simple teachings of Jesus. He published a fresh edition of *New Testament* in Greek to clarify the basic teachings of Christianity. Erasmus was against intolerance and persecution and advocated principles of intelligence, open-mindedness and goodwill towards all men. It was felt in Europe that the fall of Constantinople was a blessing in disguise, and it was said, "Greece has not fallen, she has migrated to Italy."

Spread of Education

The spread of education in the later middle ages changed the outlook of the people in Europe. The rise of cathedral schools all over Europe and the emergence of Paris, Padua, Naples, Bologna, Salamanca, Oxford, Cambridge and other universities disseminated knowledge and created the new mood of thinking and learning. The spread of education also led to the Renaissance in Europe.

Impact of the Crusades

The Crusades also provided an impetus to Renaissance. The Crusades or the wars between the Christians and Muslims which were fought between 11th and 14th century which resulted in the victory of the Muslims. As a result of the Crusades the Western scholars came in contact with the East which was more civilized and polished than the Christians. A number of Western scholars went to the universities of Cairo, Kufa and Cardona etc. and learnt many new

ideas. These learned persons spread the knowledge in Europe which helped in the growth of Renaissance.

Decline in the influence of Church

The Church which dominated the medieval society got a setback in the 13th and 14th centuries Europe. The power of the Church was challenged by a number of strong monarchs. In 1296 C.E. King Philip IV of France got the Pope arrested and made him a prisoner. This gave a serious blow to the power and prestige of the Pope. Even the common people lost faith in Church due to rise of numerous rituals. They preferred to pay greater attention to the present life rather than the life after death. They did not find the medieval ideas and rituals satisfactory. The decline of the influence of church also led to the rise of Renaissance in Europe.

Wealthy class of Europe

The Crusades presented an impulsion to trade and commerce in the 12th and 13th centuries. By this, the trade between eastern and western countries greatly increased. This greatly contributed to the wealth and prosperity of the people in Italy. Thus, emerged a wealthy class of traders, bankers and manufacturers in Europe. This class tried to utilise its wealth and strengthen its social importance by patronising artists and scholars. They also provided security and protection to the artists and encouraged them to produce outstanding works. With a view to attain refinement in every aspect of their culture, these wealthy classes tried to learn the rules of correct social behaviour by reading good manners books. The opening of the new lands for travel to the Europeans also greatly contributed to the broadening of the outlook and liberalisation of ideas in Europe.

Invention of Printing Press

Perhaps no single factor did so much for the Renaissance as the invention of printing press. The discovery of the printing press in 1454 by John Gutenberg of Mainz also greatly assisted in the revival of the learning. The printing press spread the knowledge far and wide. Thereafter, a number of printers appeared in Italy. The printing press was introduced in England by William Caxton in 1477. The invention of the printing press and availability of the paper in abundance at reasonable price greatly contributed to the popularity of the books and gave a boost to renaissance. According to Edith Sichel, "printing remained the source of irrigation which fertilized the world of intelligence." Earlier, the books were produced by monastic copyist or printed by presses set up in cloisters and only those books reached the general public which were approved by the Church. But the printing press enabled Europe to multiply books, and put them within the reach of scholars with modest means.

Role of Progressive Rulers and Nobles

A number of progressive rulers, Popes and nobles also played an important role in the rise of Renaissance. During this period, the rulers like Francis I of France, Henry VIII of England, Charles V of Spain, Christian 11 of Denmark etc. extended patronage to scholars and men of learning and greatly contributed to the revival of Greece-Roman classics. On other hand, Popes like Nicholas V, and Leo X also greatly contributed to renaissance by encouraging study of ancient Greek and Roman classical and patronising classical art, sculpture, music etc. Apart from the Kings and Popes, some nobles also patronised literary men, artists and scientists and contributed towards renaissance. For example, Medici family of Florence set up an academy in Florence which was devoted to the study and research of Platonic philosophy. They patronised painters, artists and sculptors like Michelangelo, Leonardo daVinci and Bertoldo. They also

established schools and gave funds to universities. The efforts of these progressive rulers and nobles paved the way for Renaissance in Europe.

Discovery of Mariner's compass

The discovery of Mariner's compass led to a large number of people taking long voyages because it was possible for them to know the exact direction in which they were sailing. The people were also able to explore the distant seas. As a result the notions about the shape and size of the world in vogue were challenged. A little later with the discovery of telescope people were able to scan the sky and made a new beginning in the study of astronomy. They came to know about the real position of the earth in the solar system. All this knowledge went against the teachings of Church and no wonder contributed to the weakening of the authority of the ecclesiastical system. This change of ideas helped in the change of knowledge of the people of Europe.

Geographical Discoveries

Geographical discoveries were another factor which led to the rise of Renaissance in Europe. These discoveries made their contribution in changing the attitude and outlook of the Europeans. Besides bringing into Europe the much needed spices and Oriental commodities and the profits of trade, they created the spirit of adventure and broadened the mental horizon. It changed the mindset of European people during the period of Renaissance.

Thus, the above social roots helped in the rise and growth of Renaissance in Europe.

7.3. SPREAD OF HUMANISM IN EUROPE

The Renaissance scholars developed humanism, a sympathetic study of man. Their approach was rational and humanistic. In the middle ages, the Church expected the scholars to make religion the core of their writing, while the classical writers of ancient Greece and Rome wanted man to be the centre of study or the study of humanism.

The Renaissance brought about a transition from the religious approach to the humanistic approach. Scholars would no more devote all their attention to the study of theological subjects. The word humanism has a wide connotation, and it cannot be easily defined. Peter Burke says in his *The Renaissance* (1964), "This term was apparently used in the general sense of liberal or literary education by such ancient Roman authors as Cicero and Gellius, and this use was resumed by Italian scholars of the late fourteenth century. By the first half of the 15th century, the *studia humanitatis* came to stand for a clearly defined cycle of scholarly disciplines, namely, grammar, rhetoric, history, poetry and moral philosophy, and the study of each of these subjects was understood to include the reading and interpretation of its standard ancient writers in Latin, and to a lesser extent in Greek."

The admirers of the new learning were Humanists and the subjects of their studies Humanities. Unlike medieval scholars, Renaissance scholars began studying subjects of human interest in contrast to the study of theology and other subjects approved by the Church in the middle ages. Thus began a devoted study of humanities. Humanism besides standing for the revival of the study of ancient Greek and Latin classics also meant a warm interest in the study of man's life. Humanism developed a broad and open mind and a critical approach. Renaissance literature was characterised by secularism and individualism instead of embodying theology and scholasticism.

Origin of Humanism in Europe

The origin of humanism is said to have started in Europe in the 2nd half of 13th century. It began in Europe when the Europeans with a hunger for studying classical texts coincided with a desire to imitate those classical authors in style. They weren't to be direct copies, but drew on old models, picked up vocabulary, styles, intentions and form. Humanism of Renaissance period began to use their knowledge, love, may be even obsession of the past to change how they and others saw and thought about their own era. It was not imitation, but a new consciousness that developed in Europe. It was a new historical perspective which gave a historically based alternative to 'medieval' ways of thinking. Humanism began to affect the then culture, society and also the Renaissance in Europe. The humanists operating before Petrarch are called 'Proto-Humanists' and were mainly in Italy. They included Lovato Dei Lovati who was born in 1240 and died in 1309. He was a judge who might have been the first to mix reading Latin poetry with writing modern classical poetry to major effect. In this context, others had tried, but Lovato achieved and knew far more than others. Renaissance humanists had a hunger for funding old texts and bringing them back to the world.

Protagonists of Humanism in European Renaissance

There were some protagonists of Humanism who spread the human value during the period of Renaissance in Europe. Some important leaders of Humanism in European Renaissance are given bellow:

Francesco Petrarca (Petrarch)

Francesco Petrarca, popularly known as Petrarch, was an Italian scholar and poet during the early Renaissance. He is considered as the Father of Humanism. He virtually worshipped classical literature. He disapproved the idea of self-repression and asceticism of the middle ages and showed preference for pleasures of human life. He was a firm believer that classical writings were not just relevant to his own age but saw in them moral guidance which could reform humanity, a key principle of Renaissance Humanism.

Francesco Petrarca (Petrarch)

According to him, "Humanism should be a doctor to human morals". Petrarch didn't apply much of this thinking to government but worked at bringing together the classics and the Christians. The proto-humanists had been largely secular; Petrarch brought religion in, arguing that history can have a positive effect on a Christian soul. Petrarch has been said to have created the Humanist programme. He argued that each person should study the ancients and create their own style to reflect themselves. Had Petrarch not lived, Humanism would have been seen as more threatening to Christianity. His actions in bringing the new religion, allowed Humanism to spread greater and more effectively in the late fourteenth century. In the fifteenth century in Italy Humanism once more became secular.

Other Humanists of Europe

Among the other humanists of Europe, humanists like Rudolph Agricola, Reuchlin and Erasmus, Jacob Wimpheling, etc. were prominent.

Agricola(1443-1485)

Agricola was born near Groningen in 1443 and breathed his last in 1485. He enjoyed the highest reputation in his day as a scholar and received unstinted praise from Erasmus and Melanchthon.

Agricola(1443-1485)

He has been regarded as doing for Humanism in Germany what was done for Italy by Petrarch. After studying in Erfurt, Louvain and Cologne, Agricola went to Italy, spending some time at the universities in Pavia and Ferrara. He declined a professor's chair in favour of an appointment at the court of Philip of the Palatinate in Heidelberg. He made Cicero and Quintilian his models. In

his last years, he turned his attention to theology and studied Hebrew. The inscription on his tomb in Heidelberg stated that he had studied what is taught about God and the true faith of the Saviour in the books of Scripture. The contribution of Agricola for the spread of humanism was tremendous.

Jacob Wimpheling (1450-1528)

Another prominent Humanist was Jacob Wimpheling of Schlettstadt who taught in Heidelberg.

Jacob Wimpheling

He was inclined to be severe on clerical abuses but, at the close of his career, wanted to substitute for the study of Virgil and Horace, Sedulius and Prudentius.

John Trithemius (1462-1516)

John Trithemius deserves a high esteem in the German literature of the last years of the Middle Ages. He was the head of the monks of a Benedictine convent at Sponheim, which under his guidance, gained the reputation of a learned academy in Europe. **John Trithemius**

He collected a library of 2,000 volumes and wrote a patrology, or encyclopaedia of the Fathers, and a catalogue of the renowned men of Germany. Increasing differences with the convent led to his resignation in 1506, when he decided to take up the offer of the Lord Bishop of Wurzburg, Lorenz von Bibra (bishop from 1495 to 1519), to become abbot of the Schottenkloster in Wurzburg. He remained there until the end of his life. Prelates and nobles visited him to consult and read the Latin and Greek authors he had collected.

Desiderius Erasmus

Another famous scholar who adopted critical approach to the study of scriptures was Erasmus whose writings had inspired ecclesiastical reforms. Desiderius Erasmus Roterodamus, known as Erasmus or Erasmus of Rotterdam, was a Dutch philosopher and Christian scholar who is widely considered to have been one of the greatest scholars of the northern Renaissance and for humanism.

Johannes Gutenberg

Another famous humanist was Johannes Gutenberg. He was born at Johannes Gensfleisch zur Laden. He is widely considered the most influential person within the German Renaissance. As a free thinker, humanist, and inventor, Gutenberg also grew up within the Renaissance, but influenced it greatly as well. His best-known invention is the printing press in 1440.

Johannes Gutenberg

Gutenberg's press allowed humanists, reformists, and others to circulate their ideas. He is also known as the creator of the Gutenberg Bible, a crucial work that marked the start of the "Gutenberg evolution" and the age of the printed book in the Western world.

Johann Reuchlin

Johann Reuchlin was the most important aspect of world culture teaching within Germany at this time. He was a scholar of both Greek and Hebrew. After graduation, he started teaching at Basel. He was considered extremely intelligent. Yet after leaving Basel, he had to start copying manuscripts and apprenticing within areas of law. However, he is most known for his work within Hebrew studies.

Johann Reuchlin

Unlike some other "thinkers" of this time, Reuchlin submerged himself into humanism. He also created a guide to preach within the Hebrew faith. The book, titled *De Arte Predicandi* (1503), is possibly one of his best-known works during this time.

Albrecht Durer

Albrecht Durer was at the time, and remains, the most famous artist of the German Renaissance. He was famous across Europe, and greatly admired in Italy, where his work was mainly known through his prints.

He successfully integrated an elaborate Northern style with Renaissance harmony and monumentality. Among his best known works are Melencolia I, the Four Horsemen from his woodcut Apocalypse series and Death, the Knight, and the Devil, etc. Other significant artists were Lucas Cranach the Elder, the Danube School and the Little Masters.

Martin Luther

Humanism stimulated the development of the Reformation. Martin Luther initiated the Protestant Reformation through the criticisms of church practices such as selling indulgences, which he published in his Ninety-Five Theses of 1517.

Martin Luther

Luther also translated the Bible into German, making the Christian scriptures more accessible to the general population and inspiring the standardization of the German language. Luther's boldness and his spreading of the Reformation within the Church could be understood only in a humanist context, with the new horizons it opened. Generally speaking, translations of the Bible into vernacular languages - German, French, English - from original texts were made possible due to the work of the humanists. The translations themselves enabled greater direct access to Bible texts. This opening enabled discussion of some political aspects of the Church's doctrinal authority. Humanists, poets, men of letters spread Luther's ideas in France. They had been introduced by refractory monks from Germany, among others. Calvin himself was trained in law and literature, permeated with humanism, at Montaigu College, in Orleans and in Bourges. He had many humanist friends, notably Guillaume Bude and particularly Theodore de Beze. The Humanist library in Selestat contained a great number of books dealing with the links between Humanism and Reformation, including manuscripts by Bucer and Zwingli.

Thus, the above leaders contributed their part to humanism movement of which Reuchlin and Erasmus were the chief lights.

Intellectual basis of humanism

The intellectual basis of the Renaissance was its own invented version of humanism derived from the concept of Roman 'Humanitas' and the rediscovery of classical Greek philosophy, such as that of Protagoras, who said that "Man is the measure of all things." This new thinking became manifest in art, architecture, politics, science and literature. Early examples were the development of perspective in oil painting and the recycled knowledge of how to make concrete. Although the invention of metal moveable type sped the dissemination of ideas from the later 15th century, the changes of the Renaissance were not uniformly experienced across Europe: the very first traces appear in Italy as early as the late 13th century, in particular with the writings of Dante and the paintings of Giotto.

Spread of Humanism in Europe

During the period of Renaissance Italy started as the centre for the new humanist education. It attracted many students from other countries as well as sending many of their scholars to work in other countries. The ideas of Italian humanism had spread into many parts of Western Europe

before the end of the 15th century. The roots of humanism were based in the past and the humanism of the countries North of Europe was strongly influenced by their past too. The differences between Italian and Northern humanism was in great part due to their difference in their histories.

The Italian humanists identified strongly with Rome. The Northern Europeans did not have such a strong tie to Rome and their form of humanism often viewed the history of the Middle Ages with more sympathy. The Northern humanists also retained stronger ties to Christianity than did Italy and were, in general, less hostile to the traditional educational system of scholasticism. Because the humanism movement took longer to move into Northern Europe, its arrival and acceptance coincided with the Reformation.

Christian humanism

Northern humanism has also been identified with Christian humanism. Christian humanism attempted to use the scholarly techniques of humanism and apply them to the study of the Bible while ignoring prior medieval interpretations. Humanists also read biblical texts in their original Greek and Hebrew and discovered discrepancies among the sources. These discrepancies led to more questions about the Catholic Church's policies and practices. These questions evoked more support for the reform movement.

Like other religious reformers of the Renaissance, the Christian humanists, generally considered themselves as good Catholics. Among the humanists, the best known Christian humanist was Desiderius Erasmus. Erasmus had numerous works, including a Latin translation of the New Testament as well as a Greek edition. Erasmus favoured flexibility and tolerance and condemned overly rigid belief systems. He had an unequalled reputation as a biblical scholar and his view influenced large numbers of people (both Catholic and Protestant). Although receptive to change, the biblical humanists generally believed in the unity of the church and wanted to preserve reformed Catholic traditions. When Martin Luther condemned some of the basic teaching of the Catholic Church, Erasmus, along with some other Christian humanists refused to accept Martin Luther's arguments. The Reformation inspired scepticism and encouraged questioning of past beliefs and religious traditions, but Christian humanists simply could not embrace Martin Luther's assertions that, with absolute certainty, major doctrines of the Catholic Church could be proved wrong.

Character of Humanism in Europe

The character of humanism is quite important. It was characterised by lots of creativity and interest in the Arts and Humanities brought about by increased scientific knowledge, a renewed approach to ancient Greek-Latin texts, as well as to thorough consideration of the art of governance. The Humanists were painters, architects, philosophers, philologists, scientists, travellers of Europe. The publication of ancient, learned texts (Pythagoras, Euclid, Archimedes, Plato, Aristotle, Virgil, etc.) and the books of the Bible, broadened their outlook and inventiveness. The Humanists were committed to a rational approach leading to academic initiatives. These academic initiatives included (1) how to deal with perspective in painting which changed the art of landscape painting, (2) the development of geometry and its application to architecture, etc. In 1540, the invention of printing helped the of spread humanist writings in Europe.

Spread of Renaissance Humanism in Northern Europe

The Renaissance Humanism had also spread to Northern Europe. In general it came much later to Germany and Northern Europe. The Northern Renaissance was the Renaissance that occurred

in Europe north of the Alps. Before 1497, Italian Renaissance humanism had little influence outside Italy. From the late 15th century, its ideas spread around Europe. This influenced the German Renaissance, French Renaissance, English Renaissance, Renaissance in the Low Countries, Polish Renaissance and other national and localized movements, each with different characteristics and strengths.

The Renaissance Humanism also encountered some resistance from the scholastic theology which reigned at the universities. Humanism may be dated from the invention of the printing press about 1450. Its flourishing period began at the close of the 15th century and lasted only until about 1520, when it was absorbed by the more popular and powerful religious movement i.e. the Reformation. The university and school played a much more important part than in spreading humanism in Europe. The representatives of the new scholarship were teachers; even Erasmus taught in Cambridge and was on intimate terms with the professors at Basel. During the progress of the movement new universities sprang up, from Basel to Rostock. Again, in Germany, there were no princely patrons of arts and learning to be compared in intelligence and benevolence to the Renaissance popes and the Medici. It sought the general spread of intelligence, and was active in the development of primary and grammar schools. In fact, when the currents of the Italian Renaissance began to set toward the North, a strong, independent, intellectual current was pushing down from the flourishing schools conducted by the Brethren of the Common Life. In the Humanistic movement, the German people were far from being a slavish imitator. In the North, Humanism entered into the service of religious progress. German scholars were less brilliant and elegant, but more serious in their purpose and more exact in their scholarship than their Italian predecessors and contemporaries.

In the North, the focus on translation was a feature of the Christian humanists who helped to launch the new, post-scholastic era, among them Erasmus and Luther. In so doing, they also placed biblical texts above any human or institutional authority, an approach that emphasised the role of the reader in understanding a text for him or herself. Closely allied to the late medieval shift of scholarship from the monastery to the university, Christian humanism produced a new freedom of expression, even though some of its proponents proposed that freedom of expression elsewhere, such as in their censure of the Anabaptists.

In Germany, Humanism represented itself in the true art. Jurer and Holbein had close contacts with leading humanists. Cranach lived Wittenberg after 1504 and painted portraits of Martin Luther, Philip Melancthon and other leaders of the German Reformation. In France, King Francis I imported Italian art, commissioned Venetian artists (including Leonardo da Vinci), and built grand palaces at great expense, starting the French Renaissance. Universities and the printed book helped spread the spirit of the age through France, the Low Countries and the Holy Roman Empire, and then to Scandinavia and finally Britain by the late 16th century. Writers and humanists such as Rabelais, Pierre de Ronsard and Desiderius Erasmus were greatly influenced by the Italian Renaissance model and were part of the same intellectual movement. During the English Renaissance (which overlapped with the Elizabethan era) writers such as William Shakespeare and Christopher Marlowe composed works of lasting influence. The Renaissance was brought to Poland directly from Italy by artists from Florence and the Low Countries, starting the Polish Renaissance.

In some areas the Northern Renaissance was distinct from the Italian Renaissance in its centralization of political power. While Italy and Germany were dominated by independent city-states, most of Europe began emerging as nation-states or even unions of countries. The Northern Renaissance was also closely linked to the Protestant Reformation with the resulting long series

of internal and' external conflicts between various Protestant groups and the Roman Catholic Church having lasting effects.

Spread of German Humanists

Many areas of the arts and sciences were influenced, notably by the spread of Renaissance humanism to the various German states and principalities. There were many advances made in the fields of architecture, the arts, and the sciences. Germany produced two developments that were to dominate the 16th century all over Europe, (1) printing, (2) the Protestant Reformation. One of the most important German humanists was Konrad Celtis (1459-1508). Celtis studied at Cologne and Heidelberg, and later travelled throughout Italy collecting Latin and Greek manuscripts. Heavily influenced by Tacitus, he used the Germania to introduce German history and geography. Eventually he devoted his time to poetry, in which he praised Germany in Latin. Another important figure was Johann Reuchlin (1455-1522) who studied in various places in Italy and later taught Greek. He studied the Hebrew language, aiming to purify Christianity, but encountered resistance from the church. The most significant German Renaissance artist is Albrecht Durer especially known for his printmaking in woodcut and engraving, which spread all over Europe, drawings, and painted portraits. Important architecture of this period includes the Landshut Residence, Heidelberg Castle and the Town Hall in Augsburg. The fame of the Renaissance was carried over the pathways of trade which led from Northern Italy to Augsburg, Nuremberg, Konstanz and other German cities. Thus, the Renaissance Humanism created a new era in Germany.

Humanism in Belgium, the Netherlands and French Flanders

Humanism of Renaissance period had also spread to the low countries like Belgium, the Netherlands and French Flanders around sixteenth century. Culture in the Low Countries at the end of the 15th century was influenced by the Italian Renaissance, through trade via Bruges which made Flanders wealthy. Its nobles commissioned artists who became famous across Europe. In science, the anatomist Andreas Vesalius led the way and in cartography, Gerardus Mercator's map assisted explorers and navigators. In art, Dutch and Flemish Renaissance painting went from the strange work of Hieronymus Bosch to the everyday life of Pieter Brueghel the Elder. In architecture, music and literature too, the culture of the Low Countries moved into the Renaissance Humanism.

Titian Vecelli

Titian Vecelli (1477-1576), or Titian as he was known, mainly represented the Venetian school of painting.

His pictures were characterized by bright colours. He enjoyed the patronage of Emperor Charles V and Philip II of Spain, and was an official painter for the city of Venice. In oil painting, Titian could hardly be surpassed by any artist.

Venetian School

The Venetian school of painting also did much for painting. The Bellinis (father and son), Mantegna, Giorgione, Titian and Tintoretto (1518-1592) of the Venetian school of painting also secured a high place among the Italian masters by their secular bright coloured portraits and landscapes. Under the influence of the Flemish painters, they evolved the new principle of painting on canvas with oil and varnish with fine mosaic colour patterns. The completely secular spirit of these painters prepared the way for modern art. Their style gradually spread to eastern and northern Europe. The paintings of the Venetian school are entirely free from piety, mysticism and spiritual objectives. They are worldly, materialistic and secular. The young and

handsome men and women reveal the zest and joy of living. In Spain, Velasquez, Murillo and El Greco were the greatest painters.

Van Eyck Brothers

In Flanders, the Van Eyck brothers painted pictures, which could rival those of the Italian masters. Moreover, they found a new technique of mixing colours, which was better than that of their Italian counterparts.

Rubens and Antony Van Dyck, who were also great Flemish painters, raised the Flemish school to the pinnacle of its glory. Rembrandt was the greatest painter of Holland. *Velasquez*: Spain produced the great painter Velasquez. El Greco, a Greek, who was educated in Venice shone as a great painter in Spain. He adapted the Renaissance techniques for religious intensity.

Holbein and Durer

Hans Holbein (1497-1534) and Albrecht Durer (1471-1528) were the greatest painters of Germany. Durer enjoyed the patronage of Emperor Maximilian. He had friendly contacts with all the great painters of his time. One of his paintings was the portrait of Erasmus. Owing to his deep scientific curiosity, profound thinking, versatility and artistic genius, he came to be known as the Leonardo da Vinci of the North.

8.6. THE RENAISSANCE LITERATURE

The great impact of the Renaissance was felt in the field of literature. Literature became the vehicle of all kinds of thoughts and ideas. For example, the Renaissance writers conveyed humanist thought and social criticism through fiction, essays, stories, dramas, epics and poems.

Revival of the Study of Ancient Classics

The Renaissance brought about a revival of the study of ancient Greek and Roman classics. The revival not only brought back to the Europeans the great knowledge and the spirit of the great masterminds of ancient Greece and Rome, but also put them in close contact with the full life that the Greeks and the Romans had lived. In the early medieval period in Europe the development was lopsided. It was not all round, but mostly religious and theological. The Church dictated and controlled in every field and ruled the European mind. The Church wanted only theological and religious development, and it frowned at anything in literature, which looked pagan and un-Christian. The classical Greek and Roman writers had an outlook totally different from that of the medieval writers, who made themselves completely subservient to the Church. It would be incorrect to say that people did not read anything from ancient Greece and Rome in the Middle Ages, as the study of ancient classics had not been completely neglected. Latin was used in the ceremonies and rituals of the Roman Catholic Church, and Greek was used in the Greek Church. In the medieval universities, Plato and Aristotle, Cicero and Seneca were studied. Then again, in the field of art and architecture, the Greek and the Roman styles were used. But it must be noted here that there was a great difference in the attitudes of the medieval and the Renaissance scholars. The attitude of the former was utilitarian, while that of the latter was basically humanistic. The new approach was to show appreciation of the works of Homer, Sophocles, Euripides, Cicero, Virgil and other writers for its own sake. Ancient classical literature was read with true interest and for the sake of intellectual pleasure.

Growth of vernaculars

One of the important results of the Renaissance was the development of vernaculars. Till 13th century, Latin continued as a living language of the greatest importance. It was the language of the Church, the state and the learned people all over Europe. In the latter middle ages, many local dialects blossomed into rich vernaculars which could be used by the great scholars and

poets. As the Renaissance developed humanism, the study of vernaculars was stimulated. All over Europe it was becoming clear that vernaculars were enthusiastically used for the cultivation of national literatures.

However, in the middle ages there was no literary criticism. But it commenced by the middle of the 16th century. In France a group of scholars led by Ronsard formed a society to reform the French language. An analogous movement was begun in England as indicated by Sir Philip Sidney's celebrated book "Apologie for poetrie"

Drama

As a result of the Renaissance, the modern drama took shape. This had its roots in the medieval religious plays known as the mystery and miracle plays. Originally the dramas were dominated by religion, but in the early modern times, there was a tendency to have the human element in them: Another important development was the introduction of classicism. Roman comedies of Terence and Plautus and tragedies of Seneca were studied and imitated.

Epic

In the 16th century literature of Europe, epics dealing with the heroic deeds of knights, crusaders and historical figures had a high place. They also had the classical and humanistic spirit.

Dictionaries

In the 16th century dictionaries for Italian, German, French, Netherlandish and Spanish were prepared.

Philology

Attempt to study comparative philology was made by Von Gesner, who published in 1553 in Latin an analysis of over 100 dialects.

Renaissance in literature in Italy

In Italy great writers made Italian a rich and powerful language. The strong literary movement in favour of Italian began in the later middle ages. Owing to the writings of Dante and Petrarch, polished Italian superseded Latin for literary purposes.

Dante

The first name in the literary firmament of Rome which strikes us is of the great Italian poet Dante (1265-1321).

Dante used Italian, the language of the common people, instead of Latin, the language of scholars, for expressing his great thoughts. In his immortal *Divine Comedy*, he showed how Italian was as good as Latin as a medium of thought and expression and that even ordinary men and women had the capacity to think. Unlike most of the medieval writers, but like the classical Greek and Latin writers, he made a humanistic approach rather than a theological approach. His *Divine Comedy* was full of secular and human interest, as it dealt with "human love, love of country, interest in natural phenomena and even the desire for a free and united Italian nation". He was rightly hailed as the Morning Star of the Renaissance in literature. It is believed that the publication of this book marked the beginning of the Renaissance in Italy.

Petrarch

Another great Italian poet was Petrarch (1304-1374) of Florence, who actually proved by his writings that Italian could be as rich and effective as Latin as a medium of expression in literature. Like Dante, he also broke the supremacy of Latin and gave a proud place and stature to Italian.

At the same time, he showed how great the Latin classics of Virgil, Cicero, Livy and other Roman writers were, and created a lively interest among Italians to read Roman classics. He was able to discover the lost orations of Cicero. As a poet, he wrote love sonnets to "Laura ". The influence of Petrarch was profound all over Europe. Pope Clement VI, Emperor Charles IV, the king of Naples and other eminent men patronised him. He was given the freedom of the city of Venice by the Venetian Senate. He was crowned with a laurel by the University of Paris and the city of Rome.

Boccaccio

Boccaccio (1313-1375) also served well the cause of the Italian language. His interesting stories known as the *Decameron* enriched Italian prose.

The book recalls the stories supposed to have been related by certain fine ladies and, fine gentlemen to one another in a country house outside Florence, where they had gone during the plague epidemic. Boccaccio learnt Greek and set an example to others to do the same. He knew that Greek was a very rich language conveying great and original thoughts of a great ancient people. The study of Greek classics was sure to kindle the spirit of inquiry and scientific thinking. He was in the field of prose, what Dante and Petrarch were in poetry.

Ariosto and Tasso

Ariosto (1474-1533) and Tasso (1544-1595), the Italian poets, wrote poems on events drawn from the Crusades. The Florentine historians Machiavelli and Guicciardini (1482. 1540) wrote excellent Italian prose.

Niccolo Machiavelli

Niccolo Machiavelli (1469-1527), the Italian patriot and diplomat, who was deeply frustrated with the political condition of Italy earned great fame by writing the book entitled *The Prince* (1513), which became the Bible of the kings who desired to exercise absolute power.

He wrote at a time when armies of foreign kings were invading Italy. He dreamed of united Italy. *The Prince* was published after his death and was translated into all the languages of Europe. It provided the guiding principles of the *Realpolitik*, and inspired Victor Emmanuel to unify Italy as it did Napoleon and Mussolini to build power.

Chrysoloras

Around 1400 many Greek scholars migrated from Constantinople and Greece to Italy owing to attacks of the Muslims. Manuel Chrysoloras (1397) was one of them. He established a well known school at Florence, and taught Homer to his students. Though he stayed in Florence only for three years, he was able to give a good start to Italian humanists.

Renaissance literature in England

The Renaissance in England took place in the time of Henry VIII and Queen Elizabeth in the 16th century. Its full outburst was in the field of literature. England had a number of great poets and prose writers. These included Geoffrey Chaucer, Francis Bacon, who wrote *Essays*. Sir Thomas More, who wrote the *Utopia*, Edmund Spenser (1552-1599) who wrote the *Faerie Queene* in dedication to Queen Elizabeth I, Ben Jonson, Christopher Marlowe , who wrote plays, William Shakespeare, who wrote dramas, Milton, who wrote the *Paradise Lost*, Wyatt and Surrey, Sidney Green, Beaumont and Fletcher and many others. The number of poets in England was so large that it was called a land of singing birds.

Drama

Under the impact of the Renaissance, England developed her modern drama. The classical spirit of the Greek and Roman dramatists was recaptured. The first modern drama was produced in England. A group of scholars known as the *University Wits* was formed in London to stage dramas. The group included such eminent men as John Lyly (1554-1606), Robert Greene (1560-1592) and Christopher Marlowe (1561-1593).

Protestantism

With the rise of Protestantism, religious literature came to be produced in English instead of Latin. The influence of Luther, who translated the *Bible* into German, had its impact on England. Cranmer wrote the *Book of Common Prayer* in English, and Tyndale translated the *New Testament* into English.

Colet

The most important Christian humanist of England was John Colet (1519), the Dean of St. Paul's Cathedral in London and the founder of St. Paul's School.

Geoffrey Chaucer

Geoffrey Chaucer heralded the Renaissance literature in England. He is considered as one of the greatest writers of his age.

He was profoundly influenced by the *Decameron* of Boccaccio, and wrote the wonderful *Canterbury Tales*. He has been regarded as the Father of English Poetry.

Thomas More

Sir Thomas More wrote the *Utopia*. Though this was written in Latin in the middle ages, it reflected the ideas and spirit of the modern times. In it More gave the humanist's picture of an ideal society.

For some time he was the Lord Chancellor of England under Henry VIII. As he did not approve of some acts of the king, he was thrown in prison and later beheaded.

Francis Bacon

Like More, Sir Francis Bacon (1561-1626) visualised in his *New Atlantis* a paradise. He was famous as a man of letters, statesman, lawyer, philosopher and wit.

William Shakespeare

William Shakespeare (1564-1616) is regarded as the greatest English dramatist, and the greatest dramatist of the world.

His works challenge comparison with the dramas of the Greek writers like Aeschylus, Sophocles and Euripides. Among his works, "As you like it", "A Mid-summer Night's dream", "Julius Caesar", "Romeo Juliet", etc are famous. The Renaissance interest in the world and man was best expressed in the dramas of Shakespeare. The great dramatist expresses eternal human emotions, hopes and aspirations, frustration in love, crime and retribution, jealousy and corruption.

3.3.4. 10. Renaissance Literature in France

In the 16th century, Michael De Montaigne, the great prose writer, and Francis Rabelais, the poet, led the Renaissance in French literature and prepared France for the golden age in the 17th century.

Francois Rabelais: Francois Rabelais (c. 1490-1553) was a great poet, who led the Renaissance in French literature, and prepared France for her golden age. His *Garantua and Pantagruel* summarised the Renaissance.

Though Rabelais was a monk, through his unmonkish writings he conveyed the new humanism. He used the figures of Gargantua and Pantagruel, the two giants, who did whatever they liked, to expose and criticize the social weaknesses of his times, and to preach humanism. Through his energetic humour and satire, he held out to ridicule the bigoted and the hypocritical clergy, and the bad kings and magistrates.

Michael Montaigne

Michael Montaigne (1533-1592) was the greatest product of the French literary Renaissance. He became famous for his essays, which he showed individualism and intense humanism. He frankly confessed that he was portraying himself and that he and his book marched together, keeping the same pace. His writings and thought anticipated Voltaire. He was a relentless critic of the past, when writers were denied freedom in the name of the Church dogma. His essays on education had a profound influence for many generations. Montaigne contributed the new form of literary writing, the essay. In his essays, he showed many of the qualities of Erasmus and remained detached from the religious conflict in France.

French Religious Literature

The Protestant Reformation had its effect on French literature. Calvin wrote the *Institutes of the Christian Religion* in French. Jean Bodin, a contemporary of Montaigne, is regarded as one of the early founders of modern social science. He contributed much to political science through his *Republic* in which he wrote on sovereignty.

ORIGINS AND SPREAD OF REFORMATION MOVEMENTS

1. Introduction

The 16th-century religious revolt known as the Reformation was one of the greatest of all revolutions. This stormy and brutal conflict separated the Christians of Western Europe into Protestants and Catholics. So far-reaching were the results of the separation that the Reformation has been called a turning point in the history of the world. It was a great religious movement which was launched by sincere and devoted Christians of northern Europe against the abusive attitude and principles of Roman Church and corrupt practices and immoral way of life of the members of clergy. It was a revolt against the authority of the Pope. Thus, this movement had dual objective like renovation of the moral life of the Christendom and the repudiation of the Papal claims to ecclesiastical supremacy. It was both a religious as well as a political movement. It was religious as far as it aimed at the moral rebirth of the people and political movement because it was an insurrection against the Papacy.

Meaning of Reformation

The term Reformation is a general name given to a group of religious movements, which broke out in the later Middle Ages and came to a climax in the sixteenth century, dividing Christians into two groups i.e. Roman Catholics and Protestants. All these movements were directed against the various shortcomings of the Church and the intolerable practices of clergymen. The main target of these movements was the Pope, the highest authority in the Church hierarchy. These movements created a division in the Christian Church. Those who continued to remain loyal to the Pope at Rome were called Roman Catholics, and those who revolted against him and broke

away from the Church at Rome were called Protestants. The Reformation movement broke out in Germany, England, France, Russia, Czechoslovakia, Switzerland and Scotland. All Protestants did not share the same religious beliefs or follow the same rituals or ceremonies. There were many differences between the Protestants of one country and those of another. An extreme form of Protestantism was Calvinism. Presbyterianism of Scotland and Puritanism of England were similar to Calvinism in simplicity, strictness and austerity. Though the revolt was organised by different sections under different names, it is collectively termed as Reformation because it aimed at reforming the existing church. But as the church failed to accept these reforms, the reformers set up their own church known as Protestant Church (now known as Roman Catholic Church). Therefore, sometimes the movement is also designated as Protestant Reformation.

The commencement of Reformation is closely connected with the revival of learning. Inspired by the spirit of enquiry scholars discovered that many doctrine of Roman Church did not find any mention in the Bible and the Roman Church had greatly departed from the Bible, original word of God. They found that the Roman Church had lost much of its early purity and become wealthy, worldly and luxurious. As a result it lost the respect of the Christian people. People particularly protested against the practice of *Letter of indulgences* under which the church could remit pardon for certain sins against payment of money. This left a deep impact on the morals of the people who came to believe that badness could be made good by payment of some money to the Church. This made the people corrupt in the society. The wise people in the society realised that a movement or reformation is necessary for the abolishment of the corrupt practices in the church.

9.2. Origin of Reformation

The Reformation slowly originated in the latter middle ages. Scholars usually date the beginning of the origin of Reformation to 1517 with the publication of Martin Luther's "Ninety five Thesis". However, it originated due to several causes which are given bellow.

Evil practices of the church

On the eve of reformation the church suffered from numerous evil practices which greatly undermined the reputation of the church and the churchmen. The entire organisations of the church right from Pope down to the priest were corrupt and vicious. They neglected their religious activities and took interest in politics. Some of the clergy men had amassed huge wealth and were living a luxurious life. They often indulged in hunting expeditions and drinking parties and completely neglected their religious duties. In short the church consisted of 'unholy men in holy orders'. Often the churchmen used the church as a means of business. They had devised a number of practices for this purpose. Thus the church offices were openly sold and quite often unsuitable men were appointed as priests. These people tried to make as much money as possible and liberally issued indulgences or pardon certificates against payment. This practice of issue of indulgences invited severe criticism and was described as 'sale of licenses to commit sin'.

Dissatisfaction of common masses with the Pope and church

The common masses were also unhappy with the Pope and church. They were not only unhappy with the prevailing corrupt practises in church and the flimsy grounds on which the church collected funds from innocent people but also disliked its interference in the secular affairs. No wonder they were eagerly looking for someone to provide them a lead for a revolt against the church. Even the rulers were quite unhappy with the Pope and strongly protested against Papal interference in the affairs of their states. Hence they were willing to provide support to any movement which was launched against the authority of the Pope.

The emergence of a strong middle class

The emergence of a strong middle class also greatly contributed to the reformation. The middle classes protested against the dominance of the old church because it was largely controlled by the upper classes and administered largely for their benefit. They looked down upon the artisans, merchants, lawyers, doctors etc. who constituted the middle class and were not willing to associate with them. Further, these middle classes greatly resented the practice of exempting the nobles from taxation, while they had to bear the brunt of taxation. In short the middle classes wanted to free the church from the control of wealthy aristocracy which looked down upon them and cared very little for their interests. Further, even the princes of Europe were not quite happy with the Pope who claimed considerable amount of their revenue in the form of donations and other contributions. The common people were also quite unhappy with the clergy which made numerous vexatious demands and hardly gave anything in return for their money.

The rise of nation states and new monarchs

The rise of nation states and new monarchs, who were keen to establish their absolute rule, also greatly contributed to the Reformation. A number of monarchs like Henry VIII considered the presence of a powerful church as a serious check on their authority because it was in many ways outside the King's authority and the property of the church was exempted from royal taxation. Further the Bishops still administered justice in church in accordance with the Canon Law. The flow of enormous amounts of money from the revenues of the country to the Papal treasury was also disliked by them. No wonder these kings fully exploited the opportunity offered by the teachings of Luther, Wycliffe etc. to challenge the authority of the church with a view to strengthen their own authority in the country. They established Protestant churches in their country knowing it fully well that the new church would be dependent upon them and shall be willing to accept their political authority. Thus, Protestant churches were established in many German principalities, in Holland, Denmark, Sweden, Norway and England.

New Learning and Spirit of Enquiry

The new spirit of learning and enquiry set in motion by the renaissance also greatly contributed to the Reformation. People began to assert themselves against blind faith and useless religious rituals and began to feel that they could reach God without the intermediary of a priest. Their reason also made them highly critical of the prevailing practices of sale of indulgences (pardon certificates), non-enforcement of the code of morality among the clergy, and undue interference of Papacy in the secular affairs.

The Great Schism in Church

The Schism in church in the fifteenth century also greatly lowered its prestige. Instead of one Pope, two Popes began to be elected one by the French Cardinals and the other by the Italian Cardinals. This undermined the prestige of Pope and people lost faith and reverence for the holy institution. How could people serve two masters? The things were further complicated in 1409 when the cardinals at a joint sitting elected a third Pope. This is known as the Great Western Schism. No doubt this Schism was bridged when the Council at Constance deposed both the Popes and elected a new Pope. But these developments certainly undermined the powers and prestige of the church.

Struggle for Supremacy among the Emperors, the Popes and the Councils of Bishops

The struggle for supremacy between the Emperors, the Popes and the Councils of Bishops a further set back to the prestige of the church. No doubt the spheres of Emperor and Pope had been clearly ear-marked. The King was expected to look after the physical well-being of his

subjects, while the Pope was expected to look after the spiritual matter, but in actual practice they did not operate within their respective spheres and often interfered in each other's affairs. As Van Loon has observed, "The Emperor invariable tried to interfere with the affairs of the church and the Pope retaliated and told the Emperor how he should rule his domains. They told each other to mind their own business in every unceremonious language and the inevitable end was war." Likewise the Council of Bishops asserted its authority against the Pope and asserted its right to look into the functioning of the church. Naturally the Popes did not like this because it limited their powers. This struggle for supremacy among the Emperor, Popes and Councils of Bishops greatly contributed to the Reformation Movement.

Important leaders of Reformation

As we know that the Reformation slowly originated in the latter middle ages. Some of the most important leaders of Reformation are given bellow.

John Wycliffe (1320 CE -1384 CE)

John Wycliffe was an important and early leader of the Reformation. He was an English priest and professor at Oxford, who taught theology till 1382 CE. He openly criticised the Church and said that the humiliating agreement made by the English King John Lackland to pay tribute to the Pope need not be honoured. He supported the state and said that it was higher than the Church. He was appointed rector of Fillingham (1361 CE), of Ludgershall (1368 CE) and of Lutterworth (1374 CE), He wrote pamphlets against the tributes demanded by the Pope and went to Bruges in 1374 CE as a delegate for negotiations on the matter.

Anti-Pope

He declared that the Pope was unworthy to become the representative of God on earth, as he was anti-Christ in spirit.

Monasticism

He affirmed that monasticism could not be regarded as a true part of Christianity and Pilgrimages to holy places could not lead Christians to salvation. He exposed the malpractices of the clergy and said that sacraments conducted by evil priests had no value.

Bible as Only Guide

The Bible was to be regarded as the only guide of Christians, who should put full faith in it. The Bible was translated into English by Wycliffe to enable the ordinary man to understand it. The clergy should not possess property particularly because it is not used for God's purposes. He suggested the confiscation of Church property by the state. In 1377 CE. he was charged with heresy, but as public opinion strongly favoured him, he escaped trial. In 1378 CE he was deprived of priestly powers, and in 1380 he was condemned as a heretic. In 1382 CE he was not allowed to teach at Oxford.

Lollard Movement

He called upon the priests to lead simple and virtuous lives, and be worthy of becoming the servants of God. The priests, who followed him, were called Lollards (Poor Priests), whose views were similar to those of the Waldensians. The Lollard movement launched by him aimed at following the simple truth of Holy Scriptures, instead of giving too much importance to rituals, prayer and fasting. People from various sections of society to whom Wycliffe was a great source of inspiration joined the Lollard movement. He condemned the worldliness, wealth and luxury of the Church, which made a mockery of the principles for which Jesus lived and died.

While the Pope excommunicated Wycliffe, the English kings like Henry IV and Henry V struck hard at it by imposing heavy fines, long terms of imprisonment, and burning at the stake.

Tremendous Influence

Wycliffe was able to exert a tremendous influence on all sections of society. The impact of his views on Czechoslovakia ultimately gave rise to a revolt led by Martin Luther. The move of the Pope and of the English kings to wipe out the Lollard movement was not fully successful. The Lollard ideas which had captured the minds of the people could not be erased. Among the great leaders, who challenged the Church, Wycliffe was the earliest. As he preached about 150 years before Martin Luther, he was called the Morning Star of the Reformation. After his death in 1384 CE., the Council of Constance condemned him in 1415 CE, and his body was disinterred and cremated.

John Huss

John Huss (1369-1415 CE), a priest and professor at the University of Prague in Bohemia, was strongly inspired by the Lollard movement of John Wycliffe. He criticised image worship, and the multiplication of rituals and collection of fees by priests for their services. He said that Christ, not Pope, is the head of the Church. A Pope should be obeyed only when his orders are in harmony with the law of Christ. Rebelling against a bad Pope was like obeying Christ.

Like Wycliffe, he also exposed the pretences of the worldly and luxury-loving clergy, and emphasised the need for a check on the power of the Pope, through various sermons and pamphlets. The ranks of the Hussites swelled, and this was a cause of concern to the Pope. All Christians were not prepared to agree with John Huss, who along with his followers finally left Prague, and went to Leipzig, where they established the first university in Germany.

Against Indulgences

He criticised the sale or Indulgences by the Pope in 1411 CE for raising funds for a crusade against the king of Naples.

Martyrdom of Huss

The teachings of Huss badly damaged the prestige of the Church, and the Pope was bent on taking stern action against him, and if necessary put him to death. He was excommunicated and deprived of all the services of the Church. Huss reacted by publicly burning the Papal order. The Pope then took the extreme step and asked Sigismund, the Holy Roman Emperor, to deal with Huss as a heretic. Huss was directed to explain his conduct before a Church Council at Constance in Switzerland. Huss suspected being burnt at the stake, but he was assured that no harm would be done to his person. Then Huss spoke freely before the council. But the promise given to him was violated, and he was burnt at the stake in 1415 CE. On behalf of the Church it was asserted that a promise given to a heretic need not be honoured.

Huss thus became a martyr. The Pope was wrong in imagining that he had weakened the movement against him. The movement became stronger, as the followers of Huss thought that he had died for a great cause, and that they should avenge his death. Like the Lollards, the Hussites were severely persecuted by kings who championed the cause of the Pope. But Huss had not become a martyr in vain.

Course of Reformation

In the midst of above condition Martin Luther, a teacher in the University of Wittenberg posed a challenge to the authority of the church. He raised the controversy by pasting on the church door at Wittenberg ninety five thesis.

Martin Luther

In accordance with the prevailing practice and customs, the pasting of these thesis implied that he wanted a discussion on the pros and cons of various practices of church. It may be observed that Martin Luther was prompted to take this action because he saw a monk named Tetzel selling Indulgences in Wittenberg to rid persons of their sins. The indulgences were authoritative certificates issued by the church for remittance of punishment of sins in return for a gift of money to the church for some pious purpose. The idea underlying the Indulgences was that sin, like world offences, could be commuted by fine. However, in course of time this practice began to be used by the church for raising money without insisting on the previous penitence of the offender. Luther challenged the claim of the Pope and other church officials that God would pardon the purchaser of an indulgence. He asserted "Salvation was a matter between man and God; it could come from God only, through faith of each human being."

Soon the ninety five thesis or statements of Luther became the subject of discussion in the country and within two months they began to be discussed in Europe as well. Though initially Pope Leo did not pay any heed to the controversy raised by Martin Luther, but subsequently he decided to send celebrated theologian Eck to hold a debate with Luther. Eck found that Luther's doctrine was contrary to the teachings of the church and asked him to recant it. However, Luther refused to recant and Pope Leo X issued a bull of ex-communication against Luther. Luther retaliated by burning the Papal Bull in public. This greatly enraged the Pope and he ordered Luther to appear before an assembly of the city of Worms. At the Diet of Worms (1521 CE), Luther refused to recant. Therefore, he was declared 'an outlaw before God and man". Luther saved his life by taking protection with the Duke of Saxony and translated Bible into German. Soon he won the admiration of a large number of German people who described him as a hero and renounced the authority of the Pope. Some of the German princes also supported his ideas and soon most of northern German states were converted into his ideas. They destroyed a large number of monasteries. Some of the priests even abjured their allegiance to the Pope. Thus the Church in Germany came to be divided between the Roman Catholics and the two were involved in prolonged religious war. In 1526 CE Emperor Charles V convened the German Diet to settle the religious question. However, the Diet did not succeed. Ultimately, in 1529 CE Emperor asked the Diet to uproot here say and to see that Mass was not interfered anywhere. This was not to the liking of the Lutherans and they protested against his order. Thereafter the followers of Luther began to be designated as Protestants.

The protracted religious war between the Catholics and Protestants continued till 1555 CE when the German Diet signed the Religious Peace of Augsburg. Under this treaty, Lutheranism was accepted another legal form the Christianity and the rulers of German states were given the option to decide the religion of their subjects. Under the settlement the Protestants were allowed to keep the property appropriated prior to 1552 CE. The Catholics who turned Lutherans were required to give up church. The northern German states opted for Protestantism or Lutheranism, while the Southern German states continued to be Catholic. From the northern German states Protestantism spread to Denmark, Norway and Sweden. **Results of Reformation**

The Reformation movements had both the good as well as bad results in the history of Europe.

Good results

It had some good results which are given bellow.

Great Transition medieval to the modern times

Like the Renaissance movement, and the geographical discoveries, the Reformation was effectively helpful in bringing about a transition from the medieval to the modern times. The

Reformation was like a great revolution making radical changes in many fields. It contributed much to wake the individual intellectually free and release him from the bondage of blind faith in which pre-Reformation Christian society was held. Wycliffe, Huss and Luther enabled Christians to free themselves from the tyranny and injustice to which they were subjected by the Pope and his deputies in the name of God and Christianity. The Reformation was much more than a mere religious movement, and its effects were felt in social, political and other fields of activity.

Christianity Revitalised

Christianity was revitalised. It was made more reasonable and acceptable to those who had entertained doubts about Christian doctrines and sacraments. The Roman Catholic Church made a clear statement of Christian doctrines, just, as Martin Luther and his associates had clarified Protestant doctrines.

Christianity became Liberal and Purposeful

After the Reformation Christianity became more purposeful. The Roman Catholic Church was roused to act. The priests could no more take everything for granted, but had to exert themselves and make Christianity more rational, liberal and meaningful. They could no more command, loyalty and obedience on the basis of blind faith. Since the Reformation, Christianity, whether Roman Catholic or Protestant, had to shift from blind faith to reason and scientific explanation. The Reformation gave freedom to the individual to think freely and act freely. This enabled Christian Europe to make tremendous progress in the different branches of art, science and learning.

Reforms in Catholicism

Owing to the powerful impact of the Reformation the Roman Catholic Church could not avoid introducing healthy changes and reforms, revise the rules of discipline, and improve the moral tone of the Church. When Catholicism sustained heavy losses in several countries the champions of the Counter-Reformation applied themselves seriously to the task of weeding out evils and reforming Catholicism.

Fillip to education

Reformation gave a fillip to education. Each faith wanted to attract more people to its fold and concentrated on the training of youth in its teachings. The Catholics did so to win back the Protestants to its fold. On the other hand, the Protestants laid great emphasis on education because they wanted larger number of people to read Bible. Luther not only wanted the state to set up schools but also wanted the 'civil authorities to compel the people to send their children to school.

Strengthened Monarchy

The Reformation weakened Papacy and strengthened monarchy. It put an end to the interference of the Pope in the secular affairs of the state. There was a time when the Popes could easily dominate over kings and interfere in their political affairs and weaken them. All this was ended by the Reformation. Once freed from the Papal control, kings were able to strengthen and stabilise themselves without fearing any external interference. The Reformation was a boon to the rulers, who wished to increase their strength and wealth. It was in the name of the Reformation that Henry VIII of England deprived the Pope of powers over the English Church. The princes of Germany were happy to find themselves liberated from the Papal yoke. The European kings were now free to reshape and rebuild their countries in the pattern they liked. The open exposure of the most shocking abuses and malpractices of the clergy from the highest to the lowest lowered the Church in the eyes of the people. The people no more held the Pope and his deputies with the same awe and respect as they had before the Reformation. As the faith

of honest Christians in Papacy was weakened, faith in the ability of kings to deal with national problems increased. In a European country, people felt that it was far better to be loyal to the king nearby than to a Pope in a distant country.

Development of individualism

Reformation contributed to the development of individualism. Initially, Reformation tried to free the individual from the dominance of the church and encouraged people to question the authority of the Pope. But slowly people began to challenge the authority of Bible as well as the very existence of Lord Jesus and God. This spirit of individualism in the economic sphere contributed to the breakdown of the guild system and the rise of individual entrepreneur. Calvin encouraged individual enterprise by pleading that a man's career was a "calling assigned to him by God and success in his calling was a sign of elevation to salvation". According to Tawney, "Calvin did for the bourgeoisie of the sixteenth century what Marx did for the proletariat of the nineteenth ...the doctrine of predestination satisfied the same hunger for, an assurance that the forces of the universe are on the side of the elect as was to be assuaged in a different age by the theory of historical materialism. He set their virtues at their best in sharp antithesis with the vices of the established order at its worst, taught them to feel that they were a chosen people, made them conscious of their great destiny in the Providential plan and resolute to realize it."

Encouragement to the spirit of Nationalism

At a time when the spirit of nationalism was slowly manifesting itself, the Reformation provided it with a fresh impetus. Wherever Protestantism spread, National Churches were established. People's attention was no more fixed on, but on the National Church. The Peace of Augsburg (1555 CE.) in Germany and the Act of Supremacy (1534 CE) in England made provision for the establishment of Regional and National Churches in Germany and England respectively.

Rise of modern national state

Reformation also greatly contributed to the rise of modern national state. The various rulers after challenging the authority of the Pope set up national churches and thus paved the way for the development of national states. According to Prof. Figgis, "the supreme achievement of the Reformation is the modern state".

Better Economic Development

The Reformation crushed the power of the Church in the economic field, and created conditions for better economic development and capitalist production. The medieval Church before the Reformation had hampered economic growth by upholding impractical ethical principles. It was against money-lending, an activity so essential for economic development. In the middle ages, money-lending was not recognised as a respectable calling, and society, which took advantage of the money of money-lenders, did not feel bad to criticize them. The Reformation freed the mind from medieval ideas and the money-lender, banker or financier secured a status in society as one doing a necessary and respectable job.

Growth of various local languages

The establishment of many religions and churches in different parts of Europe led to the growth of various local languages which were given precedence over Latin. This gave fillip to the literary activities. Lot of scholars turned to the classical studies, politics, economics, history and natural sciences and thus greatly contributed to the broadening of the intellectual and moral horizons of the people.

Bad Effects

The Reformation had the following bad results.

Divided Church

In the first place it led to a permanent schism in the western church. The church got divided into Catholics and Protestants. The former placed their faith in the authority of the Pope and the need for a mediatory priesthood, while the latter held faith in the authority of the Bible and believed that every Christian can win salvation without the mediation of priests. In course of time, the schism was further widened and a number of small religious groups made their appearance which claimed to be part of Christian church. Thus, we can say that the religious diversity of modern times was largely the product of the reformation.

Fanaticism, Quarrels and Cruel Persecution

The great leaders of the Reformation sincerely believed in rational and humanistic principles, and wished to be tolerant and give freedom of thought and conscience to the people. But their followers were unable to live up to their high principles. Protestants turned their wrath against those who did not agree with them, and this led to the generation of fanaticism and hatred. The Roman Catholics also did not lag behind their rivals in spreading hatred and ill will. In every Christian country, quarrels, violence and bloodshed disrupted peace and social harmony. Kings were also equally fanatical as many of their misguided subjects, and tolerance became a rare commodity. They expected their subjects to follow their own religion. They denied freedom of consciousness and worship, and launched cruel persecution on their subjects. Rulers compelled their subjects to follow their religion on pain of severe punishment or even death. In France, Spain, Portugal and other countries ruled by Roman Catholic rulers, Protestants were subjected to cruel treatment and were made to suffer from various disabilities. In England, Henry VIII persecuted Catholics, and Queen Mary Tudor, who harshly treated the Protestants, came to be called Bloody Mary. In the time of Edward VI and Queen Elizabeth I of England, Roman Catholics suffered great hardships. At a time when Europe was torn by religious rivalry, Akbar the Great in India conducted the liable experiment of *Din-i-Ilahi*.

Revolts

The various parts of Europe witnessed revolts, as intolerant and fanatical kings tried to suppress religious freedom and persecuted people who honestly differed from their religious views,

Civil Wars

While at the lower level the individual Protestant or Roman Catholic hated his rival, and groups quarrelled with groups, at the higher level, civil war broke out between countries. In Germany, France, Switzerland and several other countries civil wars resulted in much bloodshed, death and destruction. In the names of God and religion, people behaved like blind fanatics and the barbarism they unleashed halted the march of civilization and culture.

Wars between Countries:

Not only revolts and civil wars, but also wars between different countries broke out.

Wars between Spain and Holland and England and Spain

Wars between Holland and Spain broke out. The people of Holland were Protestants and they were oppressed by Philip II (son of Charles V Holy Roman Emperor) who was Roman Catholic. Holland won the war, and became independent under the leadership of William of Orange in 1609 A.D. The independence of the Dutch was recognised under the Treaty of Westphalia 1648 A.D.

As Protestant England under Elizabeth supported the Dutch Protestants against Catholic Spain and harassed Spanish ships, the Anglo-Spanish War broke out. England defeated and burnt down the invincible Armada of Spain, and brought to nothing the grandiose plans of Philip II.

SPREAD OF REFORMATION MOVEMENTS

From the northern German states the Reformation movements spread to Denmark, Norway and Sweden. Reformation movements against the authority of the Pope also took place in other parts of Europe, specially Switzerland, France, Holland and England, etc.

Reformation Movement in Germany

In Germany Luther's Protestant movement was successful, and the opponents of the Church hailed him as a national hero. However, Luther's reply to the Council of Worms (1520-21 CE) made the German emperor declare war on heretics. Luther's side was not weak, and a large section of the German population decided to challenge the Roman Catholic Church openly.

Peasants' Revolt

The reaction of the German princes was mixed. When the Peasants' Revolt broke out in 1525 CE., they were afraid of losing power, and hence they suppressed it ruthlessly, by massacring about 50,000 peasants. Luther's approach was conservative, and his support was for the princes.

Civil War

In the civil war (1530-1555 CE) Germany was divided. The northern states of Germany were the Protestant followers of Luther, and the southern states were Catholic. In Germany Protestantism was legally recognised by the Peace of Augsburg (1555 CE.). By this the Holy Roman Emperor agreed to recognise Lutheranism side by side with Roman Catholicism as a legal religion. The ruler of a German state was free to accept either Roman Catholicism or Lutheranism, and the people were to follow his religion.

Lutheran Doctrine

The following basic points of the Lutheran doctrine jointly drafted by Martin Luther and Philip Melancthon, a scholar of the University of Wittenberg can be discussed.

(a) Protestants are to believe in the principle of Consubstantiation instead of Transubstantiation, that is, the principle that the blood and body of Christ are found in the Eucharist side by side with bread and wine. In Lutheran communion, bread and wine in the sacrament of the Lord's Supper are not converted into the Body and Blood of Christ, but remain bread and wine, with the Body and Blood of Christ added thereto.

(b) Protestants should have full faith in the Bible, which is the only authority on Christian doctrines.

(c) The principle of predestination should be upheld.

(d) The principle of celibacy for priests need not be followed, and priests are to be allowed to marry.

(e) Monasticism should be given up, and the Roman hierarchical system of organization with the Pope, Archbishops, Bishops and Parish priests should be done away with.

(f) Church services are to be performed through the medium of German instead of Latin.

Let us know Why Lutheranism Became Popular?

Several factors had made Lutheranism popular which are given below.

(1) For a long time, the domination of the Pope over Germany was disliked by the Germans, and, therefore, a large section of the German population welcomed the Lutheran challenge to the Pope. German patriots were against any type of external interference, even that of the Pope.

(2) Many honest Christians felt that Church reform was overdue and Luther was right in exposing the glaring abuses and corruption in the Church. They also gladly accepted the principle that the *Bible* should be regarded as the sole authority and guide on Christianity.

(3) The Pope waged undoubtedly a great rival of the German Princes, and so the latter were pleased to see Papal authority shaken and weakened in Germany. The Reformation movement was considered by the Princes as a great opportunity for increasing their power and wealth.

Reformation Movement in North European countries

Lutheranism spread in North European countries before long. The kings of Sweden, Denmark and Norway were against Roman Catholicism, and they took several steps to establish and strengthen Protestantism. Roman Catholic Churches were got rid of and Lutheran National Churches were established in their place. The property of churches and monasteries was confiscated.

Protestantism in Switzerland

The leader of the Protestant movement in Switzerland was Huldreich Zwingli (1484-1531 CE), who was deeply influenced by Martin Luther. He challenged the teachings of the Roman Catholic Church from the Zurich Cathedral, where he preached. Like Luther, Zwingli was a bold and original thinker, who felt it was his duty to expose the drawbacks of the Roman Catholic Church.

Zwingli regarded Luther's view as extreme, and favoured moderate reforms. He called his Church as the Reformed Church and not as the Protestant Church. Zwingli had a large number of followers in Switzerland, but he had opponents also. While some Cantons followed the reformed Church, other Cantons remained loyal to the Roman Catholic Church. This led to frequent clashes between his followers and Roman Catholics, and ultimately a civil war broke out. In 1531 CE Zwingli died in the Battle of Kappel. For some time, there was great bitterness, intolerance and hatred, but the Swiss finally made peace by which people of all Cantons were to enjoy freedom of thought and worship.

John Calvin (1509-1564 CE.)

Calvin in France was also strongly influenced by Martin Luther and Erasmus (1469-1536 A.D.). He criticised the Roman Catholic Church even at the young age of 20. He was a Lawyer by profession in France, but he had to leave his country and settle down at Geneva in Switzerland, as the French kings were Roman Catholics. At the young age of 26, he gave a clear exposition of the main religious beliefs of the Protestants in his book *The Institutes of Christian Religion*. He laid emphasis on a very simple type of worship, the reading of the Bible, listening to sermons, singing of hymns and devotional songs in congregation, and prayers in extempore. He did not agree with all the views of Luther. Though like Luther he had no faith in the doctrine of Sacraments and Good Works, he did not believe in Luther's Doctrine of Salvation through absolute faith only. Calvin wanted utter simplicity in his religion, and was against all luxury, sports and games, dancing and feasting. This austere type of Protestantism was called Calvinism. This spread from Switzerland to France, Germany, the Netherlands, Hungary, Poland, England and Scotland.

Protestantism in Holland and Scotland

In Holland reforms were introduced in the Roman Catholic Church owing to the lead given by Erasmus (1469-1536 A.D.), the philosopher-writer of the Renaissance. Erasmus had severely condemned the corruption and worldliness in the Church and compelled it to reform itself. However, Erasmus remained loyal to the Church when the Reformation burst in Germany. The Catholic kings of Holland severely dealt with the Calvinists, as it was a stronghold of Roman Catholicism. Here the Protestants known as Huguenots became zealous Calvinists. They were most cruelly persecuted by the kings.

In Scotland, John Knox (1505-72 CE), who was a great disciple of Calvin, introduced a type of Protestantism known as Presbyterianism. It was as simple and austere as Calvinism.

Protestantism in England

It is observed earlier that, John Wyclitfe (1320-1384 CE.) in England had started the Lollard movement. But this was suppressed by the pro-Papal policy of the rulers. In England a type of Protestantism known as Anglicanism was introduced in the 16th century. The leader of the Protestant movement was King Henry VIII (1491-1547 CE.), who was not a religious reformer like Martin Luther. The cause of the movement was not religious, but political. Its ball was set rolling owing to the personal and political motives of Henry.

In the beginning, King Henry VIII was in favour of Roman Catholicism. He even wrote a book supporting the Pope and Catholicism, when Martin Luther had challenged Papal authority. The Pope, who was pleased with Henry, gave him the title the Defender of the Faith, which the kings of England still have.

Divorce Refused by Pope

Henry VIII, who was pro-Papal, suddenly turned anti-Papal, and the Pope refused to allow Henry to divorce Catharine of Aragon (who was originally betrothed to his elder brother Arthur, who prematurely died), who had borne him no male heir, and marry Anne Boleyn. Henry argued that his marriage with his brother's widow Catharine was illegal. The Pope did not like to displease his great supporter Charles V, the Holy Roman Emperor, the ruler of Spain, who was a nephew of Catharine of Aragon (Spain).

Retaliation by Henry

To the great surprise of the Pope and his supporters, Henry retaliated by securing the divorce from an English Court. He did not stop here, but proceeded further to overthrow Papal control over England.

King as Head of the English Church

At the instance of Henry, the Reformation Parliament (1529-1536 A.D.) passed the Act of Supremacy in 1534 A.D., which made the king not only the Head of the State, but also the Head of the Church. The Pope's refusal to grant divorce thus proved to be a blessing in disguise to Henry, who could increase his own power at the expense of Papal power, which had prevailed over England for centuries. Henry took ruthless steps against his critics and the friends of the Pope. He also liquidated the monasteries and seized their vast wealth in landed property and cash.

Anglican Church Strengthened

Henry VIII was too involved in worldly affairs to give thought to fundamental theological or doctrinal changes in the Church. Important changes were, however, introduced by King Edward VI (1547-1553 A.D.) and Queen Elizabeth I (1558-1603 A.D.). In the time of Edward VI England became truly Protestant. Queen Mary (1553-1558 A.D.), who tried to restore Catholicism and severely punished Protestants, was not successful. The Pope was no more the authority on doctrinal affairs, and the *Bible* alone was to be the guide of Protestant Christians. Changes were made in the sacraments, and the Doctrine of Good Works, regarded as superstitious, was no more held valid. The Latin prayer book was translated into English. The Anglican Church was tremendously strengthened. Several Anglican kings of England persecuted the Roman Catholics and made their lives miserable. It was only in the 19th century that the Roman Catholics were freed from political disabilities.

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kings of England persecuted the Roman Catholics and made their lives miserable. It was only in the 19th century that the Roman Catholics were freed from political disabilities.

EMERGENCE OF EUROPEAN STATE SYSTEM: SPAIN, FRANCE, ENGLAND, RUSSIA

1. Introduction

European States system was never a new idea to be experimented in world politics. This state system has a history as old as that of a human civilization. But here, we shall deal only with the European state system which emerged out of an uncertain and confused socio-political atmosphere engulfed the whole of Europe.

10.2. EMERGENCE OF EUROPEAN STATE SYSTEM

The early modern European states system emerged after the Treaty of Westphalia which was concluded after the Thirty Years' War (1618-1648CE).

Characteristics of European State System

The early modern European states system which developed after the Treaty of Westphalia has the following characteristics.

- ❖ It was politically heterogeneous, composed of different types of politics, ranging from empires through states to free cities and numerous fiefs, some of them armed, to pirates and private religious groups such as the Order of Malta.
- ❖ The centralizing states were essentially weak. They were ridden with debt and insufficient government revenues, local insurrections, tax revolts, papal claims to authority, and challenges to state authority by dukes, free cities, private estates and other types of polities.
- ❖ The centralizing states had poorly defined territorial limits and weak administrative and military capacity to administer boundaries.
- ❖ Rules governing interactions such as trade and diplomacy were poorly defined, overlapping and often challenged.
- ❖ The states were chronically insecure, facing perpetual threats and challenges from both domestic (internal) and external sources. So, the main ingredient of the modern state, "Sovereignty" was always doubtful.
- ❖ The main issues that led to armed conflict were territory, competing dynastic succession claims, commerce, navigation and competition for colonies. Thus, another ingredient of modern state was constantly under challenge.

The Peace of Westphalia and the Development of new European State System

The emergence of state system was clearly visible from the spirit of Westphalia. But that does not mean that state system did not exist prior to it. States system was seen in ancient days and the powerful state system in Rome and Greece are the burning examples. But then, the states were in a rudimentary stage. It could not boast of all the ingredients of the modern state. Some of the ingredients of the present state system could not be dreamt of. The state system which developed in the second half of the 17th century in Europe was also not complete in consideration of the present day standard from the characteristics of the state system.

The Thirty Years' War (1618-1648 CE)

The Thirty Years' War had caused catastrophic human and material losses in Central Europe especially in Germany. This Thirty Years' War had been fought partly over the rival ambitions of dynastic families, and partly over the religion. It originated as a conflict over the balance of

Protestant and Catholic states in the Holy Roman Empire. The war also involved an effort to contain the power of the Hapsburg dynasty in Central Europe and its claim of universal monarchy. This Thirty Years' War continued till 1648 AD, which was followed by the Treaty of Westphalia.

The Peace of Westphalia,

The Peace of Westphalia was a massive and complex diplomatic achievement which ushered in a new era in international relations. It is said that out of this Peace of Westphalia, European states system started to be stronger and crystallized with some of its necessary characteristics. The Principles that governed this state system predominated until the late 18th century. There were two primary kinds of states in this period – Republics and Absolute Monarchies. But virtually, all the states accepted the principles of the new state system. There were four prominent principles of European state system, (1) Sovereignty, (2) Reason of state, (3) Balance of power, and (4) Dynastic legitimacy.

Sovereignty

Sovereignty meant the state was the ultimate authority over a given territory and all its inhabitants. State power could be represented by a king, by a parliament, or by a bureaucracy of state officials. The state itself had come to represent a public legal power that existed apart from the person of the king.

Reason of state

Closely linked to the principle of sovereignty was the principle of reason of state. This Raison d'état (Reason of the state) placed the interests of the state above all considerations, even morality and religion. Both the internal welfare of the state and its fortunes in the outside world became paramount. Reason of state was often a concept used to justify territorial expansion.

Balance of Power

Another principle of this newly emerged European state system was the Balance of Power. This Balance of Power was a restraining principle. The state system was governed by the idea of Balance of Power, which held that international order could only be maintained if all the major European states were kept in equilibrium. Sometimes, the European states system is solely expressed through the term Balance of Power. The idea of the Balance of Power suggested that if a clearly dominant power arose ('hegemonic' was the traditional term used to describe such power) other countries would form a coalition to restrain it. It is noted that sometimes the balance of power functioned like an automatic machine to prevent any one power from becoming hegemonic. Some expressed a strong view that the balance of power acted as a deterrent to prevent war, but others accepted that it might require war to restore the balance of power.

Dynastic legitimacy

Another important concept which emerged along with the European state system was the principle of "dynastic legitimacy". The right of a family that ruled a state by virtue of an inherited right was accepted under this principle. This principle of dynastic legitimacy justified most regimes up until the late 18th century when the idea of popular sovereignty came into action.

The principles of the state system in action

European states, in fact, began to form in the fifteenth century along with the Renaissance and Reformation. Before that, Papacy was supreme. Though basically it was theological and propagating Republica Christiana (Christian Republic), its political manifestation was the Holy Roman Empire. The Holy Roman Empire was enjoying the sovereignty of all the European political and social entities. In the name of God, the Pope of Rome and the Holy Roman Emperor

symbolically enjoyed the paramount power. So, no medieval European country was sovereign and naturally not qualified to be a state.

Protest against the Papal authority

During this time, the Reformation nullified the unchallenged supremacy of the Pope. Countries with Protestant rulers also started defying Pope. As per example, Henry VIII the Tudor King of England divorced Catherine of Aragon against the will of the Pope of Rome. In 1534 CE, Henry VIII enacted the Act of Supremacy which formally abolished papal authority in England and elevated the king to be Supreme Head of the Church of England. Luther's Protestant ideas further undermined papal authority throughout Northern Europe. By the beginning of the 17th century, the myth of the *Republica Christiana* of a United Christian Europe under divine, papal and imperial authority was on the verge of extinction. The medieval cosmology of organic political unity was shattered by the growing might of the central monarchies. In their quarrels with imperial and Papal authority, the monarchs armed themselves with numerous legal arguments and they mobilized the writings of the publicists Such as Jean Bodin who articulated a coherent theory of sovereignty in his book (*Les Six Livres de la Republique* – 1576). Bodin considered that the king, queen were supreme in their realm. Neither Pope nor Holy Roman Emperor had any right to rule or to interfere within the realm. Thus, the characteristic of Sovereignty started to grow with the emergence of new European state system.

Status of territory in a state

The second most important characteristic of a state is its territory. In fact, territory is the foundation of the state. Prior to the seventeenth century, there were only “realms”. These territorial units that were poorly defined were often contested, and seldom administered effectively. The improvements in cartography and the growth of central bureaucracies, sovereigns by the seventeenth century began to identify their territories and construct official borders separating their realms from others. The first frontier that appeared on a map of Europe was drawn in the Treaty of Llivia, 1670 CE This Treaty ended the war of Louis XIV against Spain. Shortly after the Treaty of Llivia, all states began to draw official lines around their realm. The state “bordering” reflect the concept of sovereignty and its normative claim that states have exclusive legal authority within a defined territory. Europe prior to the 17th century had been truly a borderless world. By the early 19th century, borders were becoming increasingly institutionalized and effective as a means of controlling ingress and egress.

Question of Stability and Balance of Power

After that came the question of Stability (Repose) and Balance of Power. After twelve years, the war of Spanish succession came to an end in 1712 CE. This was followed by the Peace Settlement of Utrecht (1713-1715 CE). During the negotiations to maintain equilibrium in Europe, two things were always raised (1) Repose (Stability), (2) and Balance of Power. In 17th century, European states emerged no doubt and in fact they came out with most of the modern characteristics of the state. But all the states were not of equally strong in military, economy and diplomacy. As was before, ambitious rulers of bigger and powerful states showed their greediness on the territory of the weak neighbouring states. Religious imperialism was no more there, but this political and territorial ambition raised its ugly head. This situation can be called as ‘hegemony’. These hegemonious activities by some of the rulers challenged the balance of power in Europe.

The Peace of Westphalia effectively ended this threat by fundamentally weakening the Holy Roman Empire, the political outfit of the Pope of Rome. But at the end of the seventeenth century, a new threat arose this time in the guise of Louis XIV of France, who was not only a

despot but also an expansionist. Many of the smaller and less powerful states were scared of his ambition and power. For this reason, they sought to prevent any such future possibility by creating a balance of power on the continent. The interest of 'repose' of Europe was understood to depend on such balance and states were expected to forego diplomatic and territorial gains for the greater good of all. Closely linked to the principle of sovereignty was the principle of 'reason of State', which placed the interests of the state above all other considerations, even morality or religion. The Prussian king Frederick the Great (1712-1786 CE) was a good example of a ruler who governed according to the new reason-of-state principle. Frederick was a polished intellectual and political writer. His book 'Anti Machiavel' (1740 CE) was a work that advocated morally inspired politics. But Frederick did not hesitate to become a ruthless conqueror when it was the interest of Prussia. In 1740 CE, for instance, he invaded the neighbouring province of Silesia and cited reason of state to justify his conquest. Such ruthless acts of aggression were common in the era of new state system.

The European state system created a new chapter in the history of Spain. Philip IV ruled Spain from 1621 CE till 1665 CE. During his period, the Thirty Years' War was fought from 1618 CE to 1648 CE. In the treaty of Westphalia, Spain played the chief role. After this treaty, the state system in Europe was emerging with all its manifestations. Spain and France were at war. France got the support of England and Spain was at the back foot. Spain lost many island in West Indies (1655-58 CE). Spain lost its naval importance in the Mediterranean. However, Spain maintained her status as a full-fledged state in Europe. After Philip IV, Charles II ruled Spain from 1665 CE to 1700 CE and then came Philip V who ruled from 1708 CE to 1746 CE. There was a war of Spanish Succession from 1702 CE to 1713 CE. The war ended with the Treaty of Utrecht. The French king was Louis XIV. In this treaty France gained a lot and maintained her position as a hegemonies power. France got Alsace. Louis XIV grandson became the King of Spain as Philip V. (He was already the king, now he was recognized. Spain's territories were further squeezed. She gave up Italian possessions and Spanish Netherlands.

War of the Spanish Succession (1701-1713 CE)

In the War of the Spanish Succession (1701-1713 CE), England, the Dutch Republic, German states, Austria, Prussia, and Portugal all formed a grand alliance to keep the Spanish royal line from switching from the Hapsburgs to the Bourbons, which, it was feared, would make Spain and its possession a tool for French interests. The alliance could not finally keep Louis XIV's grandson from inheriting the throne, but it did compel Spain to give up its major European territories outside Spain (the Spanish Netherlands and southern Italy). When this war ended with the Peace of Utrecht (1713 CE), France had lost some of its American colonies and had been prevented from expanding into the Low Countries and Germany. Spain no longer had strategically placed domains on the English Channel or in Italy. England and Austria gained territory, and the Prussian prince gained the title of king. For several decades, the rest of Europe feared the Louis XIV's France would dominate the entire continent. Coalitions and wars, however, restored the balance of power.

10.5. EUROPEAN STATE SYSTEM IN FRANCE

It was under Louis XIV (1643-1715 CE), France was in a secured and hegemonious position. Louis XIV was at the helm of the affairs of France when the Treaty of Westphalia was signed. Very soon, he became the absolute ruler of France. Under him, all the ingredients of the state was seen in France. In Europe, France became the most formidable power and could establish her hegemony. To maintain the balance of power in Europe other powers like England had to enter into various alliances. France had to fight a Seven Years' War (1756-1763 CE) against

England. This war was not only fought in Europe, but also in India and America. This war came to an end with the Treaty of Paris. In India, France lost everything except Pondicherry. In America, France lost Canada, all territories, east of Mississippi and Cape Breton Island. Spain recovered Havana and Manila France got St. Lucia, Martinique and Bellisle.

Thus, France was humbled but very soon took part in the American war of independence. In this American war of Independence, France fought with the colonists against Great Britain. Great Britain was thoroughly defeated by Americans and a treaty was signed at Versailles (France) in 1783 A.D. where the Independence of the thirteen colonies was recognized. Great Britain gave up Spain, Florida and Minorca. France got Tobago and Senegal in its possession.

10.6. EUROPEAN STATE SYSTEM IN ENGLAND

The development of state system was a landmark in the history of England. The Tudor rule started in England from the year 1485 CE after the war of Roses in which the nobles were humbled and naturally England became strong from inside. The Second Tudor king, Henry VIII who ruled from 1509 to 1547 CE on the question of his divorce to Catherine of Aragon attacked the Papal authority and married his lady love Anne Boleyn. Henry VII passed the Act of Succession which recognized children of Henry and Anne's marriage as lawful heirs of Henry. He also passed the Act of Supremacy in 1534 CE and declared himself head of the Church of England. Thus, England came out of the paramountcy of the Pope of Rome as well as the Holy Roman emperor and asserted sovereignty which was one of the most important characteristics of the 'state'.

Henry VIII also tried to bring unity between England and Scotland and fix a boundary line of a united country. But that was not possible during his time. Mary became the queen of England in 1553 CE and continued for five years till 1558 CE. During this time, she drew England nearer to Pope. But with the coming of Elizabeth I, the sovereignty of England was again called back. Queen Elizabeth was an avowed Protestant (as she was the daughter of Anne Boleyn) and abolished Papal Power in England. She also passed Act of Supremacy in 1558 CE and declared the sovereign of England "supreme in all causes". Elizabeth also tried to maintain balance of power in England. She used France as a make-weight against Spain. Elizabeth also unofficially supported the protestant Netherlands against Philip II of Spain. During her time, Spanish Armada (Naval Fleet) was destroyed and Spanish Naval Supremacy came to an end. Stuart Rule Started in England in 1603 after the death of Queen Elizabeth. With the beginning of the Stuart rule, England and Scotland were united because James VI of Scotland became James I of England and ruled England from 1603 to 1625 CE With this union, the strength and prestige of the United Kingdom was enhanced and England emerged as a more powerful state and could easily checkmate the hegemony of Spain and France.

In 1707CE, during the reign of Anne, Act uniting England and Scotland was passed. Beforehand, England and Scotland were united only under the Crowns. During the Commonwealth, this Union was not in operation. During the Restoration of Charles II, this Union was ended. But in 1707CE, the Act of Union was passed and one kingdom of Great Britain was formed. Now, England had one sovereign and one Parliament. Thus, the sovereignty territory as well as the strength of Great Britain was seen as better defined and more secure. During the 18th century, Great Britain was recognized as a powerful state. Her material prosperity and diplomatic predominance made here a formidable state to maintain balance of power in England.

EUROPEAN STATE SYSTEM IN RUSSIA

Russia became a prominent East European state in the East. Peter I was the Czar of Russia from 1689 to 1725 CE. Czarina Elizabeth ruled from 1741 CE to 1762 CE. Catherine II was called a great ruler and ruled Russia from 1762 CE to 1796 CE. Russia was not very much interested in the happenings of West Asia. But she was interested in the Balkan areas and Poland. She was very much interested in the Mediterranean Sea as a checkmate to the rising power of Turkey which was an Islamic state and had predominance over the erstwhile Greece city states.

In the end, it must be noted that with the development of states in Europe, the survival of the states became a big issue. Not only that, another principle of state system 'dynastic legitimacy' also came into prominence. Succession issue became always a question to be solved. A dynasty ruled a state by virtue of an inherited right. But most of the time, the question of succession became disputed and war of succession followed. However, in the late 18th century, 'Popular Sovereignty' came to be recognized and became very common solution to the question of succession. Along with this war of successions, the issue of Balance of Power was intermingled and the Balance of Power was maintained in Europe automatically with the progress of these war fares. To restrain the hegemonious policy of Louis XVI of France, the European power formed military coalitions. In the war of the League of the League of Augsburg (1689-1697), England, the Dutch Republic and Several German states fought to keep France from conquering large parts of Germany that were adjacent to the French frontier.

Shift of economic balance from the Mediterranean to the Atlantic

1. Introduction

The 16th century was a period of vital economic expansion. This expansion in turn played a major role in many other transformations like social, political, and cultural life of the early modern age. By 1500 the population in most areas of Europe was increasing after two centuries of decline or stagnation. According to the French historian Fernand Braudel, "The bonds of commerce within Europe tightened, and the "wheels of commerce" spun ever faster". The great geographic discoveries then in process were integrating Europe into a world economic system. New commodities, many of them imported from discovered lands, enriched material life. Not only trade but also the production of goods increased as a result of new ways of organizing production. Merchants, entrepreneurs, and bankers accumulated and manipulated capital in unprecedented volume. Most historians locate in the 16th century the beginning, or at least the maturing, of Western capitalism. Capital assumed a major role not only in economic organization but also in political life and international relations. Culturally, new values (many of them associated with the Renaissance and Reformation) diffused through Europe and changed the ways in which people acted and the perspectives by which they viewed themselves and the world.

Economic developments of the sixteenth century

It is not easy to generalize about the European economy in the sixteenth century. The conditions varied considerably from one area to another. Although there were forces that were everywhere at work, their intensity and their impact differed as they affected different regions. Keeping these facts in mind, we can make some general statements. The sixteenth century was on the whole a time of economic expansion for Europe. The depressed conditions that had prevailed from the middle of the fourteenth century were giving way, and the growth before 1350 was being resumed. One sign of this expansion, as well as a cause of it, was the growth in population. By the sixteenth century, the ravages of the Black Death and its recurrences were

being made up, and the overall population of Europe had reached its 1350 level and was increasing beyond that point.

2. Causes of the shift of economic balance from the Mediterranean to the Atlantic

The causes responsible for the shift of economic balance from the Mediterranean to the Atlantic are given below:

Period of economic expansion

The sixteenth century was a period of economic expansion needs to be qualified by the recognition that not all areas witnessed the same degree of growth. The economy of Europe was becoming truly European. What happened in one country affected others, and wise businessmen kept abreast not only of economic activities and problems in the various parts of Europe but also of the numerous other factors that might affect their businesses. These factors included the political, diplomatic, military situations, dynastic arrangements, including marriages among ruling families, split in the church and religious matters as well.

Shift in economy from Mediterranean to the Atlantic

The geographical discoveries and explorations also made a deep impact on the economic expansion in Europe. During this period the impact was different for different countries. One of the effects of the voyages undertaken by the Portuguese, Spanish, English, French, and Dutch was to hasten the process whereby the nations of the Atlantic seaboard took the place of the Italian city-states for European trade and commerce. Until this time, Europe had always centered on the Mediterranean. During this time, Mediterranean was the great axis of trade and civilization in Europe. Though it did not cease to be important, a profound and apparently irrevocable shift in economic relationships was taking place and Europe was beginning to face the Atlantic seaboard. The Italian city states, by their failure to unite with one another were becoming the battlegrounds and dependencies of the great western nations, particularly Spain. Italy was also losing its economic importance day by day. With this economic shift, Genoese merchants and bankers played a significant part in the Spanish economy.

Influx of precious metals

From the Spanish Empire in the New World came an influx of precious metals which had much economic effects. The flow became especially important in the second half of the sixteenth century, and consisted of both gold and silver, with the latter metal predominating. The Spanish went to great lengths to secure the entire supply for themselves and prevent any of their precious cargoes from falling into the hands of their rivals. Each year the plate fleet, bearing the bullion from the mines of Peru and Mexico, was accompanied to Spain by a convoy of warships, and during the sixteenth century no other nation ever succeeded in intercepting this fleet. Francis Drake was able, however, to steal from Spanish treasure in Central America and in the Pacific.

In the middle of the sixteenth century great deposits of silver were discovered in Mexico and Peru; in the latter region were the great mines of Potosi, in the area of modern Bolivia. A new method of extracting the silver from the ore was developed, and the amount of silver reaching Spain became very great. It was this bullion, which to a great extent, made possible the foreign and imperial policies of the last years of Charles V and the reign of Philip II. Because of these ambitious and costly policies, it proved impossible to keep the gold and silver in Spain. Much of it was spent to support activities that were not directly related to Spanish affairs, since both Charles and Philip had extensive interests outside the country. It was also necessary to export the precious metals to pay for manufactured goods, because of the neglect of Spanish

industry. Spain was also compelled to import agricultural products throughout the century due to agricultural crisis in its land.

Price Revolution in Western Europe

There was a Price Revolution between the second half of the 15th century and the first half of the 17th century in Europe in general and Western Europe in particular. In these hundred and fifty years, a series of economic events led to a high rate of inflation. After 1500 the prices were rising with unprecedented speed. Locally this trend was sometimes very sharp indeed, doubling the costs in a year. On an average the prices of commodities rose six times. The 16th century price rise was followed by another century of very unstable prices. The price of corn rose most significantly during this period. This rise in corn price started from 1460 onwards and increased rapidly till 1520. It ended in the 1650s in the Low Countries like the Netherlands, France and England and after 1679 in Spain. Prices of other food items were also increasing during this period but the rise in the price of corn reached maximum level compared with other commodities. Prices rose in a rapid speed over a very short period of time. Price rise was followed by the devaluation of the currency. This led to a general feeling of discontentment and public outcry in Europe.

Economic stagnation and Inflation in Europe

Further the rise of prices led to the economic stagnation and subsequent inflation. The period of fall or stagnation of prices was never as dramatic as the rise. Economic theorists believed that a large influx of gold and silver from the New World caused this inflation. From 1545 silver began to be mined in Peru and Mexico in large quantities. Spanish treasure fleets brought this precious metal to the port of Seville. From here it percolated to the rest of Europe. In return for costly Asian imports Europe exchanged silver coins minted out of bullion mined in Mexico and Peru. There was simply too much money available for goods. So, prices went up artificially. Hamilton believes that there was a direct correlation between the import of Spanish American treasures and increase in the price of commodities in Europe. The case of two Spanish cities like Cardenas and Seville establishes his theory on solid ground. The Spanish American bullion used to reach European soil in these two ports and from there they entered the European markets.

Rise in prices also started in these two cities and later spread to other parts of Europe. Production of silver in Central Europe had multiplied five times between 1460 and 1530. Though this input fell by two thirds in the early 17th century, it was enough in fuelling early stages of inflation. Prices that had been more or less stable for two hundred years suddenly began to rise steeply. But Price Revolution cannot be explained only in terms of increased supply of bullion in the European markets. In fact the price rise had begun before this large scale influx of bullion from across the Atlantic. Coins were minted in Europe long before the Spanish American silver reached the ports of Europe though it has to be pointed out that after the coming of the Spanish silver the circulation of coins definitely increased. Moreover the steady rise of corn price was not a direct result of the influx of silver in the market. This rise of price was also due to the population growth in Europe.

Increase of Population and its aftermath

The increase in population, epidemics like 'Black Death', huge loss of population due to epidemics and subsequent growth of population changed the scenario in Europe. A Europe of about forty million people in 1000 CE rose to sixty million or so in the next two centuries. Then a great and cumulative setback occurred in the 14th century. There was a sudden rise of mortality, not occurring everywhere at the same time, but notable in many places after a series of

bad harvests around 1320. This started a slow decline of population which suddenly became a disaster with the onset of attacks of epidemic disease one of them being the 'Black Death' of 1348-50. This was the worst single attack of plague in history. Other killing diseases also swept Europe with it. When disease killed enough people, agricultural production started to collapse, which in turn led to inhabitants of the towns dying of famine if they were not already dying of plague. Over Europe as a whole the total loss has been calculated as a quarter of the total population. The economy was on the edge of collapse. In 1500 Europe was a rural continent of villages in which people lived at a pretty low level of subsistence. For a long time agriculture produced only slightly more food than was needed and could only feed a slow growing population. In Eastern Europe there were huge empty spaces for which population was eagerly sought by rulers who encouraged immigration. After this, there was further growth in the population of Europe.

There were many causes which led to the growth of population in Europe. It was certainly due much more to a decrease in death rates than to an increase in birth rates. Population grew not so much as more people were born as because more survived, and more stayed alive longer. The probable reasons for lower death rates include the advances in medical science which came in the 16th century. This freed western countries from the worst endemic diseases and plagues that had taken a constant and heavy toll on the population down to the 15th century. Infant death rates fell, fewer mothers died in childbirth, and more people lived to a more advanced age. Of course the rate of increase varied from region to region, even from village to village but the general effect is indisputable. The population grew overall as never before, but unevenly, the north and west gaining more than the Mediterranean, Balkans and Eastern Europe. The growth of population also needed much food for subsistence among the people of Europe.

Great demands on agricultural lands

The growth of population from the 15th century placed great demands on agricultural lands in Europe. By now areas earmarked for agriculture had shrunk considerably due to rapid urbanization. Some of the agricultural land was even used for growing cash crops. Thus the price of food grains, particularly corn, grew steeply. More and more land was being brought under the plough. For some time it seemed that, there was enough food to support a rising population. But by the 16th century it was no longer enough. The population had grown at such a staggering rate that there was very little land left to cultivate further and the levels of scientific innovations in agriculture varied from one place to the other. This is one of the reasons behind the Portuguese occupation of the Atlantic islands and Morocco. Portugal wanted more cultivable land and the control of the corn trade of Morocco. European powers, which had control over the supply of corn, naturally had an advantage over those, who did not. It has been argued by historian Malestroit in his Paradoxes about Money that, prices had not risen but coins had been debased. In fact the same amount of gold and silver was being used to buy the same item. It was the debasement of coinage which made a particular item look much more expensive than before. Bodin comes up with another explanation. In reply to the Paradoxes of M. Malestroit, Bodin argued that the debasement of coin did affect price rise but the increase in prices was much more due to the influx of precious metals from America.

Growth of Towns and trade in different regions of Europe

The growth of towns contributed to the rise in trade between different regions of Europe. As a result prices rose in response to distinct changes in demand. More cash crops for growing markets gradually changed the self-sufficient manor into a unit producing for sale. The new

markets were to be found in towns which grew steadily. Urban population increased faster than rural. The new towns and cities were in part a result of the Commercial Revolution and in part a reflection of the growing population. Sometimes a village grew because it was well placed in relation to rising commercial activity. Many new towns, especially in Germany, were deliberately settled as colonies. Long established towns grew bigger in size. New cities tended to be linked distinctively to economic possibilities. They were either markets or lay on great trade routes. Ports often became the metropolitan centres of maritime trade, as did Bruges and Antwerp. Towns and cities grew at a spectacularly fast speed. Paris doubled in size between 1500 and 1700, and its population rose to half a million. London shot ahead of Paris by going up from about 120,000 to 700,000 people in the same period. European economic geography was revolutionized in this process. Economic prosperity soon began to generate a population density in around the towns. But by this time both available techniques and easily accessible new land for cultivation had reached its limit and signs of population pressure were treading close upon resources.

Emergence of capitalism

In 16th century and prior to that, there emerged capitalism in Europe. Different sections of the economy and different parts of Europe were affected in varying ways and at varying rates of speed. In this connection, capitalism may be defined as a system in which enterprises are not controlled by those who supply the labour. Although, the greater guilds of Florence are examples of capitalism long before the sixteenth century, and numerous other examples can be found in Italy, the Low Countries, and throughout Western Europe. Furthermore, certain types of enterprise that required substantial resources and that were conducted on a large scale, with the concomitant risks, were inevitably capitalistic. This is true, for example, of shipbuilding and international trade. The printing industry, which existed in Europe from the fifteenth century, was essentially capitalistic. Mining was necessarily a capitalistic enterprise. Even agriculture, the most conservative branch of economic life was becoming capitalistic in the sixteenth century. The enclosure movement in England demonstrates this development. The term enclosure refers to the enclosing of the open fields and common lands by means of fences or hedges and converting them to grazing lands for sheep. This process was motivated by the great demand for English wool in Europe and outside.

Development of woollen manufacturing industry

Since 13th century wool had been the principal article of export for England. By 1500 a shift in the economy had occurred in Europe. For a long time it had been raw wool that the English sent abroad to be processed into woollen cloth in foreign countries. However, the native English woollen manufacturing industry had been developed to the point where it was now woollen cloth that constituted England's chief export. All woollen cloth going to the Continent passed through Antwerp. It was handled by the Merchant Adventurers, a group of wealthy merchants from various cities in the kingdom, especially London. For the raw wool England still exported, the staple port was Calais still in English possession in 1500 and it was handled by the organization known as the Merchants of the Staple. For high grade wool England's chief competition was with Spain. The prosperity of the Spanish sheep-growers was based on the wool of the Merino sheep, which had first been imported into Spain from North Africa about 1300. Wool was one of the chief articles of trade and manufacture throughout Western Europe. The Florentine economy was largely based on wool and the textile manufactures of the Low Countries also based on it.

The English textile and Capitalism

The English textile industry shows the advent of capitalism in a different field. It manifested itself in the so-called putting-out system. Here the leading figure the capitalist was the merchant who bought the raw material, which he then distributed put out to the craftsmen who performed the various operations required to transform it into finished cloth, and then sold it on the market for a profit. This system was also known as the domestic system, because the various workers carders, fullers, spinners, weavers and so forth, worked in their homes. In other places, as in Florence, textile manufacture was carried on by means of a sort of factory system, with the workers gathered together in large workshops. The difference here is related to differences in the respective position of the guilds. In Florence the greater guilds such as wool guilds were great capitalistic organizations that dominated economic and political life. In England, however, as in some other places, the guilds were chiefly concerned with maintaining their exclusive local privileges and preventing competition among their members, and consequently acting as a restraint upon the expansion of trade and industry.

To avoid these restraints, the textile capitalists found their workers in rural areas and outside the cities where the guilds controlled the economy. This led in some areas to a decline of the guilds and of the prosperity of the towns in which guilds were especially strong. This was not true everywhere; in some places guilds were growing stronger. In France, before the end of the sixteenth century, the crown ordered all craftsmen to belong to guilds. In this way the government by tightening its hold on the economy controlled the guilds.

Decline of serfdom in the West

One of the most imperative and long-term economic impact was the decline of serfdom in Europe. Many factors were responsible for the decline of serfdom in Europe.

- (1) To open up new lands, as in the "Drive to the East," inducements had to be offered to peasant cultivators, and freedom was used as such an inducement. The rise of towns, already noted, often had the effect of giving freedom to serfs who escaped from the land and took refuge within the town walls.
- (2) The labour shortage that followed the Black Death in many areas enhanced the bargaining position of the peasants who survived, and enabled many to secure their freedom.
- (3) The expansion of trade and the increased circulation of money worked in the same direction. As more products from distant places became available, manorial lords began to desire money with which to buy them and to obtain it they were willing to commute the obligations of their peasants from services and payments in kind to money rents. The manorial lord thus evolved into a landlord, while the servile peasant became a rent-paying tenant. The increased circulation of money here helped the peasant by providing him with the ability to pay his rent. As for the landlord, he could get his work done by hired labour, which might prove economically more profitable than the old manorial services. As a result, serfdom declined widely in the West though not everywhere.

Thus, the above factors led to the decline of serfdom in Europe in many parts of Europe.

Importance of House of Fugger in Augsburg

Accompanying the changes in commerce, industry, and agriculture and to some extent making them possible was the continued growth of banking and finance. The greatest financial power of the sixteenth century was the house of Fugger in Augsburg. The history of its rise is in itself a sort of synopsis of the development of the European economy.

The founder of the family fortunes was Hans Fugger, a weaver who in about 1367 came to Augsburg from the countryside, where he had probably worked under the domestic system for

an Augsburg merchant engaged in international trade. In the city, he expanded his activities, importing cotton and selling cloth made by him and by other weavers. Soon he began to trade in other wares, and the business was continued by his descendants. They dealt in fruits, spices, and jewels as well as textiles, and they became involved in dealings with the Hapsburgs and with the papacy. The greatest of the Fuggers was Jacob Fugger, called Jacob Fugger the Rich (1459-1525). In some ways, Jacob was the most powerful man of his time. He had control over the Emperor Charles V and the papacy. Jacob's monetary help had facilitated Charles V to win the election and occupy the crown. Jacob had great influence in the political and economic condition of his country.

International conflict and civil struggle in sixteenth century

The emerging nations suffered under handicaps in managing economic policy. In spite of encouraging developments in trade, industry, and agriculture, the country suffered from more or less depressed economic conditions for much of the century. Perhaps the most obvious way in which political events affected the economy was through war. The wars of the sixteenth century were frequent. There were international conflict and civil struggle during this period and had a tremendously destructive effect in the economy of Europe. The Sack of Rome in 1527, the Sack of Antwerp I, the "Spanish Fury" of 1576 were some terrible examples which had affected the economy. Antwerp had been one of the greatest centers of trade and finance. It had stood as the key city in the European economy. After the Sack of 1576 although there were additional factors but it never regained its former position. Similarly, the wars of Charles V and Philip II of Spain, although they were not fought on Spanish territory, were financed largely by Spanish. These useless wars had affected the economy of Spain and checked the prosperity of it.

The decline of Spain from its status as one of the great European powers, a decline from which it has never recovered, was the result of this as much as of anyone factor. Those countries that enjoyed an abundance of resources and basic economic strength recovered from the damage done by war. The revolt of the Netherlands was costly to Spain and to that part of the Low Countries that remained under Spanish control, but the new nation of the United Netherlands or Dutch republic went on to become one of the most prosperous of the European states in the next century. The French Wars of Religion were among the most terrible of the century because they were primarily civil wars, and they caused great devastation in France.

Taxation system

The methods of acquiring money available to the monarchs were primitive during that period. Taxation was in its infancy and was not yet regarded as the chief way to acquire funds for the conduct of public business. In England the monarch was expected to "live of his own". It means to meet the expenses with such resources as the income of crown lands and the receipts from customs duties. In time of war or other critical situations, Parliament might be induced to grant taxes, but there was a limit to its willingness to part with money. In France, the *taille*, a combined income and property tax, was levied throughout the country, but the rate varied. In the more recently acquired provinces, where representative bodies estates still existed, these estates served as a means of protecting the inhabitants of their provinces against excessive royal demands, and the *taille* had to be negotiated annually between the royal officials and the estates. Where the estates no longer survived, the *taille* was levied directly on the defenceless inhabitants, and the rate was higher. The fiscal burdens were often unequally distributed.

In France, the First and Second Estates clergy and nobility respectively were privileged classes, which mean that they were exempt from many of the payments required of the bulk of the population. The French church sometimes granted the king a "free gift," which was a good

deal less than it would have paid if the wealth of the church had been taxed at the rate levied on the unprivileged. In Castile, which supplied the bulk of the revenues of the king of Spain, the nobles and clergy achieved the goal of exemption from taxes in the reign of Charles V, and stopped attending the Cortes the representative assembly so that only delegates from the towns continued to be present at meetings. Deprived of the support of the other classes, these townsmen were not strong enough to put up a successful resistance to the steady growth of royal power. Thus tax systems were defective for various reasons.

Another problem that arose in connection with raising taxes was that much of the revenue tended to remain in the pockets of officials engaged in the collection process. One of the reforms of Sully, the finance minister of Henry IV of France at the end of the sixteenth century, was to take measures that would suppress this sort of speculation and bring the royal revenue to the royal treasury. There were consequently numerous reasons why the tax structures of the European states failed to meet their expanding needs and why various other expedients and generally unhealthy. Reference has already been made to the debasement of coinage. Another was the sale of titles of nobility. A good or bad example of the results of this practice is found in the experience of France, where the sale of titles came in the sixteenth century to be carried on extensively.

Establishment of companies and development of trade and commerce

The establishment of companies opened the path for trade and commerce. In the field of commerce, governments were involved from a number of angles. Customs duties, on both imports and exports, were used both to regulate trade and to add to revenues. Organizations of merchants were encouraged by governments, and officials of government often associated themselves with mercantile enterprises by investing in them. The companies that were being formed to open up and carry on trade in the newly discovered parts of the world received charters from their governments that assured them of monopolies on the trade of specific areas.

In England a number of companies of this nature were formed during the sixteenth century. The Cathay Company, chartered in 1576 for the Chinese trade, failed. Others were more successful: the Muscovy Company (1555) for the trade with Russia; the Eastland Company (1579) for the Scandinavian and Baltic trade; the Turkey Company (1581), later known as the Levant Company; and, most famous of all, the English East India Company, chartered in 1600, which was to have a long and amazing career. The new Dutch republic formed its own East India Company in 1602. Numerous other companies were chartered by these governments and others for a long time to come and enjoyed varying degrees of success. The companies were formed on the joint-stock principle, which had been familiar in Italy for centuries, but which was adopted in northern Europe in the sixteenth century.

Joint-stock companies and Shareholders

By this arrangement, ownership was divided into shares of stock, which could be purchased in small or large quantities. Each individual shareholder was an owner of the company in proportion to the number of shares he held. The shareholders chose the officers and directors of the company who carried on business on behalf of the membership. This form of organization had numerous advantages over earlier ones. It made it possible for a larger number of persons to participate in mercantile enterprise, including many who could never have done so on their own; it facilitated the accumulation of large quantities of capital; and it lessened individual risk. In the older partnership form of organization, each partner had unlimited liability for the losses and debts of the firm. In seeking out and exploiting trade opportunities, joint-stock companies did

important work in exploring new lands and sometimes in the fields of conquest, settlement, and government.

COMMERCIAL REVOLUTION- CAUSES AND NATURE

1. Introduction

The geographical discoveries and subsequent colonial expansion led to the growth of international trade and commerce. The phenomenal increase in international trade led to a paradigm shift in the world of commerce. Different commercial institutions in Europe came into existence. Many financial organisations in the form of banks came up in the world. This expansion of international trade and commerce, urban development, etc. opened the path for commercial revolution in Europe.

2. COMMERCIAL REVOLUTION

The commercial revolution ushered a new era in the economic history of the world in general and Europe in particular. The period from 1450 to 1750 in Europe is considered as period of commercial revolution. During this period Europe underwent great economic transformation. In this economic transformation the commerce and activities of the merchants played a crucial role. The growth of capitalism and shift from the town to territorial state greatly contributed to this commercial revolution as the first stage of the capitalistic economic system. During this stage the economy in western Europe centered around the nation- instead of town-centered. The trade and commerce came to play a leading role as the producer of wealth in Europe.

3.CAUSES OF COMMERCIAL REVOLUTION

There were several causes responsible for the commercial revolution in Europe.

The discovery of the sea routes

The geographical discoveries provided a great fillip to the expansion of European commerce. The spice trade particularly flourished and the Europeans imported large quantities of cloves, cinnamon or pepper from the eastern countries. They had also imported clothes, calicoes, chintzes, ginghams, etc. and a large variety of new products from the new world such as potatoes, maize, tomatoes, sugar, warm furs, cocoa, tobacco, gold, and ivory, etc.

The rise of the banking institutions

The growth of the banking institutions greatly contributed to commercial revolution in Europe. No doubt private banks existed in various countries of Europe during the 14th and 15th centuries but their resources were insufficient to meet the growing requirements of the 17th century Europe. Therefore, these private banks were superseded by the public demands chartered by the government. The first such bank was chartered in 1609 and is known as Bank of Amsterdam. In 1694 Bank of England was chartered.

Encouragement for the formation of trading companies

The encouragement of the governments to establish trading companies contributed to commercial revolution. The government felt that trading companies would be able to bear the possible losses involved in the long distance trade and would be in a better position to secure concessions for trade from foreign rulers. The governments also thought that these companies would provide taxes to the governments and the companies will not cheat in any manner.

Change in commercial practice

During this period the commercial practices also underwent a great change and they fundamentally differed from the practices existing in the medieval age. The new commercial practice was characterized by three distinct features, viz. expansion, specialization and integration. Expansion means that the market for the commodities greatly expanded. It was not confined to local, provincial or even national level but even covered international trade. Trade grew between different countries of Europe and later on even with different corners of the globe. In other words, the commercial markets greatly expanded in Europe.

Appearance of new commercial classes

The commercial revolution also created a new commercial class in Europe. In contrast with the practice existing in the medieval age when industrial and commercial functions were combined, these two functions were separated, and a special class of merchants appeared who were exclusively dedicated to trade and commerce. The percentage of the total population engaged in commercial activities also gradually enlarged. Certain new classes of commercial functionaries like brokers, commission agents, commercial travellers also appeared in Europe. These merchants of the new commercial classes devoted themselves to some particular branch of commercial activity in Europe.

The practice of integration

Another cause of commercial revolution was the practice of integration. This practice was a reaction against extreme specialization and once again led to reunion of the economic functions. This practice manifested itself in the form of establishment of large shops, invasion in the field of production by the mercantile firms, and greater share of the manufacturers in the marketing of their goods.

Establishment of a number of selling agencies

A number of selling agencies were established in Europe. It was through the selling agencies, the industrial firms began to dispose of their goods. Similarly the retail traders also tried to establish control over the manufacturing process by setting up factories for production of items were selling. As a result of this process of integration the economic functions which had been served during the earlier period, were once again combined. In a way we can say that it went back to earlier type existed in Europe.

NATURE OF COMMERCIAL REVOLUTION

The Commercial Revolution was a period of European economic expansion. The geographical discoveries and the discovery of the new trade routes along with the influx of bullion into Europe determined the nature of trade, economy and business methods and also determined the subsequent enterprises in Europeans. Many Changes occurred in the field of both inter-regional and overseas trade. There was an exceptional growth of market which was dependent on the supply of goods from all over the world. The unique growth in international trade led to a paradigm shift in the world of commerce. Financial institutions like banks and instruments such as currency notes became popular. New kinds of commercial organisations were coming up. This development of international trade along with the developments in banking and exchange as well as the urban development between the period 1450 to 1750 in Europe is recognized as the Commercial Revolution.

Period of commercial Revolution

There are divergent views regarding the period of commercial revolution which developed in the countries of Europe. The word commercial revolution was coined in the middle of the 20th century by the economic historian Roberto Sabatino Lopez. In his book, "The Commercial Revolution of the Middle Ages (1971)", Lopez opined that the key contribution of the medieval period to European history was the creation of a commercial economy between the 10th and the 14th century, centered at first in the Italo-Byzantine eastern Mediterranean, but eventually extending to the Italian city-states and over the rest of Europe. This kind of economy ran from around 14th centuries to the 18th century in Europe.

On the other hand, Walt Whitman Rostow placed the beginning arbitrarily in 1488, the year the first European sailed around the Cape of Good Hope. Most of the historians including scholars such as Robert S. Lopez, Angeliki Laiou, Irving W. Raymond, and Peter Spufford point out that there was a commercial revolution of the 11th-12th centuries, or that it began at this point, rather than later. As a result of the geographical explorations of the previous two centuries the Atlantic Economy evolved around the mid 16th century Europe.

Venice as the hub of European trade and commerce

After the revival of the Mediterranean trade Venice became the hub of trade and commerce in Europe. The geographical situation of Italy had offered an advantageous position to Venice for trade and commerce. So, it became the first European city to live by trade. Venetians were forbidden to acquire estates on the mainland and instead turned their energies to commercial empire overseas. However, the main sufferer of the Turkish expansion in Europe was Venice. Now the focal point of trade and commerce of Europe shifted from Italy to Portugal and Spain in the 16th century and Venice lost its commercial importance to places like Lisbon or Seville and eventually to Antwerp and Amsterdam. During the sixteenth century even as the hub for spice trade shifted from Venice to Lisbon. Thus, the economic hub of Europe shifted from the Italian city states to the Atlantic coast.

Appearance of New Commercial World

There was a sweeping change in the commercial sector in the 16th and 17th century Europe. In fact, this changing scenario started in Europe from the second half of the 15th century. Europe was in repossession of something like the commercial dynamism she had displayed in scale, technique and direction in 13th century. With the growth of trade and commerce, the towns also developed in the same pace. During this period special kind of business people and the guilds appeared in the towns. Therefore, a whole new commercial world came into existence before 1800. It was already visible in the 16th century when there began the long expansion of world trade and commerce in Europe.

Shift of economy from Mediterranean to the Atlantic

Further Europe witnessed the shift of economic gravity from southern to north-western Europe, from the Mediterranean to the Atlantic. Various new products were now coming to the European markets from all over the world. Indigo became a very important commodity. Tea, silk and porcelain from China, cotton textile from India and coffee and cocoa from the Americas flooded the markets of Europe. Trade in these new commodities was as lucrative as the trade in spices, slaves and corn. European manufactured products were also gradually gaining ground in the new colonies of Africa, India, Far East and the Americas. These new markets brought a promise of huge profit to the European capitalists which in turn encouraged more and more

investment. The development in trade and commerce provided a motivation to the industrialization of Europe.

New Financial system

With huge investment new industries developed in Europe such as tobacco factory or sugar refineries for which raw materials were imported from the colonies. As a result of all these changes towns were expanding and with the increase of urban centres, money economy became all persistent. The new financial instruments were being introduced not only in the urban areas but also in the countryside. So far mainly barter system prevailed in the village markets. Barter system coexisted with the new financial system for some time and then became outdated. The new financial instruments began to rule economy of Europe. In fact there was nothing new in the 'new financial system'. It was an improved version of the system which prevailed in the Italian cities throughout the era of the Mediterranean trade. The system of banking, credit, promissory notes, various types of assignments - all were known to the Italian merchants when Italy was the centre of European commerce and trade. After the shift of the commercial centre from the Mediterranean to the Atlantic coast these merchants also shifted their base as emigrant merchant class who settled down in the various new ports and cities of the Atlantic coast introduced the system of banking and credit in the new places.

Banking system in Europe

During this period important trade and commerce was based on a well populated hinterland which provided profits for diversification into manufacturing industry, services and banking. The old banking supremacy of the medieval Italian cities passed first to the Low Countries and the German bankers of the 16th century and then, finally, to Holland and London. The bank of Amsterdam and the bank of England were already international economic forces in the 17th century. Around them clustered other banks and merchant houses undertaking operations of credit and finance. Interest rates came down and the bill of exchange, a medieval invention, underwent an enormous extension of use and became the primary financial instrument of international trade in Europe. By the 17th century, English bankers had begun to develop a deposit banking business. They found that when money was deposited by a number of people, a fund of deposits could be maintained at a steady level. This fund of idle cash could be lent out at interest to other parties. The banking system worked a boost to the commercial revolution in Europe.

Growth of Capitalism

The period of Commercial Revolution provided a remarkable movement to the growth of capitalism in Europe. The influx of precious metals from Africa and South America helped the minting of coins. Gold and silver coins were minted by melting the exploits from the old civilizations and also by mining the new colonies. There was a boom in the import of bullion after the discovery of the rich silver mines of Bolivia and Mexico. New methods of extracting silver through mercury were invented. During this period some 18000 tonnes of silver was added to Europe's monetary stock. Out of the total stock, one fifth was taken by the Spanish Crown and some circulated in the Spanish America. The rest was transported twice a year to Seville where it was distributed throughout Spain and ultimately throughout Europe. Bullion flooded Western Europe which ultimately provided industrial capital.

With the expansion of overseas trade there arose demand for multilateral clearing. There was not only the growth of commerce but also development of trade routes. Thus clearing could not be restricted in one place any more. These merchant bankers dealt both in goods and in bills of exchange providing for remittance of money, settlement of accounts at a distance without

shipping the actual coins. Their business was based on the fact that they held assets at different points along the different trade routes. Credit was granted to the consumers and later to the various enterprises in the form of oral agreements or in the form of formal documents. Assignments were used in European commerce for a long time but they were taking a new form from 16th century onwards. First assignments took the form of promissory notes and then eventually they became bank notes. This was the beginning of the increasing use of paper, instead of metallic currency during the commercial revolution in Europe.

Commercial transactions

The commercial transactions became easy with the growth of trade and commerce during the commercial revolution. The introduction of paper currency made commercial transactions much easier as the bulk of precious metals no longer needed to be carried from one place to another. In the 18th century came the first European paper currencies and the invention of the cheque. Joint stock companies generated another form of negotiable security, their own shares. Quotation in London coffee-houses in the 17th century was overtaken by the foundation of the London Stock Exchange. By 1800 such an institution existed in many other countries. New schemes for the mobilization of capital and its deployment proliferated in London, Paris and Amsterdam. All the time the world was growing more commercial; more used to the idea of employing money to make money and was supplying itself with the apparatus of modern capitalism. Circulation of paper currency, intensification of credit system all accelerated the use of money in the economy. Money economy in its turn created huge capital, which eventually led to the Industrial Revolution in Europe.

Development of Agriculture and Industry

The development of agriculture helped in the growth of industry in Europe. The Agricultural Revolution prepared the ground for Industrial Revolution in England which spread to other parts of Europe in later period. There had been important improvements in techniques which raised the productivity of land, mainly by the application of labour that is by intensive cultivation. The system of Enclosure in England helped to introduce scientific methods of farming, which resulted in creating a surplus labour force waiting to get absorbed in the industries. Not only labour but industrial capital was also generated as agriculture yielded very handsome profit. The profit from land was invested in the industries. The presence of towns and concentrated population area had made the inhabitants of the Low Countries experts in the techniques of intensive cultivation. With the growth of urban centres, agriculture attained renewed importance because more and more surplus food had to be produced for the urban population. So improved techniques were deployed on the plots of land to improve their yield and lands in the colonies were also utilized to grow new crops like sugarcane and corn. Not only agriculture but also various other rural industries became important because of the Commercial Revolution.

Advent of Urban Centres, New Ports and Cities

Prior to the Commercial Revolution, there were fairs and occasional money markets which were important, but provided a temporary structure only. But with the development of money market institutions like stock exchange and banks were coming up in the urban centres. Antwerp, Bruges, Amsterdam and London were some of these urban centres of the new commercial activities. The most impressive structural development in European commerce was the sudden importance given to the overseas trade from the second half of the 17th century onwards. This was part of the shift of economic activity from the Mediterranean to Western Europe. Importance of old cities and ports of the north was also getting reduced. Lisbon and Antwerp,

Amsterdam and London had, with the opening out of the new oceanic routes, long outstripped Lubeck and Rostock, Stralsund and Danzig.

By the late 17th century, though the trade of Spain and Portugal with their transatlantic colonies was important, overseas commerce was dominated by the Dutch. Antwerp became the centre of commercial activities in the Atlantic coast in the first half of the 16th century. It was the second largest city in the north of the Alps. With many foreign merchants residing here the city acquired a truly international milieu. The ruling class offered their maximum patronage to the merchants. Antwerp became one of the wealthiest trading cities of the world. But its days of glory were short lived as it became the centre of the Dutch revolt against the Spanish Empire. The terrible sack of Antwerp in 1576, known as the Spanish Fury, swept away the prosperity and destroyed the infrastructure essential for international trade. Amsterdam and London replaced Antwerp as the centre of new economic activities. From 17th century onwards the Atlantic became the basis of English supremacy at sea. Thus, the commercial revolution brought many changes in the trade and commerce in Europe.

Impacts of Commercial Revolution

The Commercial Revolution left manifold impact which can be conveniently studied under the following heads:

Social and political Impacts of the Commercial Revolution

The commercial revolution had far reaching impacts on the socio-economic and political life of Europe. The European society went through a great change due to the commercial revolution. There were always financial discrepancies in the society which was aggravated with the economic changes introduced in the 16th and 17th centuries. Wages fell in Europe while the population continued to rise. Money and power were concentrated in the hands of the merchant class. Imperial policies and government decisions were now being guided by the interests of the merchant class. Governments not only looked after their merchants by going to war to uphold their interests, but also intervened in other ways in the working of the commercial economy. All these activities closely involved government and therefore the concerns of businessmen shaped both policy and law. The wage earners were the worst sufferers of this period as the real wage was steadily decreasing as a result of the population growth and various other associated factors.

Ushered a new era of colonialism

The Commercial Revolution also created a new age of colonialism. The Era of Discovery and Exploration opened new trade routes and discovered new territories. This led to the Commercial Revolution. Rising population helped in a setting of colonial empires by 18th century. The Portuguese had opened the trade to the Far East and subsequently, the Dutch, British and French all followed the path of the Portuguese. In the Atlantic the Spanish were also involved in colonial expansion. By 1700 an international trading community had come into being which ran round the globe. Commercial Revolution helped in the accumulation of capital needed for the Industrial Revolution in Europe.

Restrictions of the Colonial Policy

The colonial powers imposed restrictions in their colonies which are given bellow:

- ❖ The colonies were to trade exclusively with their mother country.
- ❖ They were not to undertake manufacturing, that is, transformation of raw materials into finished goods.
- ❖ Imports and exports were to be carried out only in ships flying the mother country's flag.

- ❖ The mother country was to exempt colonies from trade duties or to impose lower rates.

The countries which had large colonies thus became dominant powers in European politics. Colonial powers such as England, France and Germany dictated the terms to the lesser powers. England played a pivotal role in European politics and later world politics because she commanded the largest colonial empire. The Commercial Revolution opened new trade routes, captured new overseas markets, introduced modern money economy and financial institutions and generated capital to pave the way of Industrial Revolution. At the same time it made the poor people poorer and stratified the European society on the basis of economy. It carried the seeds of social and political revolt within it. The poor and the socially deprived class, especially the working class gradually became conscious of their rights and demands. Capitalism had the seeds of socialism embedded in it. Thus, the commercial revolution created the atmosphere for capitalism and socialism in Europe.

Growth Imports from the new world

As a part of the commercial revolution, Europe imported many commodities like potatoes, tomatoes, peanuts, chilli, peppers, avocados, squash, pumpkin, Indian corn (maize), tobacco, chocolate, cane sugar, tea and quinine, etc. from the New World and the Far-East some of which were new to Western Europe. This increased the standard of life of the Europeans (ii) Large quantities of gold and silver received from New World mines substantially affected Western Europe's economy. To reduce the risk of loss to ships and goods from storm, fire and piracy, west European merchants originated insurance. Each merchant contributed a specified sum, called a premium, to a common fund, from which- a business person who suffered a loss was compensated. Lloyd's of London was a famous insurance company, founded in 17th century.

Shifting of Major Trade Routes

The major trade routes of Western Europe shifted from the Mediterranean and Baltic to the Atlantic. The Italian city-states and north German cities declined in importance; the European nations, bordering the Atlantic, increased their commerce, wealth and power. The nation-state became pre-eminent in world affairs. On the other hand, a kind of middle class emerged in Western Europe consisting of merchants, bankers, capitalists

Adoption of Mercantilism by the West European governments

In order to enhance the national prosperity, the European governments applied the economic theories of mercantilism. The mercantilists of Europe, argued that a nation should attract the maximum amount of gold and silver, Export more than it imports, increase exports by stimulating domestic industries with subsidies, discourage imports of foreign manufactures by levying tariffs, acquire colonies to assure markets for manufactured goods and to guarantee sources of raw materials, restrict colonial manufacturing, prevent colonies to trade with any country except the mother country, etc.

Changed to profit oriented system of Capitalism

Western Europe changed from the relatively static, localized, non-profit economy typical of the Later Middle Ages to the beginnings of a dynamic, world-wide, profit oriented system called capitalism. Entrepreneurs engaged in business enterprises, taking risks and facing competition, in the hope of making a profit. They operated in a market economy in which the prices of goods and the wages of workers were determined largely by supply and demand. Entrepreneurs sometimes founded joint stock companies and secured charters from their governments granting monopolies over trade and colonization in specific overseas territories. **Other impacts on the rest of the world**

Besides the economic and political aspects, the commercial revolutions had other far reaching impacts. The diseases coming from Europe devastated the native populations in the Americas. These included smallpox, influenza, typhus, measles, diphtheria, whooping cough, malaria, etc. The Europeans bought slaves from Africa and transported them to the New World to provide labour for the plantations and mines. Trade and commerce dominated the countries of Europe as well as the countries of the world.

GROWTH OF INDUSTRIES AND ITS IMPACT

1. Introduction

Today's world is the world of machines. We find machines of various kinds all round us in our daily life. These have introduced changes in the mode of production in industry, transport, communication and agriculture. One machine is able to do in a very short time what a hundred men are incapable of doing in a long time. This has been possible due to the growth of industries which took place in Europe during 18th century and onwards. The growth of industries brought about a transition from production by hand to production by machine, from small scale production to large scale production, from hand-made goods to machine-made goods. The growth of industries revolutionised methods of production. Machine work replaced hand-work and incredibly tremendous production was possible. The place of production was shifted from the cottage in the village to the factory in the city. Originally in Europe, production took place on a very small scale in a cottage, but after the Industrial Revolution, goods were produced on a large scale with the help of huge machines in factories located in towns and cities.

2. GROWTH OF INDUSTRIES

The industrial revolution brought significant changes in the establishment and growth of industries in Europe. The beginning in this direction was made in England. However, it is difficult to say when exactly it started. In later medieval England, there were a few original thinkers and scientists, who believed in careful observation, laboratory experimentation and searching inquiry. Forces like the Renaissance were highly favourable to the growth of the scientific spirit, and England was fortunate to have everything that was needed for an industrial growth. The English people were enterprising in many fields. In sailing in ships, in colonising, in organizing trade and commerce, in empire-building and in other activities, the people of England distinguished themselves from other European powers. This explains why the people in a small island like England could become leaders in the field of industrial production. We may briefly analyse the causes for the growth of industries in England.

Inventors

England produced several scientists, whose inventions were useful for having large scale production in factories. James Hargreaves, Richard Arkwright, Samuel Crompton, Edmund Cartwright and others in textile production, Humphrey Davy, John Smeaton, Henry Bessemer, Darby and others in coal and iron industries. Thomas Newcoman, James Watt, George Stephenson, Robert Fulton and others in the field of transport contributed much to the growth of industries.

Great Demand for British Goods

The incentive to produce more and more was given by the huge profits of England's expanding industry and trade. The finished products from the industries of England had a great demand not only in the European market, but also in the markets of other countries of the world. On the other hand, enormous expansion in Britain's trade in overseas markets was one of the major causes of growth of industries. During the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries British had carved out an extensive colonial empire and successfully excluded the other powers like Spain, Holland and

France from their markets, As a result, she acquired a sort of monopoly in these markets. The growing demand for the British goods in these markets gave a stimulus to the British manufacturers for the growth of industries. It is well known that the mechanical inventions of the eighteenth century such as spinning, jenny of Hargreaves, the water-frame of Arkwright, the mule of Crompton and the power-loom of Cartwright etc. were invented to increase the production of cotton cloth which was in great demand in India.

Availability of vast capital

The huge amount of capital which England had accumulated out of profits of her growing trade enabled her to make large outlays on machinery and industries, which in turn contributed to the growth of industries. Besides this England also had possessed a large amount of capital obtained by the Bank of England from the rich trade of other countries. This helped England for the growth of industries in its own soil and in the soil of its colonies.

On the other hand, the Spanish explorers, who had found plenty of gold in South America, used to bring shiploads of it to Europe. But on the high seas, English pirates known as sea dogs used to plunder the ships and capture the gold. This gold made England wealthy and encouraged the development of industry, trade and commerce.

Policy Favouring Trade, Colonisation and Empire Building

The British Government followed a policy of trade, commerce and empire-building. The government passed Navigation Acts to protect British shipping companies from the competition of the French, the Dutch and other rivals. The British Government itself did not undertake trade and commercial activities, but left them to private entrepreneurs and captains of industry. The private manufacturers, traders, sailors and colonists showed an extraordinary zeal and spirit of enterprise. They not only earned fabulous profits themselves, but in the long run brought immense wealth to their country by further fostering industry and trade.

The East India Company engaged itself in lucrative Oriental trade, and side by side began the task of empire building in India. The Muscovy Company, the Hudson Bay Company and other companies also did exceedingly well in their respective fields of activity, British merchants, bankers, traders, pirates, politicians, diplomats, soldiers and missionaries showed a dynamic spirit, and wherever they went, they engaged themselves in steadily building up British industry, trade and empire. They procured for British industry cheap raw materials and explored large market for the sale of British goods. Unlike countries like France, which were producing luxury goods having restricted demand, England manufactured woollen and linen cloth, overcoats, garments, boots, iron articles and other commodities commanding steady demand in markets all over the world.

Wealth and Skilled Immigrants

The policy of bigotry and intolerance followed by France and Spain proved to be a blessing to the growth of industries in England. Religious wars, cruel persecution and almost intolerable conditions drove thousands of Huguenots (Protestants) from Catholic France and thousands of Protestants from the Spanish Netherlands to England. In giving shelter to these unfortunate people, England helped herself, because these artisans brought with them into the country wealth, good craftsmanship, business acumen, mechanical skill, and spirit of enterprise. The loss of France and Spain was a gain to England, as this was helpful for the commencement of the growth of industries in its soil.

The ample supply of labour

The Agrarian Revolution broke out earlier than the Industrial Revolution. This was highly favourable to England as a large number of workers necessary for the growth of industries could

be released from the rural areas for the urban areas, where big factories were humming with activity. England had mobility of labour. Labourers could migrate from villages to cities, where they were free to choose employment in one of the many concerns, workshops, mines and factories. On the other hand in France and other European countries, labour was static, as workers were attached to the land, in several ways and found it difficult, if not impossible, to migrate to cities.

Lastly, the British Government was able to maintain peace and order, and establish conditions conducive to the growth of industry, trade and commerce.

Growth of industries in various fields

The great inventions of 18th century and onwards revolutionised the methods of production in different industries in Europe. Now let us discuss the inventions which helped the growth of industries in various fields.

Growth of Textile industry

The ball of the industrial growth was first set rolling in the field of cotton textile industry. This was because several significant inventions were made to boost the production of cotton textiles.

Flying Shuttle

In 1733 John Kay invented the Flying Shuttle for weaving cloth. This doubled the speed of weaving, as it was no more necessary for the weaver's hand to carry the thread across and through other threads, which were lengthwise. In the new device, the weaver pulled a cord to push the shuttle backward and forward very rapidly.

Spinning Jenny

The speed of weaving had been doubled by the Flying Shuttle, but spinning lagged behind. The difficulty was solved by James Hargreaves, a man of Lancashire, who invented the Spinning Jenny in 1764. (Jenny was the name of his wife.) This device operated by one person could spin as much as eight old wheels operated by eight people.

Water Frame

Richard Arkwright of Lancashire improved the Spinning Jenny in 1769. He invented a weaving frame known as the Water Frame, which was originally run by horse power and later by water power. This machine consisting of rollers and spindles twisted cotton fibres or strands into strong threads. This was much better than the Spinning Jenny, as it could produce tougher thread.

Spinning Mule

In 1779, Samuel Crompton invented the Spinning Mule, which combined the good features of the Spinning Jenny and the Water Frame. With this mechanical device, stronger and finer threads could be produced rapidly at a comparatively low cost.

Automatic Loom

The textile industry needed a weaving machine, which could keep pace with the rapid production of thread. Spinning was fast, and it left weaving far behind. The problem was solved by Edmund Cartwright, who invented the Automatic Loom or Power Loom in 1785. This machine used an automatic shuttle worked by water power. By this invention, textile production was revolutionised, as the speed of weaving became two hundredfold. Industrialists set up thousands of looms in the early years of the nineteenth century, and the era of truly large scale production in textiles began. The number of looms increased from 2,400 in 1813 to 85,000 in 1833. The handloom weavers could not face the competition of the new machines, and there was unemployment.

Cotton Gin

The invention of cotton gin was a boost to the textile industry. The Industrial Revolution spread to the United States of America, where Ely Whitney invented a mechanical device known as the Cotton Gin in 1792. This could separate the cotton seeds from the fibres of the cotton ball. In 1846 Elias Howe invented the sewing machine, which gave a tremendous boost to the textile industry.

Growth of Coal and Iron industries

The Industrial Revolution would not have been possible without tremendous changes in the coal and iron industries.

Need of Strong Material for Machines

In making machines, wood had to be replaced by a strong material having durability and capable of bearing heavy strain. This material was iron. Fortunately England had ample deposits of iron.

Coal replaced Charcoal

Originally charcoal was used for melting the crude ore before smelting (that is, separating the metal from the impurity). The supply of charcoal had fallen steeply, as more and more forests were being cleared, and coal was being increasingly used. Coal was far better than charcoal, as it could produce greater heat. Wood as fuel made a very poor show in industrial production, and its use made the process very costly. Therefore, in the later days coal completely replaced charcoal.

Safety in Coal Mines

In the early days, coal mining was a hazardous task, and many miners died owing to fire-damp gases in the mines. But mining was made comparatively safe by the use of the Safety Lamp, which gave timely warning to miners. This useful lamp was invented in 1816 by Sir Humphrey Davy.

Making Pig Iron by Coke Smelting Process

Iron mongers found coke better than coal. Coke was produced by heating coal in an oven and eliminating volatile gases from it. The replacement of coal by coke was an important step in iron production, as coke could effectively and easily smelt iron. Abraham Darby invented the Blast Furnace, which was worked by leather bellows. In this, non-stop scorching heat could be produced by a continuous and strong air blast. In 1760, the Scottish John Smeaton invented the Pump Blower, which replaced the leather bellows.

The iron extracted by the new coke smelting process was called Pig Iron, as the huge mould in the midst of the smaller surrounding moulds into which molten iron flowed appeared like a female pig with rows of the young ones. In 1856, Henry Bessemer invented a process for making harder, purer and refined iron known as steel by the removal of impurities. The new process was cheaper and far better than the earlier one. The emergence of steel was an important landmark in the iron industry.

The series of significant inventions in iron and steel production led to the establishment of many huge iron and steel factories in England manufacturing a variety of iron and steel products. With the new know-how to make iron and steel, strong, sturdy and better machines and tools could be widely used in the hundreds of factories and mills in the 19th century England. The entry of iron and steel directly or indirectly in the daily life of man revolutionised civilization. The level of industrial production in a nation came to be determined by the amount of iron and steel produced by it.

Use of power in the industries

A revolutionary step in the field of power was the replacement of water power by steam power and of steam power by electricity.

Steam Pump

The principle of the expansion of water in the form of steam, when heated, was put to practical use in the field of industry. Around 1700 Thomas Savery produced a Steam Pump for pumping out water from coal mines.

Newcomen's Steam Engine

In 1705 Thomas Newcomen of Devonshire, who was working under Savery, invented the Steam Engine. Before that Newcomen's engine was widely used in industries.

Watt's Steam Engine

Newcomen's engine was found to be too slow in working. Moreover, it required too much coal. It needed alternate heating and cooling of the cylinder for the working of the piston for pumping out water. A far better engine known as the Beelzebub was produced by James Watt (1730-1819) in 1769 with the assistance of Matthew Boulton. This new patented engine had a separate condenser for cooling the steam, and an airtight jacket for keeping the cylinder continuously hot. It had greater speed, consumed less coal and was economical. An improved version of the Beelzebub could be used for pumping water, moving paddle-wheels in ships, running machines, operating spindles' in textile mills and other purposes.

Significance of Steam Power

The introduction of steam power was indeed a great landmark in the field of industry. Till the discovery of the use of steam power, producers had to depend on human beings, draught animals, wind and water. After steam power was applied to industry, factories could be built anywhere and not necessarily near the sources of flowing water.

Electricity

Introduction of electric power, which replaced steam power, further revolutionised industrial production. The Italian scientist Alessandro Volta (1745-1827) invented the Voltaic Cell by immersing strips of copper and zinc in weak solution. He was a great pioneer in the study of electric science. The *volt*, the unit of electric pressure, is named after him.

Ampere

Andre Marie Ampere (1775-1836), a great French physicist, mathematician and philosopher, demonstrated the relation between electricity and magnetism. His researches in electro-dynamics resulted in the invention of the astatic needle. Ampere, a unit of measure in electricity is named after him.

Faraday

Michael Faraday (1791-1867), a famous British scientist, discovered magnetic induction and studied the transformation of mechanical energy into electrical. He invented the Dynamo. His researches laid the foundation of modern electrical science. In course of time the use of electricity was made on a large scale for industrial production, and for household purposes. Dynamos were set up for generating electricity for lighting purposes. In 1873, the electric motor was introduced, and gradually electric motors were able to displace steam engines. The wonders of electricity could confer benefits on all. The housewife at home and the captain of industry in the factory could take advantage of electricity.

Change in Transport for the growth of industries

Goods produced on a gigantic scale in factories had to be moved to the different parts of the country, and later even to the various parts of the world. Hence a revolution in the means of transport and communication was as necessary as a revolution in production. Movement of

goods on land and on sea had to be speedy to capture markets and to cater to the needs of consumers in the country and also in the various nooks and corners of the world.

Road Building

Roads in England were in bad condition, and they were unable to stand the strain of heavy traffic, which rose after the commencement of the Industrial Revolution. John Mc Adam, a Scottish man, discovered a way of building sturdy roads with layers of broken stone. Macadamising, the new process of road building, was named after him.

Canal Construction

Between 1775 and 1850, great canals were constructed in England, as transportation of goods by canals was cheaper than by roads.

Steam Power for Railways

In Britain, coal was transported from mines by rail-lines. In 1803, for carrying passengers, horse car lines were built in the London suburb. George Stephenson (1781-1848), an engineer and railway pioneer, became famous for his inventions, which revolutionised transport. In 1814, his Iron Horse run by steam carried coal from mine to port. He introduced great improvements in the steam engine. Since 1825 a-much improved Steam Engine began running on the Stockton Darlington Railway. The railway directors offered a prize for an engine, which could serve their purpose well. The prize was won by Stephenson IS famous engine known as the Rocket, the prototype of the modern railway locomotive. The Rocket began carrying passengers and goods on the Liverpool-Manchester Railway in 1830. Its speed was only 29 miles per hour.

Steamboats

In the 19th century steam' power was used for driving boats and ships, and very soon steam navigation was widely used for commercial purposes. Robert Fulton (1756-1815), an American engineer, built in 1807 the *Clermont*, the first steam boat, which was launched on the river Hudson. The steam ship *Savannah* sailed in 25 days across the Atlantic from Savannah to Liverpool in 1819, and in 1838 the *Great Western* sailed in a surprisingly short time of 15 days from America to England across the Atlantic without being retreated on the way.

Changes in communication

The introduction of the telegraph and the telephone revolutionised communication. The electric telegraph was invented on the basis of the research of Faraday, Volta and other great pioneers of electrical study. Steinheil in Germany, Wheatstone in England and Morse in the United States of America invented the electric telegraph independently. The telegraphic system was widely introduced after 1845. In 1866 an under-sea cable was set up in the Atlantic Ocean. All great commercial centres in the world were linked by telegraph by the end of the 19th century. Alexander Graham Bell (1847-1922), a great inventor and scientist, studied phonology with his father. He made experiments with sound waves and invented the telephone in 1876.

Growth in Engineering Techniques

In the accomplishment of the various technological changes the engineering played a vital role. The mechanical engineers particularly played an important role in the improvement of machinery as well as its efficient use. They made use of iron and steel in place of wood to create complex machinery. They manufactured the various parts of the machine with utmost skill and dexterity so that they could be easily fitted and work accurately. One of the outstanding inventions of these mechanical engineers was the steam engine about which has have already referred. It was mainly due to the efforts of these engineers that the machines could be operated economically and smoothly. The contributions made by the civil engineers were no less significant. It was

chiefly due to the improvement in communication and transportation effected by the civil engineers that concentration of industries and large scale production could be possible.

Development in Chemical Industry

The revolutionary changes, especially in the cotton textile industry, necessitated the corresponding development of the chemical industry. As the old method of bleaching was so slow, an improvement was called for to meet the requirements of the fast growing cotton industry. In 1746 and 1749 Roebuck set up two works where oil of vitriol was used successfully. This was a revolutionary change which not only affected the bleaching process but the entire textile industry. Further improvements in the bleaching techniques reduced the duration of this process to few days rather than months. It is indeed difficult to imagine that the cotton textile industry could have flourished, as it did, in the absence of the discovery of quick process of bleaching. By the close of the eighteenth and 'beginning of the nineteenth century considerable progress had also been made in the dyeing and printing industries which led to remarkable improvement in the cotton textile industry.

Growth of industries in other countries

The Industrial Revolution, which began in England, spread all over Europe in course of time. Europe had to depend upon Britain for technical know-how, machines and money. After the Napoleonic Wars ended in Europe in 1815, Belgium, France, Germany, Switzerland and other countries purchased heavy machinery from England. The credit of establishing several industries on solid foundations in European countries goes to English entrepreneurs. They introduced in the Continental countries heavy machinery for making machines themselves, textile machinery, bobbin lace machines and other machines. Certain European countries rapidly picked up the new techniques of production, and after some time even surpassed England in certain fields. Textile manufacturers in France could do far better than their counterparts in Britain in design and beauty. In the making of metal products, Germany excelled England. The Industrial Revolution spread in the United States of America, which after a certain stage became the greatest manufacturer in the automobile and other industries.

The Revolution spread in Asia and African countries about a hundred years late.

Thus we find that the inventions and various developments in the techniques of production led to the growth of industries in England and other European countries.

13.4 IMPACTS OF THE GROWTH OF INDUSTRIES

The growth of industries changed the face of England, which experienced many good effects. At the same time, it was not a total blessing, and it had its ugly side. In course of time, its evil effects came into bold relief. Britain's experience was shared by other countries, where it spread.

Good impacts of the growth of industries

The good impacts of the growth of industries are given below:

Ushered a New World

The growth of industries in Europe ushered a new world altogether. The effects of the inventions made in the various fields of production brought about revolutionary changes for the betterment of life. Progress, which could not take place in a thousand years, was registered in about a century (1750-1850). The numerous things that we see around us come from distant factories in our own country or in distant countries. All these factories are the products of these industries. We can see a world of difference between the life of the people in the pre-Revolution days and their life since the Revolution broke out.

More and Better Goods

As a result of the growth of industries, production became incredibly rapid, and the standard of production improved. Consumers could have more and better goods at cheap prices. Large scale production and division of labour became the order of the day in huge factories.

Made Living Comfortable

Living became comfortable as a result of the numerous inventions which took place particularly in the first big round of the industrial growth(1750-1850). People before the Revolution did not have so many comforts and conveniences of life, which people have been enjoying since the Revolution. Mills, factories, workshops, foundries, railway locomotives, steamships, the telegraph, the telephone, electricity, motor cars and many other things have contributed to a comfortable life. Life at home was revolutionised. Electricity came to be used for lighting, heating, cooking, operating radio and television, washing, ironing and many other jobs.

Urbanisation

One of the immediate results of the growth of industries was urbanisation. In England and other countries, where the Revolution broke out, many towns and cities rose and people from the rural areas migrated to the urban areas for employment, education, cultural benefits, better freedom and enjoyment. Cities became centres of culture and civilization, and in all fields they made tremendous progress, which attracted people to them from the surrounding rural areas.

Countries became rich and prosperous

Countries, which had the industrial growth, became rich and prosperous. England can be given as the best example to show how she became the richest country with the mightiest empire in the world. In almost every field England took the lead. People of England enjoyed peace, prosperity and prestige, which became the envy of other countries.

Bad Impacts of the growth of industries

The growth of industries had the dark side as well. While it solved many problems, it created many new problems, some of which defy solution. The evil impacts of the Revolution can be noted in the various fields.

Wide Gap between the Rich and the Poor

The Industrial growth gave rise to capitalism. A few individuals in society became capitalists, the owners of the key means of production. They cornered fabulous wealth, and wielded immense power and prestige. On the other hand, it created a class of workers living from bread to mouth. They depended entirely on their capitalist employers for bread. The gap between the employers and the employees became very wide, and it remained unbridged. Capitalists, the haves, and their employees, the have-nots, presented a kind of antithesis in society. There was nothing in common between the two. The employers had contempt for their workers, and their children could never imagine to pollute themselves by mixing with the children of the workers. The workers hated their employers, and thought that they were being unjustly treated, badly humiliated and cruelly exploited. Thus, social harmony was upset with frequent conflicts and heart-burning.

Political Power Monopolise

Industrial capitalists monopolised political power. In England in the nineteenth century, industrial magnates exerted tremendous influence and pressure on the government. A few people at the top, who could control production and distribution, were rich enough to bend the government to their will. Economic power was utilised to seize political power; which in turn brought further economic benefits. In England, outwardly there was democracy, but actually aristocrats or oligarchs ruled. Parliament was controlled by the rich landlords and big capitalists.

In the name of economic liberty, which was upheld by capitalists and great economists like Adam Smith and Ricardo, it was possible for multi-millionaires to capture power.

Ruthless Exploitation and Misery

Ruthless exploitation took place in the factories. Conditions in industrial cities were fine for the rich, but miserable for the poor. Conditions at home were very bad for workers. They lived in small tenements, where there were no facilities for lighting, heating, sanitation and hygiene. Bad food, poor clothing, slum-dwelling, and awful conditions in factories all combined to create a veritable hell for workers. The hours of work were long, in some cases, as many as fifteen or eighteen a day. Wages were lowered or workers were dismissed unjustly and arbitrarily. All capitalists were not bad. But benevolent and broad-minded factory-owners like Robert Owen were very few and far between. Karl Marx and Engels, the founders of revolutionary socialism or communism, called upon the workers of the world to unite and fight against capitalist exploitation.

Capitalism, Colonialism and Imperialism

The growth of industries made the Western nations rich and powerful, and these followed a policy of colonialism, imperialism and exploitation. They needed cheap raw materials for feeding their machines, and world-wide markets for their manufactured goods. Colonies and empires were needed for economic gain. Highly industrialised Western nations conquered the economically backward countries of Asia and cruelly exploited them. India, China, Burma, Ceylon, Egypt, Congo and many other countries were the victims of Western capitalism and imperialism.

Among the Western nations, rivalry and wars arose, as each of them wished to get the greatest benefits from the backward countries of the world. Undoubtedly, the growth of industries sowed the seeds of war, bitterness and hatred all over the world.