

TIMELINE

Date	Region	Event
1450 C.E.	Europe	Renaissance continues; Fall of Constantinople
1453 C.E.	Mid East	Ottomans capture Constantinople
1464 C.E.	Africa	Kingdom of Songhai is established
1492 C.E.	Americas	European explorers reach the New World
1517 C.E.	Europe	Protestant Reformation begins
1521 C.E.	Americas	Cortez defeats the Aztecs
1533 C.E.	Americas	Pizarro conquers the Inca
1588 C.E.	Europe	England defeats the Spanish Armada
1600 C.E.	East Asia	Beginning of Tokugawa shogunate
1618-1648 C.E.	Europe	Thirty Years' War between Protestants and Catholics
1652 C.E.	Africa	Cape Town Colony is established
1650-1800 C.E.	Europe	Enlightenment

*Should add to this!
Remember the timeline at
the start of Chapter 13.*

1450 to 1750 C.E.

RECOVERY AND RENAISSANCE IN ASIA AND EUROPE

High-Yield

Chinese Developments

In 1368, the Mongol Yuan dynasty collapsed and Emperor Hongwu started the Ming dynasty. Hongwu eliminated evidence of Mongol rule, reinstated the Confucian education system and civil service exam, and tightened central authority. The Ming relied on mandarins, a class of powerful officials, to implement their policies on the local level. They also conscripted laborers to rebuild irrigation systems; as a result, agricultural production increased. Though the Ming did not actively promote trade, private merchants traded manufactured porcelain, silk, and cotton.

The Ming dynasty strongly promoted Chinese cultural traditions and established Neo-Confucian schools which stressed Confucian values such as self-discipline, filial piety, and obedience to rulers. They also funded projects that emphasized Chinese cultural traditions, such as the Yongle Encyclopedia. This encyclopedia was the largest general encyclopedia of its time, and it covered a wide array of subjects, including agriculture, art, astronomy, drama, geology, history, literature, medicine, natural sciences, religion, and technology. More than 2,000 scholars contributed to its development. Increased printing contributed to the growth of popular culture. The Ming dynasty saw three of the "Four Great Classical Novels" of Chinese literature published: *The Water Margin*, *Romance of the Three Kingdoms* and *Journey to the West*. The often banned yet landmark work *The Plum in the Golden Vase* also saw publication.

AP Exam Note

Romance of the Three Kingdoms

"The world under heaven, after a long period of division, tends to unite; after a long period of union, tends to divide. This has been so since antiquity." - opening lines

Perhaps the most widely-read novel in both late imperial and modern China, and culturally influential throughout East Asia, *Romance of the Three Kingdoms* is an 800,000-word epic. It has been adapted in everything from operas, to comics, to video games like *Dynasty Warriors*. The story opens with the Yellow Turban Rebellion at the twilight of the Han dynasty, and it follows a sprawling cast during the Three Kingdoms period as they battle over whose faction will reunite China.

★ Jesuit missionaries such as Matteo Ricci arrived in China, introducing European science and technology. However, the Jesuit goal of converting the Chinese population to Christianity proved to be unsuccessful.

European Developments

Change over time

By the 1400s C.E., the regional states in Europe were developing into monarchies. These monarchies were strong enough to tax citizens directly and maintain large standing armies. Italy, Milan, Venice, and Florence benefited greatly from increased trade, which increased tax revenues and their governments' authority.

Kings in France and England began to successfully assert their authority over their feudal lords. In Spain, Fernando of Aragon and Isabella of Castile married and united Spain by reconquering the lands

note when

600 to 1450 C.E.

change formerly controlled by Muslims. The competition among these states led to a refinement and improvement in weapons, ships, and technology, which prepared these regional states for future expansion.

consequence

The increased interaction with regions outside Europe ignited a major intellectual and artistic movement known as the **Renaissance**. Contact with the Islamic world, such as the Muslim territory al-Andalus in the Iberian Peninsula, reintroduced the ancient Greek and Roman texts that had been preserved and developed by Arabs. From the 1300s C.E. through the 1500s C.E., European painters, sculptors, and writers drew inspiration from the Greek and Roman classical past.

The study of these classical texts became known as Renaissance humanism or *studia humanitatis* (the "studies of humanity"). Renaissance humanism stressed the achievements of human beings. While medieval scholars and artists focused their works on revealing God, humanist scholars and artists attempted to reveal human nature. In Italy, artists such as Leonardo da Vinci and Michelangelo used perspective to create realistic masterpieces. Noble families, such as the Medici family, who had grown wealthy from lucrative trade with the Islamic and Byzantine cultures, became patrons of painters, sculptors, and scientists.

Chinese Exploration

After reestablishing authority over China, the Ming decided to refurbish their country's large navy. From 1405 to 1433 C.E., they sponsored seven massive naval expeditions, in order to reinforce Chinese presence in the Indian Ocean, impose imperial control over trade, and impress foreign peoples with the authority of the Ming dynasty.

The mariner Zheng He led these expeditions. His first trip alone involved 28,000 troops. Zheng He sailed to Southeast Asia, India, the Persian Gulf, Arabia, and East Africa. Zheng He dispensed and received gifts throughout these travels. However, Confucian officials convinced the Chinese emperor that the voyages were too expensive and unprofitable, especially because of renewed concern over the northern Mongol border. Thus, in 1433 C.E., the voyages ended, Zheng He's records were destroyed, and the ships were allowed to rot.

European Exploration

"God, Glory, Gold"

In the 1400s C.E., the ideas of the Renaissance inspired some Europeans to explore. These explorations were not diplomatic, but instead focused on profits, the spread of Christianity, and the desire for adventure. The goods from the East, such as spices, which Europeans desired were very expensive because of the long overland journey between Asia and Europe.

However, what if Europeans could find their own route to Asia by sea and cut out the Muslim middlemen's profits? The Portuguese were early leaders in exploration, under the leadership of Prince Henry the Navigator, who established Portuguese schools and sponsored expeditions along the West African coast.

Competition increased among European powers, and a race to dominate the seas began. This competition continued well into our next period, with the European involvement in the Indian Ocean trade and their encounter with the Americas.

600 to 1450 C.E.

Period 4: 1450 to 1750 C.E. – Complete Time Period Review

IMPACT OF INTERACTION—THE DEVELOPMENT OF A GLOBAL ECONOMY

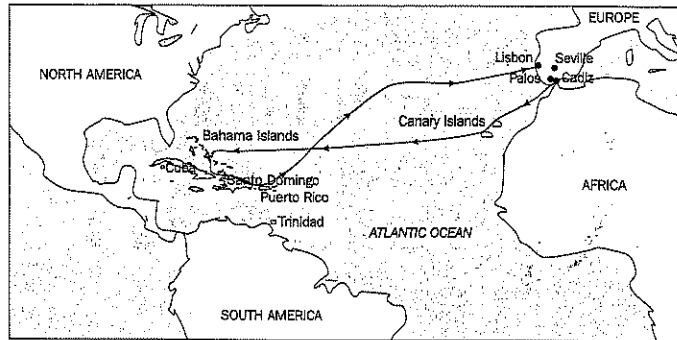
European Exploration

High-Yield

change
continuity

The Ming dynasty had extensively explored the Indian Ocean from 1405 to 1433, but decided to halt the voyages and destroy their ships due to pressure from conservative factions in the court. Other Easterners like Muslims, Indians, and Malays continued to use the Indian Ocean for commerce and trade, establishing effective routes and creating a vibrant trade system. When the Europeans did arrive, the world shifted from a primarily Asian-centered economy to a global economy. *change over time*

Europe emerged from an age of isolation with a desire to explore. Major motivations included the search for resources and new trade routes to Asian markets, and the desire to spread Christianity. The Asian goods that Europe purchased, such as pepper, ginger, cloves, and nutmeg, were very expensive. Europeans wanted to gain direct access to these goods, increasing supply and lowering prices. Additionally, the Ottoman conquest of Constantinople in 1453 ended the Byzantine Empire, solidifying Muslim influence in the region and making it less friendly to European traders. The acquisition of technology from China and the Muslim world helped Europeans expand their seagoing capabilities with maritime equipment such as the sternpost rudder, triangular lateen sails, the magnetic compass, and the astrolabe. Portugal was an early leader in European exploration, aided by the development of the **caravel**, a small, highly maneuverable sailing ship. *causation*



Columbus's First Voyage

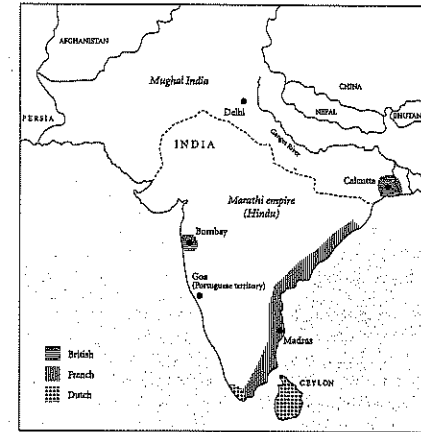
Explorer	Year	Accomplishment
Bartolomeu Dias (Portugal)	1488	Rounded the Cape of Good Hope at the tip of Africa and entered the Indian Ocean
Christopher Columbus (Spain)	1492	Sailed west to reach Asia and instead reached the Bahamas. Sailed around the Caribbean, but thought he had reached an island just off the coast of Asia
Vasco da Gama (Portugal)	1497	Reached Calicut, India in 1498 by rounding Africa
Ferdinand Magellan (Spain)	1519-1522	Sailed around South America to the Philippine Islands where he was killed; his men sailed back through the Indian Ocean and were the first to circumnavigate the globe

Trading-Post Empires

The initial goal of European powers in exploring the Indian Ocean was not to conquer, but to control trade. They wanted to force merchant ships to trade in fortified trading sites and to pay duties for the privilege. By the mid-1500s, Portugal had 50 trading posts from West Africa to East Asia, but by the late 1500s its power had started to decline—the country lacked the administrative and military capabilities to keep up with other European powers. The English and Dutch quickly took Portugal's place as the dominant seafaring powers with faster, cheaper, and more powerful ships. Their imperial expansion was aided by the use of **joint-stock companies**, in which investors, rather than royal governments, funded expeditions.

1450 to 1750 C.E.

Imp. Post. text



Trading Posts

AMERICAN CIVILIZATIONS

Aztec

The Aztecs occupied territory in Mesoamerica, and the capital city Tenochtitlán was located in what today is Mexico City. A militant warrior tradition characterized Aztec culture. They developed a system of feudalism which had similarities to that of Japan and Europe. The Aztecs were ruled by a single monarch, who exerted power over local rulers.

The Aztecs had an agricultural economy, with cacao beans sometimes used as currency. They practiced *chinampa* agriculture, where farmers cultivated crops in rectangular plots of land on lake beds. A priestly class oversaw polytheistic religious rituals, which sometimes included human sacrifice. Although Aztec society was patriarchal, women were able to own property and agree to business contracts.

Inca

Indigenous clans in the Andean highlands of South America developed a rich and complex culture, leading to the rise of an empire in the fifteenth century C.E. These people—the Incas—conquered a large territory and absorbed many groups in central and western South America. In ninety years,

1450 to 1750 C.E.

the Inca Empire grew into a stretch of land that covered over 3,000 miles. Despite its large size, the Inca Empire was centralized, led by a king and a privileged class of nobles. The capital city was Cuzco, in present-day Peru, but the Incas also occupied other large urban centers.

The Inca Empire had a mandatory public service system, called the *mit'a*. Their economy was rooted in agriculture, as the Incas had adapted to the steep, rugged terrain of the Andes with the use of extensive irrigation techniques. Their polytheistic religion was based on worship of the sun and incorporated ancestor worship. They developed a system of record-keeping called *quipu*; it used knotted strings to record numeric data, such as tax obligations and census records. Living in a patriarchal society, Inca women had few rights.

COLUMBIAN EXCHANGE

High-Yield

The inclusion of the Americas in the global trade network led to what would later be called the **Columbian Exchange**: the transfer of plants, food, crops, animals, humans, and diseases between the Old World and the New. The exchange of food crops and animals revolutionized life around the world, leading to an increase in the nutritional value of diets and boosting population worldwide. However, the Columbian Exchange also led to the spread of disease to the Americas, brought by human carriers, as well as by rats and mosquitoes that Europeans unintentionally brought with them on ships. Smallpox, measles, and other diseases to which the natives of the Americas had no immunity devastated their populations; some estimates of mortality rates for native populations are as high as ninety percent. The loss of natives due to disease played a direct role in their inability to fend off European advancement, and also led to the importation of enslaved Africans to work plantations. Relying on dwindling native populations as a labor force became economically unsustainable, and African slaves were used to meet labor demands.

Europe to the Americas	Americas to Africa, Asia, and Europe
Wheat	Maize (Corn)
Sugarcane	Potatoes
Cotton	Beans
Horses	Tomatoes
Cattle	Peppers
Pigs	Peanuts
Sheep	Avocados
Goats	Pineapples
Chickens	Tobacco

Mercantilism: The Role and Impact of Silver

Silver, the most abundant American precious metal, was responsible for stimulating the global trade network. Spain controlled the two areas richest in silver production, Mexico and the Potosí mines in the Andes, and made use of large numbers of indigenous forced laborers. The Spanish

were driven primarily by the economic theory of **mercantilism**. The term “mercantile system” is used to describe the ways in which nation-states enrich themselves by limiting imports and encouraging exports. The goal of mercantilist policies was to achieve a favorable balance of trade that would bring wealth into the country while maintaining domestic employment. The most important objective for mercantilist policies in the sixteenth century was the growth of a nation’s economic power relative to competing nation-states. Spain used silver to trade for silk and porcelain in Asia, as China used the precious metal as a primary medium of exchange, and to finance a powerful military and bureaucracy.

The Role and Impact of Sugar

Sugar was another important product at this time. Intensive labor and specialized skills were required for **sugar cultivation**. Because smallpox had wiped out so many native peoples in the Americas, enslaved Africans became the main labor force. These slaves worked under very harsh conditions—mistreatment, extreme heat, and poor nutrition—which led to a significant number of deaths from disease and abuse.

These sugar plantations were, in many aspects, proto-factories, as they were financed and organized to create a single product in a complex process, foreshadowing the organization of mechanized production in the upcoming Industrial Revolution.

STATE-BUILDING

Ottoman Empire

High-Yield

The Ottoman Empire emerged from a group of semi-nomadic Turks who migrated to northwest Anatolia in the thirteenth century. Military might and **gunpowder** weapons drove the Ottomans to power. An elite fighting force of slave troops composed of Christian males, called Janissaries, formed the professional backbone of the Ottoman military. In 1453 the Ottomans conquered Constantinople and brought an end to Byzantine rule. Sultans like Mehmed the Conqueror and Suleiman the Magnificent created an absolute monarchy. Islamic religious scholars and legal experts served administrative functions in the government. As the empire prospered, sultans grew more distant and removed themselves from government administration. The vizier headed the bureaucracy, and often had more control and actual power than the sultan. Political succession was often problematic, as many new sultans would execute their brothers to eliminate any challenge to their authority.

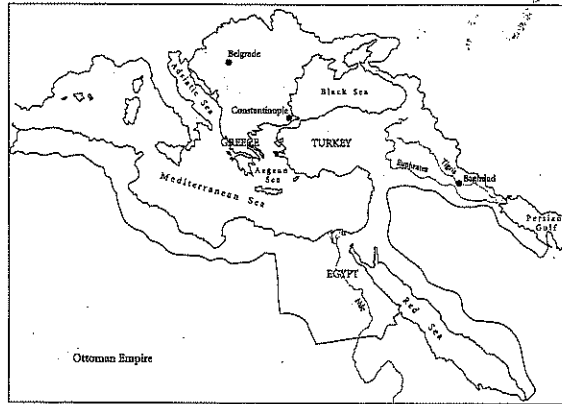
In the capital city of Istanbul, formerly Constantinople, the Christian cathedral Hagia Sophia was converted to a grand mosque. The city also had aqueducts, a flourishing marketplace, rest houses, religious schools, and hospitals. A large merchant and artisan class conducted business, but their work was closely regulated by the government.

1450 to 1750 C.E.

1450 to 1750 C.E.

The sultan's harem, consisting of wives, concubines and female servants, was influential in Ottoman politics and society. Members of the harem were often of slave origin and non-Muslim, as the enslavement of Muslims was forbidden. Wives and concubines were awarded status when they produced male heirs to the sultan's throne. They were educated in the Quran, reading, sewing, and music. The sultan's mother served as an advisor to the throne, overseeing the imperial household and engaging in diplomacy.

The empire reached its peak in the mid-1600s, but became too large to maintain. The effectiveness of the administration declined, and was plagued by corruption. In addition, the Ottomans struggled to keep up with ongoing European military and naval advancements.



Expansion of the Ottoman Empire

Mughal India

In 1526, Babur, a descendant of Turkic nomads, began his conquest of India, unifying the subcontinent's regional kingdoms and establishing the **Mughal empire**. His grandson Akbar continued Babur's legacy and ushered in a period of economic stability and religious harmony. Akbar created a religion called the Divine Faith which combined elements of Islam and Hinduism together and legitimized his rule as head of state and religion. He initiated a policy of cooperation with Hindu rulers and the Hindu population by encouraging intermarriage. He also abolished the *jizya* (non-Muslim tax), and promoted Hindus to high-ranking government positions. Akbar and his descendants, Jahangir and Shah Jahan, were great patrons of the arts. Emperor Shah Jahan oversaw the construction of the Taj Mahal, built as a tomb for his late wife. The Taj Mahal is perhaps the greatest example of Mughal architecture's unique blend of Islamic domes, arches, and minarets with Hindu-inspired ornamentation.

Aurangzeb, Shah Jahan's son, seized the throne with a neglectful and corrupt bureaucracy and pushed to extend Muslim control of India. He sought to rid India of all Hindu influences, purify Islam, and reinstate the *jizya*. His many wars drained the treasury, and peasant uprisings and revolts by both Muslim and Hindu princes weakened the empire. At this time, India had become a major overseas destination for European traders looking to fulfill demand for cotton. With a weakened empire, those traders were able to increase their influence in the region.

Songhai

In the 1400s, the West African state of **Songhai** emerged to take power over the weakened Mali Empire. Its leader, Sunni Ali, consolidated his empire by appointing governors to oversee the provinces, building a large army, and creating an imperial navy to patrol the Niger River. The lucrative trans-Saharan trade flowed through the city of Gao, which brought salt, textiles, and metal in exchange for gold and slaves.

Songhai emperors were Muslims who supported the construction of mosques, schools, and an Islamic university at Timbuktu. Though Islam served as the cultural foundation of the empire and a key element in establishing cooperation with Muslim merchants, traditional African religious beliefs were not fully abandoned.

Just as Europeans were making inroads into Africa, the Songhai Empire began to lose control of its subjects. The empire went into decline and was defeated by the Moroccans in 1591, made easier by use of firearms by the Moroccans.

Kongo

In the fourteenth century, the Kongo emerged as a centralized state along the west coast of central Africa. In this organized state, a powerful king ruled, and officials oversaw military, judicial, and financial affairs. In 1482, a small Portuguese fleet arrived and initiated commercial relations, and within a few years the Portuguese had developed a close political and diplomatic relationship with the king. To improve relations, kings like Afonso I converted to and spread Christianity across the kingdom.

The Portuguese brought great wealth to Kongo, exchanging textiles and weapons for gold, silver, ivory, and slaves. Eventually, the Portuguese dealings undermined the king's authority and led to conflict. The Portuguese defeated the Kongo's forces in 1665, and the kingdom never fully recovered.

Spanish and Portuguese Colonies in the New World

Spanish conquistadors led the way in the conquest of the Americas. The primary Spanish settlements, New Spain (Mexico) and New Castile (Peru), were each governed by a viceroy, who reported directly to the Spanish king. In 1494, the Treaty of Tordesillas, an agreement between Spain and Portugal based on an earlier decree by Pope Alexander VI, divided control of any future American territories: the Spanish controlled the land west of the agreed upon line of demarcation, and the Portuguese controlled the territory east of the line.

Along with its goal of increasing wealth through the creation of an empire, Spain desired to expand the influence of Christianity. Catholic missionaries came to the Americas alongside the conquistadors and built mission churches to convert American Indians, many of whom adopted Christianity but blended it with their indigenous religions. For the most part, however, these Spanish missionaries forcibly imposed European culture on the natives.

The social result of the conquest of this new empire was a multicultural and ethnically-mixed population. The *peninsulares*, the highest social class, came directly from the Iberian peninsula, and their American-born descendants were called *Creoles*. Those of mixed European and American Indian descent were called *mestizos*, and those with European and African ancestors were called *mulattoes*. At the bottom of the social order were the American Indians, Africans, and the mixed class of *zambos*.

Qing Dynasty

By the 1640s, the Ming dynasty had declined and been taken over by a peasant army which established the short-lived Shun dynasty. The **Manchu**, a community of hunters, fishermen, and farmers from the lands to the northeast of China, soon ousted the Shun and established the Qing dynasty. Thus, China came under the rule of foreigners for the second time (the first being the Mongol-ruled Yuan dynasty).

The Manchus established and expanded their rule through military conquest. Like Genghis Khan, who reorganized the Mongol army to diminish the importance of tribal allegiances, the Manchu leader Nurhaci created a large army consisting of units called banners, which were organized on a social basis. Each banner comprised a set of military companies, but also included the families and slaves of the soldiers. Banners were led by a hereditary captain, many of whom came from Nurhaci's own lineage. When the Manchu army defeated new groups, they were incorporated into several banners to decrease their potential for insubordination.

The Manchu had adopted elements of Chinese culture generations before the conquest. Unlike the Mongols, they incorporated traditional Chinese practices into government, including using the Confucian civil service exam system to fill government positions. Like the Mongols, however, the Manchu wanted to preserve their own ethnic and cultural identity. They forbade intermarriage between Manchu and Han Chinese, barred Chinese from traveling to Manchuria and learning their language, and forced Chinese men to wear their hair in a braid called a queue as a sign of submission.

The Qing dynasty created a multiethnic empire that was larger than any earlier Chinese dynasty. It expanded into Taiwan in 1683, increased control of Mongolia throughout the 1690s, and established administrative oversight of Tibet in 1720. The final area to be annexed was Chinese Turkestan in the 1750s. The Manchus ruled Tibet and Turkestan relatively leniently. Local religious leaders, such as the Dalai Lama in Tibet, were allowed to remain in place, and men were not forced to wear the queue. By this time, the expanding Qing and Russian empires were nearing each other, which resulted in Manchu and Russian leaders approving the 1689 Treaty of Nerchinsk, which defined borders and regulated trade.

Russian Empire

After hundreds of years under Mongol tributary rule, Russia emerged as an empire in its own right. The Mongols had forced the Russian princes to submit to their rule and provide them with tribute and slaves. Russian princes collected the khan's taxes and suppressed uprisings, gaining power in the process. Eventually, the Muscovite princes were able to defeat their rivals for power. Ivan III, a grand prince of Moscow, stopped paying tribute to the Mongols and in 1480 began building his own empire. He established a strong central government, and ruled as an absolute monarch, a czar, who was also the head of the Russian Orthodox Church. The czar claimed that his authority to rule came directly from God. After a series of Muscovite princes, the Romanov family came to power in 1613, and ruled Russia for the next 300 years.

Peter the Great, who reigned from 1682 to 1725, was fascinated with Western technology and instituted a policy of rapid modernization. Needing skilled technicians and industrial experts to carry out his modernization plans, he established schools to produce them. He greatly reformed the military by strengthening the navy and introducing a system of ranks. Peter created an interlocking military-civilian bureaucracy composed of 14 hierarchical ranks which functioned as a meritocracy; even people from non-noble origins could rise through the ranks to positions of great authority. His obsession with Westernizing Russia was best demonstrated by his insistence that all Russian men wear Western clothes and shave their beards, imposing heavy taxes on those who refused to comply. His construction of a new capital city, St. Petersburg, provided better access to the West.

Japan: Tokugawa Shogunate

Tokugawa Ieyasu established the **Tokugawa shogunate** in 1600, after a period of civil war that began in 1467. Fighting had broken out among various *daimyos* (warlords) over succession of the *shogun*, the supreme military leader of Japan. Ieyasu hoped to stabilize the country and end the unrest by increasing his control over the *daimyos*. He required that they spend every other year at the capital, Edo (now Tokyo), where he could more easily monitor them and prevent rebellion.

Relationships with the outside world became closely controlled. Japanese were forbidden from going abroad and from constructing large ships. Europeans were expelled from Japan, and foreign merchants were not allowed to trade in Japanese ports—the only exception was a small number of Chinese and Dutch ships. Despite all these restrictions, the Japanese economy grew, as agricultural production increased and the population grew. In this comparatively peaceful era, the samurai warrior class took on more administrative responsibilities.

Christianity had made some important inroads in Japan by 1580, with 150,000 Japanese Christian converts, but the government ended these missions and outlawed the religion. The government even went as far as to torture and execute the missionaries who did not leave, as well as the Japanese Christians who did not renounce their religion. Dutch merchants continued to be the principal source of information about Europe during this time, keeping the Japanese up-to-date with important scientific and technological developments.

SYSTEMS OF FORCED LABOR

High-Yield

Atlantic Slave Trade

The forced migration of over 15 million Africans to the New World was one of the most significant components of the Columbian Exchange. The spread of Islam established new trade routes across the northern part of the African continent, bringing African slaves to the Middle East as well. Slavery had existed in Africa since ancient times; tribes often took prisoners from neighboring tribes and enslaved them. Many African societies did not recognize private land ownership, so land did not equal wealth in the way that owning slaves did.

By the time Europeans ventured into sub-Saharan Africa, the slave trade had been well-established on the continent for 500 years. The Portuguese explored the west coast of Africa in the 1500s and began exporting slaves to plantations in Brazil. The slave trade had become transoceanic, and profits from it encouraged other European powers to enter the business.

By the mid-1600s, thousands of slaves were brought across the ocean each month. This trans-Atlantic journey, known as the Middle Passage, consisted of a four- to six-week trip belowdecks in overcrowded ships. The death toll en route was considerable, with as many as half the enslaved Africans on any one ship dying from disease or brutal mistreatment. Most African slaves were sent to Brazil or sugar plantations in the Caribbean. The **triangular trade** that developed sent European manufactured goods (firearms, in particular) to Africa in exchange for slaves, slaves to the Caribbean and American mainland, and American products back to Europe. Indeed, the Atlantic slave trade and the institution of slavery had an enormous impact on the economies of the Portuguese and Spanish colonies of South America as well as on the Dutch, French, and British colonies of the Caribbean and North America. The labor of enslaved Africans produced huge profits in the extraction of gold and silver from mines, as well as in the production of cash crops such as sugar, cotton, rice, and tobacco.

As more slaves were brought to the coast, African kingdoms reoriented their economies to trade with the Europeans. Some African societies benefited economically from the trade, but several experienced severe population loss and a drastic change in male-female ratio. Also, because many slaves were traded for guns, the addition of firearms led to an increase in violent political conflict in Africa. Though many of the enslaved Africans were Christianized by the Europeans, they retained parts of their language and culture. A unique cultural synthesis occurred, as African music, dress, and mannerisms mixed with Spanish and indigenous cultures in the Americas.

Encomienda System

The early Spanish settlers in the Caribbean needed to recruit a great deal of labor. The *encomienda* system established by the Spanish crown granted colonists the right to demand labor of native peoples in the mines and fields. The laborers were worked hard and punished severely.

Conquistadors like Hernán Cortés and Francisco Pizarro brought this system to the American mainland. On the *haciendas* (large estates), natives were often abused; as a result, Spanish officials replaced the *encomienda* system with the *repartimiento* system. *Repartimiento* compelled native communities to supply labor for Spanish mines and farms as *encomienda* had, but it limited work time and mandated that wages be paid to native workers. Many communities, however, were required to send large groups of laborers to work on state projects. In Peru, for instance, the labor system called *mita* mobilized thousands of natives to work in the silver mines. They were paid wages, but there were also many abuses. The *mita* system had disastrous impacts on the American Indian populations of Peru, as it drained them of able-bodied workers at a time when their communities were experiencing huge population losses due to epidemics of Old World diseases. It also led to American Indians fleeing their communities to avoid being compelled into service. With fewer workers able to work the fields, agricultural production decreased, leading to famine and malnutrition. The demise of these systems led to the establishment of the Atlantic slave trade, and widespread use of slave labor in the Americas.

Russian Serfdom

After the Mongol rule of Russia, many free peasants fell into great debt and were forced to become serfs on large estates; serfs were legally bound to the land they worked, with extensive obligations owed to their landlords. The Russian government encouraged this process beginning in the 1500s as a way to satisfy nobility and regulate peasants at the same time. As new territories were added to the empire, serfdom extended along with it.

In 1649, an act proclaimed that serfs were born into their status, with no mechanism by which they could become free. While serfs were not technically slaves, noble landowners had nearly unlimited control of them.

CULTURAL AND INTELLECTUAL CHANGES

European Renaissance

New ways of thinking about the nature of humanity and the world emerged in the early fifteenth century, beginning on the Italian peninsula. The Crusades brought southern Europe into contact with Arab culture, increasing international contact and trade. Scholars uncovered long-forgotten Roman and Greek literature that had been preserved and studied by Islamic scholars. This intellectual revival became known as the Renaissance, or rebirth, referring to the reemergence of ancient knowledge.

✓ AP Exam Note

Hallmarks of the Renaissance:

- A new view of man as a creative and rational being
- A rediscovery of ancient Greco-Roman knowledge
- Unparalleled accomplishments in literature, music, and art
- A celebration of the human individual

Renaissance Italy was a patchwork of feudal domains, with lands belonging to the Roman Catholic Church, kingdoms, and city-states. Famous noble families such as the Medicis had grown wealthy as merchants, since Italy was ideally located for receiving goods from the Middle East and Asia along Mediterranean trade routes. This lucrative trade with the Islamic and Byzantine cultures allowed wealthy Italians to become patrons of painters, sculptors, and scientists. The period was also a celebration of the Roman past; classical architecture and engineering were reexamined and relearned.

Perhaps the single most important technological and cultural development of the Renaissance was the printing revolution. In 1456, Johann Gutenberg of Germany printed a complete edition of the Bible using the first **printing press** in the West (the Chinese had been using movable type for centuries). This printing revolution brought enormous changes to Europe. Printed books were less expensive and easier to read than copied manuscripts. The increase in the availability of books led to a rapid rise in literacy. European readers gained access to a wide range of knowledge on subjects including medicine, law, mathematics, and philosophy. Along with helping to spread classical knowledge and Renaissance ideas, these new printing presses helped fuel the religious upheaval that Europe experienced during the 1500s.

Protestant Reformation

Just as the Renaissance inspired an era of exploration, it also created an atmosphere that encouraged debate and criticism of the existing order. The most powerful institution of the day was the Catholic Church, headquartered in Rome. It had held great power over kings and peasants alike for centuries, and it had grown large, wealthy, and corrupt. Practices such as selling forgiveness and salvation began to offend even those in the priesthood.

A movement to reform the Church grew out of these concerns. In 1517, in the German domain of Wittenburg, an obscure priest named Martin Luther posted a list of issues that he believed the Church should address. The main issues raised by the **Protestant Reformation** were:

- Divisions within the papacy, in which more than one pope claimed authority
- Religious traditions and rituals that were not derived from the scriptures (such as purgatory, pilgrimages, and worship of the saints)
- Corrupt practices such as the sale of religious relics and indulgences (forgiveness)
- Mismanagement of Church finances
- Lack of piety in the priesthood

Martin Luther and his fellow reformers unleashed a storm of controversy that eventually split the Catholic Church and divided Europe. Luther was excommunicated from the Church but gained the sympathy of German princes who adhered to his version of Christianity. At the time, German lands were divided in hundreds of small kingdoms and ruled by the Holy Roman Emperor, in this case Charles V of Spain, a staunch Catholic. Many of the Northern German princes resented having to support both the Church and a non-German emperor. The German kingdoms became divided into two armed camps, Catholics siding with the Church and Protestants siding with Luther. The resulting

conflict devastated German lands, but ended in a treaty (the Peace of Augsburg, 1555) that enabled each prince to decide which religion—Catholic or Lutheran—would be the religion of his domain. Most states in northern Germany chose Lutheranism, while the south remained largely Catholic.

The Protestant movement spread from central Europe to the Netherlands, Switzerland, France, and Denmark. The English King Henry VIII, once a strong supporter of the Catholic Church, fell away from the Church after a dispute with the pope regarding his marriage. With the help of Parliament he created the Church of England, of which the English monarch became the head.

Enlightenment

Two English political thinkers, Thomas Hobbes and John Locke, lived through the horrors of the English Civil War and came to strikingly different conclusions about human nature and the proper form of government, providing the philosophical foundation for the Enlightenment. Hobbes believed absolute monarchy was needed to keep order, while Locke believed in self-government. According to Locke, people possess natural rights to life, liberty, and property, and government's purpose is to protect these rights. If government fails at this job, Locke reasoned, the people had the right to overthrow it. This notion later inspired revolutionary thought in Europe and the Americas. Enlightenment thinkers were reformers, putting forth ideas like the following:

John Locke (England)

Natural rights of men to life, liberty, and property

Voltaire (France)

Freedom of speech, freedom of religion, separation of church and state

Montesquieu (France)

Separation of powers within government

AP Expert Note

Outcomes of the Protestant Reformation:

- A redrawing of the religious map of Europe, with Protestants in the north and Catholics in the south
- A decline in the power of the Roman Catholic Church
- Further power struggles between the citizenry and monarchs; when radical Protestants in England took over Parliament, civil war erupted and the king was arrested and publicly beheaded
- A series of wars that would pit Catholics and Protestants against each other for the next 200 years

This new emphasis on free thought led to the questioning of traditional authority. Both the Church and the monarchy were challenged, and the political radicalism of the Enlightenment caused great anxiety in the courts of Europe. Though it started in England, the Enlightenment was centered in

Paris, where it reached its peak in the mid-1700s. There, intellectuals called *philosophes* gathered to discuss politics and ideas. The *philosophes* believed that reason (one of their primary areas of interest, along with nature, happiness, progress, and liberty) could be applied to all aspects of life.

As a result of the Roman Catholic mission to China, Jesuits brought back Chinese knowledge to Europe. The Confucian civil service exams influenced European rulers, and the rational morality of Confucianism appealed to Enlightenment philosophers.

Scientific Revolution

The development of modern science and Enlightenment philosophical ideals had a tremendous impact on the development of the modern world and the modern mentality. Prior to 1500, scholars relied mostly on classical texts and the Bible to answer questions about the natural world. The **scientific revolution** began as scientists challenged conventional ideas and used observation to understand the structure and composition of the universe. The Polish cleric and astronomer Nicolaus Copernicus paved the way for modern astronomy when he put forth a heliocentric theory of the universe in 1543, contradicting the Church's belief in an Earth-centered universe. Building on this revolutionary discovery, the Italian scientist Galileo Galilei constructed his own telescope in 1609 and used it to develop new theories about the universe. His findings angered both Catholic and Protestant leaders because they challenged the teachings and authority of the Christian churches. In fact, Galileo was put on trial before the Inquisition and forced to read a signed confession in which he stated that his ideas were false.

The scientific revolution led to the development of the scientific method, a logic-based approach to testing hypotheses through observation and experimentation. Use of the scientific method led to significant advances in the fields of physics, biology, medicine, and chemistry, as well as to the development of the social sciences in the late nineteenth century.

Foundation of Sikhism

In the north of the Indian subcontinent, Guru Nanak (1469–1539) founded Sikhism around the turn of the sixteenth century. Born to Hindu parents of the merchant caste, he is reputed by Sikh tradition to have traveled extensively. Nanak's declaration that "There is no Muslim, and there is no Hindu" captures the essence of Sikhism. An example of syncretism, it bridges Hinduism and Islam, incorporating beliefs from both while maintaining an anti-sectarian stance.

Sikhism would be led by a series of gurus, who would modify its practices. For example, priestesses would be allowed, divorce legalized, and both veils and *sati* banned. Initially a pacifistic faith, it would grow militant in response to violent prosecution under the Mughal empire from the mid-sixteenth century onward, culminating in the founding of the Sikh empire (1799–1849). However, Sikhism would maintain its focus on social justice.

THE ENVIRONMENT

High-Yield

Perhaps the most significant environmental event of this era was the European discovery of the Americas, and the resultant Columbian Exchange of people, goods, and diseases between the New and Old Worlds. Foods like the potato, introduced to Europe from the Americas, had a huge impact on food production and population increases. In the Americas, entire landscapes were stripped to build plantations that grew cash crops like sugarcane, coffee, and tobacco. As mentioned in chapter 3, these agricultural practices degraded the topsoil and reduced vegetative cover, which led to flooding and mudslides.

The raising of cattle and pigs dramatically changed the landscape as forests were cut to provide grazing land. The introduction of feral pigs to the New World may have contributed to the transmission of diseases in the North American regions initially explored by the Spanish. The introduction of horses to the Americas had a significant impact on some American Indian tribes as they adopted more nomadic lifestyles—for example, some tribes used horses to track and hunt the massive bison herds which grazed on the Great Plains.

An early awareness of resource conservation can be seen in the Tokugawa Shogunate's laws which restricted timbering operations and mandated that new trees be planted when old ones were cut, and in Louis XIV's forestry program intended to manage France's timber resources. Although these programs were economically motivated, the idea that a nation's natural resources be managed by the government would play an important role in the development of environmental management programs in the future.

Climatically, the **Little Ice Age**, a multi-century period of cooling in Earth's temperature, dramatically affected human society. Although no consensus has been reached on the precise timing of the Little Ice Age, the period is conventionally considered to have lasted from the sixteenth through the nineteenth centuries. As temperatures fell, growing seasons shortened and some types of crops, particularly grains in the north, failed completely.