

ALT RAFID'S NOTES OF THE MONEY-MAKING CLASS, AND THE INTRODUCTION AND CHAPTER 1 OF EUROPE FROM RENAISSANCE

Disclaimer: This note is not meant as a substitute of the actual book. It is recommended that you go through the text at least once, and use this note as a reference for key information. The authors tried their best to summarize the series of events described in the book. The book itself was written in a manner not coherent with the chronological progression, so please bear with us if the events are difficult to follow linearly.

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MONEY MAKING CLASS

Jacob Fugger (1455-1525), a son of a weaver, settled in southern Germany, Augsburg. At 14, he joined his brothers in trading spices, silks and wools in the Adriatic port of Venice where he learned double entry book keeping. Fugger soon amassed enough wealth to be able to finance the ventures of many kings and princes, he was respected among the nobility as well as the religious authorities. The family history of Fugger coincides with state making in Europe. In 1519 the Fuggers helped Charles V become holy roman emperor by providing money to bribe the princes. Their economic position helped them force imperial foreign policy, facilitate the consolidation of territorial states, and emerge a dynamic economy spanning the German states, northwestern Europe and the Mediterranean region.

The growth of trade and manufacturing changed the face of Europe. In the 15th century, Europe was going through rebirth and revitalization. In Italy, the Renaissance was still in bloom, the establishment of trade routes across the Alps into northern Europe increased exchange of ideas and a growing interconnectedness among European states.

In the mid-14th century Europe lost one third of its population to the black plague. In the late 15th and early 16th century, Europe was a population boom (70 mil in 1500 to 90 mil in 1600). This expanding population revived commerce especially in England Northwestern Europe where the Fuggers operated.

Gunpowder was discovered in china and adopted by Europeans in the 14th century, made warfare deadly and the armed knight obsolete. The printing press pioneered cultural revolution by increasing learning and availability of information. Compass (11th or 12th century) helped European explorers navigate the ocean. And lastly Spanish and Portuguese conquerors established transoceanic colonies.

France and England emerged as sovereign states. Fragmented Europe looked to consolidate and unify under national sovereigns. The hierarchical social structure still existed. But the peasants still grew under small scale textile manufacturing and distant trade during the 12th and 13th century.

INTRODUCTION

Basic Factors in Early Modern History

No clear consensus on when modern age began. Opinions include:

- Turks capturing Constantinople in 1453
- Discovery of America by Columbus in 1492
- Protestant reformation in early 16th century
- Definitely by the middle of the 15th century
- Most historians say end of 15th century

Changes in ages are not discrete but continuous.

So, it is better to introduce the modern era with a series of movements. All of which were matured by second half of 15th century.

In this time eastern empire expired at the hands of the Turks. The roman empire survived till the 19th century, but as a weak political entity.

Medieval feudalism also declined. Feudal standards remained in society, but the military influence of homage and fealty was undermined by mercenary armies and advanced technologies.

Loyalties shifted from the lord, to the sovereign nationalism. Introduction of money payments changed the compensation structure of labor and allowed tenant farmers and peasant proprietors.

The craft guild also suffered (13th century). Capitalist merchants and manufacturers slowly took control of trade and the craft guild suffered due to their rigidity.

By the middle of the 14th century, The Roman Catholic Church started to lose its spiritual influence and cosmopolitan character. The rising states in the 14th and 15th century contributed to this. Furthermore, the Papacy, transferring the Holy See to Avignon in 1309, broke the spell of the name of Rome as a symbol of global power.

The Great Schism (1378-1417) ruined the prestige of the papacy due to the fight of the first 3 popes for the allegiance of the faithful. The Council of Constance (1414-1418) ended the fight, but didn't succeed to rid the church of evil by the 15th century.

Scholasticism became dull and sterile.

Orthodox medieval social hierarchy was Clergy > Nobility > Estate

The middle class developed when the power of the clergy and nobility declined and peasantry and small artisans flourished. The French called them “bourgeoisie”. The middle class had a distinct set of ideals and a way of life.

The middle class included the money-making class which took advantage of the crusades. These included peasants who were risen, it was reinforced by the titled nobility, except for Germany and Spain where nobility considered it dishonorable to take part in trade.

The middle class drove the economic expansion, as well as produce literatures and scientists. Later on, the middle class gained more political influence. The middle class moved the world from the middle ages to the modern age.

The main political sphere which distinguished the middle ages and the modern age, was the rise of the national state. The nation state conquered most of the unity of Christendom. The nation states were ruled by monarchs, nobles lost influence. Dynastic rivalries developed. “Balance of Power” was restored by coalitions when one state gained too much influence.

The period of international rivalries and coalitions is generally dated from the expedition of Charles VIII of France into Italy in 1494. When the French king annexed Naples, he was met with a coalition. This period was filled with wars involving more than two powers.

The economic factor which led to the modern age was the expansion of commerce. Commerce started to become global. Two events caused commercial expansion:

- Finding of an all-water route to the East
- Discovery of the new world

Other factors included,

- Change of the center of trade from the Mediterranean to the Atlantic
- Foundation of oversea colonies
- Naval power
- Capitalism

- Foreign trade

Secularism developed based on the works of Greek and Roman philosophers and literature. Secular thinking, and scientific reasoning developed slowly during this period. Experimental science began in the 17th century.

Anticlerical movements against the church in the 14th and 15th century lessened the grip of religion. Familiar examples of such anticlerical literature are Boccaccio's *Decameron* and Chaucer's *Canterbury Tales*.

There were also a number of anticlerical movements, of which the Wycliffite in England and the Hussite movement in Bohemia are the most outstanding. The parliament in England lessened the papal authority. In the sixteenth century this anticlerical sentiment was to culminate in a revolt against the Church, and the establishment of the Protestant churches.

All of these factors which ushered in the modern period may be grouped under six headings

1. The rise of the national state
2. The intensification of the secular spirit
3. The expansion of Europe into America and Asia
4. The rise of modern capitalism
5. The founding of the Protestant churches
6. The rise of modern science

In all these movements an element of major importance was the rise of the middle class.

CHAPTER ONE

The Rise of National States

Deals primarily with the national state. In ancient times, city states were more common, overtaken by the concept of world-state represented by the Roman Empire. This universality was preserved in the middle ages by the two following parties:

Roman Catholic Church	Holy Roman Empire
Headed by the Pope	Ruled by the Emperor
Rivaled by the Greek Catholic Church	Rivaled by the Eastern Empire after barbarians cut the empire in half
Clung to universality because: Refused to merge with another church	Clung to universality because: of the claim to the old imperial traditions of ancient Rome

Theoretically the whole of Christendom was regarded as one unit ruled jointly by the pope and the emperor.

The oneness of Christendom not only influenced politics, but also permeated into culture and civilization. Learning was sponsored by the church, and through this the universality of Christendom are solidified. Notable works of Latin Christendom include Peter Lombard's *Book of Sentences* and the *Summa Theologica* of Thomas Aquinas.

Social division in Europe was horizontal (between classes) rather than vertical (between national groups) [This basically means peasants = shit | nobles = fancy, regardless of which country].

Knighthood and the associated code of honor and fancy ceremonies were observed throughout western Europe. The spiritual unity of Europe was seen in the similarity of the gild systems. National sentiments had not yet taken deep roots.

After the collapse of the central government in the early Middle Ages. Europe was divided into a large number of small political units, the inhabitants of which were moved chiefly by purely local considerations. Each of these units had their own laws, and operated in the way sovereign nations act today (imposing import and export tariffs, the responsibility of the people's

protection, having its own treasury). Men either lived under a principedom, feudal state or a commune.

In the later middle ages, the theoretical unity of Christendom was being undermined by the rising power of National States. The King became the focus of wealth, power and authority. The king conquered feudal states and added them to his territory. The king and his bureaucracy absorbed the political power which got dispersed in the early middle ages. More changes included:

Area of Power	Early Middle Ages	Late Middle Ages
Administration of Justice	Feudal Barons	The national government under the King
Regulation of Trade	Chartered towns or guilds	The national government under the King
Military Protection	Local Feudal Lord	The national government under the King
Collection of Taxes	Went up the hierarchy from peasant to noble to clergy	Went from the people directly to the royal treasury (sometimes restricted by the parliament in England)

The unifying Monarch provided stability to the realm. This security allowed the middle class to securely amass wealth. Thus, the landed property of Noble Lords were not the only sources of wealth. Rather accumulation of capital through trade and money economy became prevalent. The king grew more powerful with the support of the middle class, this contributed to the diminishing power of feudal nobilities. This flow of money from the middle class, in support of the ruling monarch, allowed the king to free himself from the dependence on Feudal Lords (for military and administrative support), and finance his own army and royal administration.

Another factor that gave the monarchs power by taking it away from the Feudal Knights, was gunpowder and its use in warfare. [Roger Bacon (1214-1294) is falsely regarded as inventing gunpowder]

In the 12th century, it was used in China for pyrotechnics. In the 13th century it was known as “Greek Fire” and used to ignite wooden buildings and fortifications. But in the 14th century, it was used to hurl projectiles from metal cannons. Ranged artillery allowed the monarchs to easily defeat the previously undefeatable mounted knights and the previously indestructible castles easily came crumbling down under the cannon shot.

The unification under a monarch was also followed by national feeling becoming more intense. During the Crusade, language differences were used to create conflict. During the 14th and 15th century this feeling grew stronger. The hundred-year war (1337-1453) excited the national feeling among the English and the French.

The 16th century saw the beginning of international wars. This caused countries to change the way they handled diplomacy. Ambassadors would now be stationed in foreign countries, giving birth to the modern diplomacy we see today. As international relations became more formalized, new international laws came into existence.

Within a given population national feeling led to the fostering of national customs, tastes, traditions, beliefs, and pastimes. Poets exalted patriotism as a supreme virtue. Vernacular languages replaced literary languages like Latin. In Italy the Florentine dialect, in England Saxon or Old English, in France the Langue d'Oïl of northern France, in Spain the Castilian dialect, and in Germany the dialect of Saxony, finally outstripped the other local or native dialects for the honor of becoming the national literary language. Writers wrote masterpieces in all the national languages of Europe. Thus, creating separate national cultures.

The national idea was becoming more and more accepted throughout Europe, so much so that the Catholic Church's Council of Constance (1414-1418) adopted a method of voting by nations instead of by individuals.

Spain, Portugal, France and England pretty much united by the 16th century. Italy and Germany had to wait till 19th century for that same kind of unity.

SPAIN AND PORTUGAL

One of the new monarchies of at the end of 15th century was Spain.

Prior to 15th century, the history of Spain was a struggle between Christians and Muslims.

In 711 AD the first Muslim ruler Tarik conquered parts of Spain. In successive years Muslims conquered most of Spain, but the Christians still had dominion in the northern frontier.

Several centuries later the Moorish strength declined and Christianity started spreading to the south.

The Christian rulers spread their ideology by the sword, in subsequent centuries they expanded in most of Spain, leaving *Granada* as the only Muslim kingdom by the 13th century.

It was at this time that various Christian states consolidated under the unified Spain:

1. Castile: Two Thirds of the Land mass (the west, northwest and central portions)
2. Aragon: Northeast and east, extending to Pyrenees in the south.
3. Portugal: Less than One Fifth of the land mass, along the western coast.
4. Navarre: A small mountain kingdom, north and south of the Pyrenees (Controlled by France)

A decisive step toward the political unification of Spain was the marriage in 1469 of Isabella, heiress to the crown of Castile, and Ferdinand, heir to the crown of Aragon. Even though the marriage agreement preserved the sovereignty of the kingdoms, it provided a common policy of foreign affairs in Europe, other powers treated them as united.

The internal policy of the newly founded Spain was to centralize all political authority and to unite their dominion under Christendom. The incompetence of Henry IV had left Castile in political confusion. Feudal lords began exercising sovereign authority, extorting the people. The peasants also took advantage of the chaos and took to looting and pillaging. The reduced power of the central government destabilized the currency (hyperinflation). [It is said only 150 mint coins remained in the royal treasury when Isabella ascended]

Isabella and Ferdinand revived an organization that existed in Castile in the 13th century known as *La Santa Hermandad* (Holy Brotherhood). This organization used to be interested in the

expansion of trade and commerce, but was not being used as a standing army and police force. Later, such an organization was established in Aragon as well. They operated for two decades until law and order were finally established.

The next step of unification was to reduce the power of the nobles. The steps taken were:

- Revocation of extravagant pensions and land grants
- Taxes diverted to the royal treasury
- Castles resisting the royal power were demolished
- Administrative power stripped from some nobles and given to the middle class

To help the crown exercise its administration, legislature and justice, Cortes were appointed from the representatives of the local populous. But they had no legislative power, they could only vote taxes and approve subsidies requested by the crown. The expansion increased the royal revenue by thirty-fold during the three decades after 1474, so Cortes were rarely called to court.

Ferdinand and Isabella also did much for trade and industry. Adulterated coins were replaced with standardized royal mints. Development of infrastructure and reduction of tariffs helped commerce. Between 1477 and 1482, the royal revenue increased nearly sixfold.

After the discovery of America during their reign, Ferdinand and Isabella established mercantilism, which regulated industry, trade and agriculture. Other notable acts include:

- Law against exportation of specie
- Limit trade from colony to center
- Build a strong navy
- Tariff on foreign goods
- Discourage industry in colonies to strengthen industry in Spain

Ferdinand and Isabella were also firm in religious and political matters. Some notable events include:

- They declared themselves champions of the catholic faith, with respect to the title of “The Catholic Sovereigns” bestowed upon them by Pope Alexander VI.
- However, they undermined the Catholic Church’s power and used them as a puppet.

- They focused on purifying “the blood of the state” by getting rid of heresy and converting non-believers to Christianity.

Another notable event was the defeat of the Moors, after 10 years of war, in 1492. The Moors were the only Muslim power left in the region (they ruled the kingdom of Granada). The territory was rich, so Spain didn't leave them alone. It was considered as a counterbalance to losing Constantinople to the Turks in 1453. Even though the diplomatic treaty formally allowed the Muslims to keep their faith. In practice the situation was much different. In 1502 a royal decree ordered all Muslims of Castile to either convert, or to leave the country. The Muslims that did convert, were still not left alone, and had to face trials of the Inquisition, as their conversion was deemed insincere. In Aragon the Moors lived for another century.

The expulsion of Jews was an agenda of Ferdinand and Isabella to achieve religious unity. The disdain against the Jews were not only for personal reasons, but also economic reasons. The Jews were denounced for practicing usury and tax-farming. In 1391 the hostility reached the point of violence in Castile. Thousands of Jewish homes were pillaged and the citizens forced to convert to Christianity. These forceful converts were known as Conversos, Neo-Christians, or Maranos. These Maranos were Christian in outward appearances, but secretly observed Jewish customs.

In 1478, a group of Dominican friars in the royal court of Seville got permission from Pope Sixtus IV to establish the Inquisition. Ferdinand gave his consent after being persuaded of the Inquisition's power to abolish heresy, also Ferdinand was interested in confiscating (two-thirds) the wealth of the Maranos, which were convicted of Heresy. Isabella knew the inquisition would be hostile towards much of her people, but she too gave her consent after much pressure. Thus in 1480, the Spanish Inquisition began its all-out attack against the Maranos. They were so brutal that the pope wrote a letter to Isabella in February 23, 1483 saying that the zeal against the Maranos was motivated "by ambition and greed for earthly possessions" rather than by zeal for the faith.

Despite the Inquisition's many attempts to persuade the sovereign for decisive actions. They were halted by the conquest of Granada. After the successful conquest, in March of 1492, the formal order was given for the Jews to either leave the kingdom, or to convert. Spain had lost, perhaps its most industrious citizens.

In foreign affairs, Ferdinand aimed to make Spain the dominant power in Europe. He had taken such unscrupulous means that Machiavelli used him as an example of Hypocrisy. When Louis XII of France accused Ferdinand of having deceived him twice, the latter retorted, "The drunkard! He lies! I have cheated him more than ten times." Since France was a big threat to Spain, Ferdinand took the following actions to undermine France:

- Used his skills in diplomacy to isolate France from other European powers.
- When Charles VIII was embarking on the expedition to Italy, Ferdinand promised not to ally with French enemies, and not to enter marriages with ruling houses of Austria, England or Naples.
- When Charles took Naples, Ferdinand immediately entered into an alliance with the pope, the emperor, Venice, and Milan which forced the French king to cease his conquest.
- In a secret meeting Charles and Ferdinand agreed to share Naples.
- After Louis XII ascended in 1498, war broke out for Naples, ultimately Ferdinand took control of whole of Naples.
- The agreement not to enter in marriages was also violated as early as 1496, when Juana, daughter of the Catholic Sovereigns, was betrothed to Philip the Fair, son of Emperor Maximilian. Another alliance with England was made where, Catherine of Aragon was betrothed to Henry, son of Henry VII who later became Henry VIII, King of England.

After Isabella's death in 1504, all states of the Iberian Peninsula (Except Portugal) came under the rule of Ferdinand. Isabella's will was to leave her daughter Juana as her successor, but Juana's mental health deterioration allowed Ferdinand to assume the rule. This rule was contested by Philip until his death in 1506, which left Ferdinand as the sole regent. Ferdinand took advantage of the difficulties faced by Louis XII of France, who was the ally and protector of the King of Navarre. Ferdinand overran part of Navarre south of the Pyrenees. Thus all of the Iberian Peninsula (Except Portugal) was ruled by Ferdinand until his death in 1516.

The history of Portugal:

- Begins in 1095 after Alphonso VI, King of Leon, granted Count Henry of Lorraine, western parts of Oporto. Initially held as a fief of Leon.

- In the middle of the 12th century, after successive counts of Portuguese rulers demanding separation from Leon and Castile, it was recognized as a separate kingdom by both the King of Leon and also the Pope.
- Numerous conflicts in the Iberian Peninsula solidified the national identity in Portugal.
- In the 15th century the Portuguese turned to the seas. Sea captains sent out by Prince Henry, the son of John I (1385- 1433), began that exploration of the west coast of Africa which finally resulted in the discovery of the Cape route to the East and the establishment of the Portuguese Empire.
- The Portuguese also followed Spain in setting up Inquisitions against Jews and Moriscos.

FRANCE

At the end of the 15th century, France was the most important national state of Europe, next to Spain. Throughout the centuries, the Kings were able to absorb most of the feudal states that existed in the region.

During the 100-year war (1337-1453), England threatened to conquer all of France. However, the French rallied behind Joan of Arc and drove out the English from all territories except Calais. The foreign invasion and struggle of the French people awoken the sense of nationality and unity in the French. This sentiment found its core in Charles VII, who used the sentiment of the people to increase his own power. To finance his royal army, he introduced a new tax in 1439 called *tallie* which was only meant as a special war time tax, but existed after the war ended in 1453 up to the French revolution. With the financial power gained by this tax, Charles' son Louis XI reared the structure of absolute monarchy.

Louis XI (1461-1483), a leader with considerable practical sagacity, great tenacity of purpose and a flair for intrigue, was so hasty in his unification attempts that he was hailed as "the founder of the national state in France". He was successful in uniting the feudal states under one central administration. The feudal lords, trying to preserve their ancient powers, rallied against Louis. Almost all the powerful houses joined the rebellious league. But the king's support from the bourgeoisie and the lesser gentry allowed him to break up the league.

Charles the Bold was a vassal and a formidable antagonist of Louis XI, who held the duchy of Burgundy, Franche-Comte (the county of Burgundy), Flanders, Artois, Picardy, and the Netherlands. Charles intended to establish a “middle kingdom” between France and the Holy Roman Empire. However, during his conflict with the Spain he was killed in 1477. Louis XI took advantage of the inexperienced female heir Mary, and seized Burgundy, Picardy, and Artois. Louis in his lifetime further added Roussillon, Provence, Anjou, and Maine. The remaining of the feudal houses were united by his son Charles VIII, through marriage to the heiress of Brittany.

Louis XI was the most decisive ruler of France, forcing all of the feudal houses to submit under him. Some other sources of his powers were:

- Support from the middle class who he raised to important state positions.
- Encourage trade and manufacturing
- Built galleys to facilitate export of spices, silks and other Levantine products.
- Improved harbors and river channels.

Louis XI “the bourgeois” he favored the middle class at the expense of the artisans and peasantry. His tax burdens and bribes made the people blame him for all their woes. His death in 1483 was celebrated.

Louis XI laid the foundation of French unity. But the Feudal lords were waiting for any opportunity to seize back the power. The people of the kingdom might call themselves Frenchmen, but most often they were Normans, Bretons, or Provençals first. Each province had its local customs, manners, laws, and traditions even its particular dialect. Centuries were to pass before these local differences were merged in national institutions and customs, and then not entirely.

After Charles VIII (1483-1498) ascended the throne, his main aim was to solidify the hold of the royal court. His first target was Naples. After collecting a large army, Charles crossed the Alps into Italy in 1494. He easily overpowered the unprepared Italians and was greeted as a world conqueror by the people of Naples. His next plans were to:

1. Crossing to Greece
2. Driving Turks out of Constantinople

3. Recovering the Holy Sepulcher

He received a rude awakening, learning that the League of Venice (1495, consisting of The Pope, Milan and Venice), Spain and the Holy Roman Empire had joined up against him, alarmed by his speedy conquest of Naples.

Worried about his exposed communications line, Charles quickly returned to France, but he was met with heavy resistance by the league along his journey. Moreover, Naples was quickly taken back by the house of Aragon, and Charles's viceroy along with half of Charles's army was driven away. A contemporary writer described Charles's Italian expedition as nothing but "glory and smoke."

ENGLAND

William the Conqueror (1066-1087) had strongly asserted the royal authority in England and the political centralization was carried out further by his descendants. In fact, England was much more unified compared to France and Spain at the end of the 15th century. The unification of England was easy because it was never a part of the Holy Roman Empire. Furthermore, the geography was favorable, and petty squabbles were curbed by the time of the Norman Conquests. During the 14th century, the circumstances demanded a unified England. When Henry VII (1485-1509), the first Tudor sovereign, became King, England was thoroughly sick of internal strife.

Soon after the French were driven out during the hundred-year war, civil war broke out between the house of York (badge: white rose) and the house of Lancaster (badge: red rose), rival claimants of the throne. The series of conflicts was known as the Wars of the Roses. Henry Tudor, earl of Richmond, put an end to the struggle at the battle of Bosworth, in which Richard III lost his life.

Henry, hailed as a hero after his decisive victory in Bosworth, was publicly crowned at Westminster. He had weak blood claim, being a remote descendent of the Lancastrian house. Even though the Lancasters were hailed as usurpers by the two heirs of the Yorkist line, Henry called parliament and told them that he "had come to the throne by the just title of inheritance

and by the judgment of God who had given him victory." The parliament, despite the false claim proclaimed him the ruler. Henry solidified his position by marrying Elizabeth, heiress of the house of York. This united the rival powers except for the most violent Yorkists. Ultimately, the support of the people that Henry had, due to the security and order that the crown provided, was the main power behind his rule being solidified.

Henry VII (29 yo at the time of ascension) had many qualities that made him well suited for unifying England:

- Keeness of intelligence
- Calm and self-possessed
- Not swayed by passion
- Relentless

The wars not only affected trade, but also destabilized the order of law in England. The royal treasury was empty and the royal jewels were pawned, the crown had little authority. There was no regard for the law of the land, and rich nobles bribed juries, and outlaws roamed the land. Parliament enacted laws against the evils, but the lack of royal authority saw much of the laws remain without implementation.

Henry VII was not dissuaded in his duty to provide security for the people. In order to establish order from two parties:

- a) The lesser nobility: Who were not part of the civil war and looked to quietly cultivate its estates.
- b) The middle class: wished to make the most of its opportunities for commercial expansion.

The middle class provided the main support for Henry VII, while the main opposition was the ranks of the Barons. The war of the roses weakened the nobility, but they still had to be kept in check in order for Henry VII to establish absolute monarchy. The nobles still had the support of their loyal vassals, who could together challenge the King's authority and destabilize the nation.

Henry's main quest was not to enact new laws, but to enforce the old. The royal courts had lost their authority, making it necessary for Henry VII to establish a special committee of the King's council by the act of 1487, which had powers of the entire council. This committee was

temporary, but the council itself dealt with high ranking criminals who would otherwise escape the King's justice. This council came to be known as Known as the Court of Star Chamber, its special characteristic was that it was not bound by common law procedure, and could therefore, act with greater speed and efficiency. They were allowed to torture to get evidence, but couldn't sentence the death penalty. This court was successful in Henry's time, but was deemed abusive and was abolished in 1611 by the Stuarts.

Henry VII was also concerned about the interest of the commercial class, since that was the principal source of the crown's revenue. He had a twofold aim:

1. To open new markets for English woolen cloth: Achieved by the treaty in 1496, known as the Intercursus Magnus. This gave favorable conditions to English merchants, by allowing them to trade in the main market of English wool in the Low Countries. He also enacted treaties with
 - a) Denmark: allowing him to trade in Denmark and Norway.
 - b) Venice: allowing him to trade in southern Europe and secure a share in the Mediterranean trade.
2. To keep the trade in the hands of the English merchants: passed the Navigation Acts restricting the importation of certain goods to English ships.

While the merchants prospered, the peasants suffered. The steady demand for wool, encouraged landlords to farm sheep, which required less labor than agriculture. This decreased the demand for labor and also many lords evicted existing tenants to make room for more sheep farms. The lords furthermore claimed the common pasture land and put "enclosures" around them to prevent the sheep from escaping. This drove out the peasant class who sold their property at a fraction of the value and moved to the cities in hope of employment. But most were driven into poverty. The smoldering resentment of the peasants was to burst forth during the Tudor period in a series of rebellions which were harshly repressed by the government.

Another one of Henry's agenda was to fill the royal treasury. He was strict in collecting his dues. The income from taxes was barely enough to meet the expenses, so the parliament had to be called for additional subsidies. Henry deemed that such a call to the parliament would undermine the King's authority. So, he looked for other sources of income. Since, he knew he would lose the favor of the people if he increased taxes. Henry started drawing heavily from the Nobility

and the wealthy merchants. He spared no excuses in collecting forced loans from the nobles [jara lavishly thake its clear they have wealth abundance, jara frugally thake it means they saved a lot]. He even made the most of foreign relations to add to his accumulation of wealth. In 1489, for example, when Parliament granted him a subsidy for war against France, he not only pocketed it but procured a money indemnity from the French as a condition of peace. Thus, he managed to fill the royal coffers to overflowing. No previous king of England had possessed so much wealth as he held at the time of his death.

Henry's next agenda was to secure marriage alliances:

1. In 1502, marriage of Henry's daughter Margaret to James IV of Scotland. A century later, a descendent of this marriage would become the King of England, followed by the Union of Scotland and England.
2. In 1501, marriage of Henry's eldest son Arthur to Catherine of Aragon, second daughter of Ferdinand and Isabella. This marriage joined the Tudor dynasty to the royal house of Spain. Arthur, a teen of fifteen would suffer an early death six months after his marriage.

Henry wanted to preserve the Anglo-Spanish allowance, and did not want to return the dowry Catherine brought, so he bid his second son also named Henry, to marry Catherine. Since it was contrary to canon law for a man to wed his brother's widow, a special dispensation was obtained from the pope. This marriage, concluded in 1509, was later to become the immediate cause for the break with the Church of Rome and the establishment of the Church of England.

Henry VII died in 1509 at 53 yo. He was a selfish ruler, but he was a great benefit for his people. He had terminated a century of dynastic strife and after a prolonged struggle restored order, security, and public confidence. The years of peace he brought to England allowed the country to develop and its commerce to expand. At his death he left to his son the example of a successful despotism, an undisputed succession, and a full treasury.

GERMANY

The advance towards national unity which marked the development of Spain, Portugal, France and England had no counterpart in the fortunes of Germany. The tendency at Germany leaned towards disunion. This was largely due to the German kingdom's association with the Holy Roman Empire.

By the 15th century, the Holy Roman Empire was practically synonymous to Germany. However, the Emperors still clung to the idea of universal sovereignty. Emperor Frederick III (1440-1493) wrote AEIOU (*Alles Erdreich ist Oesterreich untertan* or Austria's empire is over the universe) on his family banner.

This left Germany divided into more than 300 sovereignties, varying from small city-states to large states such as duchy of Saxony and the kingdom of Bohemia.

The Empire lost a lot of territory to national states by the 15th century and the successive Emperors renounced much of their authority in the lands they still possessed. Instead of focusing on Germany, the early Habsburg Emperors focused on enforcing their authority in Italy. While they were focused wars in Italy, German princes seized this opportunity to strengthen their own positions. Gradually, a group of princes became so powerful they usurped the power of all the great nobles to elect an Emperor.

Disputes continued between the princes regarding rights to vote until in 1356, Charles IV issued the Golden Bull (named after the imperial seal attached to the document) which regulated the mode of imperial election.

- Only 7 fixed electors can vote
 - Archbishops of Trier (Treves), Mainz, and Cologne
 - The king of Bohemia
 - The duke of Saxony
 - The margrave of Brandenburg
 - The count palatine of the Rhine
- On the death of an emperor, the archbishop of Mainz will summon the others to Frankfurt to choose a new sovereign
- Only a majority, not unanimous vote, was required to elect a valid candidate

The electors resisted every attempt to make the imperial office hereditary. To obtain their support, candidates were forced to concede powers in advance or promise lands and favors. The elective character of the imperial dignity was the main cause for the decline of the emperor's power.

The emperor's power was further limited by the Reichstag or diet, composed of feudal vassals. The diet was divided into 3 separate houses: electors, princes (both lay and ecclesiastical), and representatives of the Free Imperial Cities (these cities didn't secure rights to appear in diets until 1489).

Most of the diet were interested in only securing advantages for their respective states and were indifferent to the interests of Germany as a whole. They knew that if the emperor's power grew, their own would decrease so they offered strong opposition to any new pretensions on the part of the emperor. The Emperor relied on income from his own estates and taxes authorized by the diet. These taxes were seldom voted or collected so the Emperor was often in financial straits.

To summarize, rulers of most states were becoming powerful but the Emperor was becoming weaker as his power principally derived from his personal holdings.

At the end of the 15th century, the holdings of the Habsburgs –who had occupied the imperial throne since the election in 1273 of Rudolph, the 1st emperor of the house- consisted of the archduchy of Austria and several other provinces near that state (Styria, Carinthia and the Tyrol).

Shortly after the succession of Maximilian I (1493-1519) a number of princes under the leadership of Berthold, archbishop of Mainz, proposed measures to improve the machinery of the government. These proposals were designed to draw German states into closer unity on the basis of federative organization. Maximilian conceded to these demands at the Diet of Worms in 1495 because he needed men and money to fight the French and the Turks. The proposal:

- End all interminable feuds which had devastated Germany for centuries, by proclaiming a perpetual national peace (*Land-frieden*)
- Disputes were to be referred to an imperial court of justice (*Reichskammergericht*), composed of 16 members appointed by the states, and a president chosen by the Emperor
- Annual meetings of the diet to make certain that their decrees would be carried out

- Imperial tax known as the common penny was imposed to provide the Emperor with funds for maintaining the new court
- The diet of 1512 divided the empire into 10 districts for better administration. Each district was put under a judicial chief and a board of councilors who were to oversee the carrying out of the decrees of the diet and judgments of the court

These reforms accomplished little. States were unwilling to limit their independence for the common good. There was no force to compel the states to submit to the jurisdiction, decisions and decrees passed by the imperial court. The common penny couldn't be collected. The divided districts didn't function as administrative units. Because of these inadequate measures, the disunion of Germany continued for centuries to come.

Though Germany as a whole made no progress towards national unity, a feeling of nationality was developing in the Swiss cantons –a part of the Holy Roman Empire. In 1291, the 3 Forest Cantons –Uri, Schwyz, and Unterwalden- had allied themselves in a league for mutual defense. After the 3 cantons defeated the army of the Habsburg prince in the battle of Morgarten (1315), the league was renewed during the next half-century by admission of neighboring lands and cities. The cities that joined: Lucerne (1332), Zurich (1351), Bern (1353). Thus, foundations were laid for the republic of Switzerland. Each canton managed its internal affairs but had a diet to represent the confederation as a whole.

By a series of victories in the 14th century, the Swiss succeeded in forcing the Habsburgs to renounce their feudal claims but the cantons were still a part of and bound by the laws of the Empire. In 1495, the Swiss confederation refused to pay the common penny and refused to acknowledge the imperial court.

So Maximilian I declared war against the Swiss in 1498. But his army was defeated due to half-hearted support from the princes and was obliged to assent to the treaty of Basel and make the Swiss cantons practically independent, except in name until 1648.

Maximilian I failed to unite the papacy and the emperorship in his own person, establish a permanent imperial army and expedite against the Turks. However, he managed to increase the personal fortunes of the Habsburgs. He married Mary of Burgundy and added Burgundy to his

personal possessions. His son Philip's marriage to Juana –daughter of Ferdinand and Isabella– laid the foundations for the extensive empire of his grandson, Charles V.

ITALY

Like Germany, Italy wasn't unified until the second half of the 19th century. During the beginning of the modern period, it was a mosaic of independent states and widely different governments.

The larger states attempted to take as much territory as possible while preventing others from doing the same, so some states were always at war with each other. For wars, they used professional soldiers under the command of *condottieri* or free captains who were ready to hire out their services on any occasion to the highest bidder. Mercenaries kept wars from being too bloody but Italy was in a constant state of turmoil. If a state felt too weak, they called upon the King of France or Spain, or the Emperor of Germany. This made Italy the cockpit of Europe in the first half of 16th century, and also by subjection of the larger part of the peninsula to European powers. By the middle of the century, only Venice, the Papal states, and the duchy of Savoy retained a certain measure of independence.

The 5 larger states of Italy at the end of the 15th century were:

1. The kingdom of Naples:

Comprised of the southernmost parts of Italy and at times included Sicily. Until they were separated by the "Sicilian Vespers" in 1282, Naples and Sicily were one kingdom. So, for more than 150 years, Sicily was ruled by the Spanish house of Aragon, while Naples remained under the French house of Anjou.

In 1435, both were joined under Alphonso V of the Aragon line, who was also ruler of Aragon and Sardinia. As he left no legitimate heirs, Aragon, Sicily and Sardinia passed to his brother John II, but Naples was given to his natural son Ferdinand, better known as Ferrante I.

During the reign of Ferrante II, grandson of Ferrante I, Charles VIII of France renewed the old claims of the house of Anjou to Naples (1494). Dissatisfied with their Aragonese rulers, the people of Naples received the French king enthusiastically. But after the departure of Charles

VIII for France a few months later, the Aragonese line again resumed its sway in Naples. This state was far behind the northern Italian states in civilization and culture.

2. The Papal States or States of the Church:

Located in the central part of Italy. Other than Rome and its surrounding districts, it also includes March of Ancona and the whole of Romagna. The power of the pontiff over these states greatly reduced during the residence of the popes at Avignon (1305-1377) and the Great Schism (1378-1417). But Martin V reestablish papal sovereignty after his election in 1417. Everyone who wanted national sovereignty met opposition since unification of Italy under a secular head was a threat to the sovereign pontiff's temporal power.

3. The duchy of Milan:

Located in northwestern Italy. Originally part of the Lombard communes, Milan greatly extended its dominion under the rule of Visconti. In 1395, Milan was recognized by the emperor as a duchy. When the house of Visconti became extinct in 1447, efforts were made to establish a republican government. The republic failed at the end of 3 years and Francesco Sforza –the great condottiere- made himself duke of Milan. Sforza's ruled Milan for two generations after Francesco's death in 1466, promoting agriculture, commerce and education.

4. Venice:

Located in northeastern Italy. Nominally a republic, Venice was actually ruled by a close oligarchy. The doge –formerly elected by the people as a whole- was chosen after the 13th century by the Great Council, membership in which was limited to families previously represented in it. The council curtailed the powers of the doge until he was little more than a figurehead.

Trade was the principal occupation of the Venetians. As a result of the Crusades –particularly the fourth in 1204- Venice had gained important possessions in the East which greatly increased its trade and its wealth. It crushed the sea power of Genoa –its trade rival- in the 14th century and held preeminent position among the states trading with the Levant. But their sphere of trade gradually narrowed as the Ottoman Turks advanced. To make up for the losses, Venetians began to extend their dominion in Italy itself. They acquired extensive mainland possessions by the

middle of the 15th century. When the Turks captured Constantinople, they took most of the territories the Venetians held in that vicinity. The discovery of a new route to India around the Cape of Good Hope in the late 15th century was an even bigger disaster. Shifting of trade highways completed the ruin of Venetian prosperity.

5. The republic of Florence:

Includes a large and prosperous area of Tuscany centering in the city of Florence, which exercised a governing authority over the territory. In 1434, Cosimo de Medici –a member of the wealthy banking family- became ruler of Florence and to make his ascendancy a hereditary possession of the family. After his death in 1464, he was succeeded by his son Piero (1416-1469), who was followed by his son Lorenzo the Magnificent (1448-1492).

By carefully preserving the forms of republican government, the house of Medici was able to found a party which gave effectual control of the city to Medici rulers for nearly 200 years. Both Cosimo and Lorenzo used much of their wealth to foster art and learning. The preeminence of Florence in learning and art during the Renaissance was due to their munificence.

Florence produced political thinkers such as Niccolo Machiavelli (1469-1527). Written in 1513, *The Prince*, is the most widely read and influential political pamphlets of all time. It expounds the dogma of the non-moral state, defending the use of force and fraud as proper instruments of statecraft. Other before him had defended terrorism and treachery as political instruments, but Machiavelli was the first to expound this method in detail. He has been styled as “the founder of modern political science” and “an apostle of duplicity and diabolic cunning”. Today, *Machiavellism* signifies a policy of expediency which subordinates every human and moral consideration to political needs of the hour.

“A prince cannot do all the things for which men are esteemed good, for, in order to maintain the state, he is often obliged to act contrary to humanity, contrary to charity, contrary to religion.: Because of statement like this, both Roman Catholics and Protestants have denounced The Prince as subversive of morals and religion. Lovers of liberty have arraigned it as destructive of individual freedom.

The Prince cannot be understood without understanding the times in which it was written. Its aim was to unify Italy and free it from foreign dominion. Machiavelli, who had witnessed the

invasion of the peninsula by foreign armies, saw that disunited Italy was too weak and the wars within itself was making it even weaker. Italy's impotence grieved him deeply. He wanted Italy to emerge from chaos, stop infighting, drive out foreign invaders and rise to a level with the great powers of Europe.

He observed the career of Cesare Borgia and saw what a man can do if he permits nothing to restrict his actions. He prescribed Borgia's methods for achieving a strong state in Italy. His ideal prince was a patriotic tyrant who could forcibly weld together the Italian states, organize a national army, and expel foreign powers permanently.

Outside Italy, the book was read and reread until its statements became commonplace. Absolutists of the 16th century adopted it as a manual of first principles. Anyone who aspired for tyrannical rule used it as a source of inspiration. Louis XIV studied it assiduously. Frederick the Great wrote a treatise against it before proceeding to apply its principles. Napoleon –one of Machiavelli's best exemplars- carefully annotated a copy of it. The book still remains as a Bible for those who believe politics should not be bound by the rules of morality.

To summarize, during the last centuries of the Middle Ages, a group of strong centralized national states were emerging in western Europe. Ambitious monarchs with the help of the middle class, were reducing the feudal system into royal demesnes. This was dispelling the dream of uniting the whole civilized world or the whole Latin Christendom, in to one great state under the dual authority of the pope and the Holy Roman Empire.

At the same time, national states were being consolidated politically and a strong nationalist feeling was growing thanks to a common language, a vernacular literature and, common interests and traditions. Spain, Portugal, France and England had reached a certain maturity of unification by the opening of the 16th century but Italy and Germany remained disunited until the 19th century. Because of this lack of unity, they remained a battleground for foreign nations. Neither country scrambled for oversea possessions. The national states play the leading roles in the drama of modern history.