European exploration was an important step toward the global interaction existing in the world today.

- Bartolomeu Dias
- Prince Henry
- Vasco da Gama

**MAIN IDEA**

SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY

Advances in sailing technology enabled Europeans to explore other parts of the world.

**WHY IT MATTERS NOW**

European exploration was an important step toward the global interaction existing in the world today.

- Treaty of Tordesillas
- Dutch East India Company

**TERMS & NAMES**

**SETTING THE STAGE** By the early 1400s, Europeans were ready to venture beyond their borders. As Chapter 17 explained, the Renaissance encouraged, among other things, a new spirit of adventure and curiosity. This spirit of adventure, along with several other important reasons, prompted Europeans to explore the world around them. This chapter and the next one describe how these explorations began a long process that would bring together the peoples of many different lands and permanently change the world.

**For “God, Glory, and Gold”**

Europeans had not been completely isolated from the rest of the world before the 1400s. Beginning around 1100, European crusaders battled Muslims for control of the Holy Lands in Southwest Asia. In 1275, the Italian trader Marco Polo reached the court of Kublai Khan in China. For the most part, however, Europeans had neither the interest nor the ability to explore foreign lands. That changed by the early 1400s. The desire to grow rich and to spread Christianity, coupled with advances in sailing technology, spurred an age of European exploration.

**Europeans Seek New Trade Routes** The desire for new sources of wealth was the main reason for European exploration. Through overseas exploration, merchants and traders hoped ultimately to benefit from what had become a profitable business in Europe: the trade of spices and other luxury goods from Asia. The people of Europe had been introduced to these items during the Crusades, the wars fought between Christians and Muslims from 1096 to 1270 (see Chapter 14). After the Crusades ended, Europeans continued to demand such spices as nutmeg, ginger, cinnamon, and pepper, all of which added flavor to the bland foods of Europe. Because demand for these goods was greater than the supply, merchants could charge high prices and thus make great profits.

The Muslims and the Italians controlled the trade of goods from East to West. Muslims sold Asian goods to Italian merchants, who controlled trade across the land routes of the Mediterranean region. The Italian merchants resold the items at increased prices to merchants...
throughout Europe. Other European traders did not like this arrangement. Paying such high prices to the Italians severely cut into their own profits. By the 1400s, European merchants—as well as the new monarchs of England, Spain, Portugal, and France—sought to bypass the Italian merchants. This meant finding a sea route directly to Asia.

The Spread of Christianity The desire to spread Christianity also motivated Europeans to explore. The Crusades had left Europeans with a taste for spices, but more significantly with feelings of hostility between Christians and Muslims. European countries believed that they had a sacred duty not only to continue fighting Muslims, but also to convert non-Christians throughout the world.

Europeans hoped to obtain popular goods directly from the peoples of Asia. They also hoped to Christianize them. Bartolomeu Dias, an early Portuguese explorer, explained his motives: “To serve God and His Majesty, to give light to those who were in darkness and to grow rich as all men desire to do.”

Technology Makes Exploration Possible While “God, glory, and gold” were the primary motives for exploration, advances in technology made the voyages of discovery possible. During the 1200s, it would have been nearly impossible for a European sea captain to cross 3,000 miles of ocean and return again. The main problem was that European ships could not sail against the wind. In the 1400s, shipbuilders designed a new vessel, the caravel. The caravel was sturdier than earlier vessels. In addition, triangular sails adopted from the Arabs allowed it to sail effectively against the wind.

Europeans also improved their navigational techniques. To better determine their location at sea, sailors used the astrolabe, which the Muslims had perfected. The astrolabe was a brass circle with carefully adjusted rings marked off in degrees. Using the rings to sight the stars, a sea captain could calculate latitude, or how far north or south of the equator the ship was. Explorers were also able to more accurately track direction by using a magnetic compass, a Chinese invention.

Portugal Leads the Way

The leader in developing and applying these sailing innovations was Portugal. Located on the Atlantic Ocean at the southwest corner of Europe, Portugal was the first European country to establish trading outposts along the west coast of Africa. Eventually, Portuguese explorers pushed farther east into the Indian Ocean.

The Portuguese Explore Africa Portugal took the lead in overseas exploration in part due to strong government support. The nation’s most enthusiastic supporter of exploration was Prince Henry, the son of Portugal’s king. Henry’s dreams of overseas exploration began in 1415 when he helped conquer the Muslim city of Ceuta in North Africa. There, he had his first glimpse of the dazzling wealth that lay beyond Europe. In Ceuta, the Portuguese invaders found exotic stores filled with pepper, cinnamon, cloves, and other spices. In addition, they encountered large supplies of gold, silver, and jewels.
The Tools of Exploration

Out on the open seas, winds easily blew ships off course. With only the sun, moon, and stars to guide them, few sailors willingly ventured beyond the sight of land. In order to travel to distant places, European inventors and sailors experimented with new tools for navigation and new designs for sailing ships, often borrowing from other cultures.

The average caravel was 65 feet long. This versatile ship had triangular sails for maneuverability and square sails for power.

The large cargo area could hold the numerous supplies needed for long voyages.

Its shallow draft (depth of the ship’s keel below the water) allowed it to explore close to the shore.

This 17th-century compass is typical of those taken by navigators on voyages of exploration. The compass was invented by the Chinese.

The sextant replaced the astrolabe in the mid-1700s as the instrument for measuring the height of the stars above the horizon—to determine latitude and longitude.

Here, a French mariner uses an early navigation instrument that he has brought ashore to fix his ship’s position. It was difficult to make accurate calculations aboard wave-tossed vessels.

1. Analyzing Motives Why did inventors and sailors develop better tools for navigation?

2. Summarizing What types of navigational or other tools do sailors use today? Choose one type of tool and write a brief explanation of what it does.

For more on the tools of exploration, go to classzone.com
Henry returned to Portugal determined to reach the source of these treasures in the East. The prince also wished to spread the Christian faith. In 1419, Henry founded a navigation school on the southwestern coast of Portugal. Mapmakers, instrument makers, shipbuilders, scientists, and sea captains gathered there to perfect their trade.

Within several years, Portuguese ships began sailing down the western coast of Africa. By the time Henry died in 1460, the Portuguese had established a series of trading posts along western Africa’s shores. There, they traded with Africans for such profitable items as gold and ivory. Eventually, they traded for African captives to be used as slaves. Having established their presence along the African coast, Portuguese explorers plotted their next move. They would attempt to find a sea route to Asia.

**Portuguese Sailors Reach Asia** The Portuguese believed that to reach Asia by sea, they would have to sail around the southern tip of Africa. In 1488, Portuguese captain Bartolomeu Dias ventured far down the coast of Africa until he and his crew reached the tip. As they arrived, a huge storm rose and battered the fleet for days. When the storm ended, Dias realized his ships had been blown around the tip to the other side. Dias explored the southeast coast of Africa and then considered sailing to India. However, his crew was exhausted and food supplies were low. As a result, the captain returned home.

With the tip of Africa finally rounded, the Portuguese continued pushing east. In 1497, Portuguese explorer Vasco da Gama began exploring the east African coast. In 1498, he reached the port of Calicut, on the southwestern coast of India. Da Gama and his crew were amazed by the spices, rare silks, and precious gems that filled Calicut’s shops. The Portuguese sailors filled their ships with such spices as pepper and cinnamon and returned to Portugal in 1499. Their cargo was worth 60 times the cost of the voyage. Da Gama’s remarkable voyage of 27,000 miles had given Portugal a direct sea route to India.

**Spain Also Makes Claims**

As the Portuguese were establishing trading posts along the west coast of Africa, Spain watched with increasing envy. The Spanish monarchs also desired a direct sea route to Asia.

In 1492, an Italian sea captain, Christopher Columbus, convinced Spain to finance a bold plan: finding a route to Asia by sailing west across the Atlantic Ocean. In October of that year, Columbus reached an island in the Caribbean. He was mistaken in his thought that he had reached the East Indies. But his voyage would open the way for European colonization of the Americas—a process that would forever change the world. The immediate impact of Columbus’s voyage, however, was to increase tensions between Spain and Portugal.

The Portuguese believed that Columbus had indeed reached Asia. Portugal suspected that Columbus had claimed for Spain lands that Portuguese sailors might
have reached first. The rivalry between Spain and Portugal grew more tense. In 1493, Pope Alexander VI stepped in to keep peace between the two nations. He suggested an imaginary dividing line, drawn north to south, through the Atlantic Ocean. All lands to the west of the line, known as the Line of Demarcation, would be Spain’s. These lands included most of the Americas. All lands to the east of the line would belong to Portugal.

Portugal complained that the line gave too much to Spain. So it was moved farther west to include parts of modern-day Brazil for the Portuguese. In 1494, Spain and Portugal signed the Treaty of Tordesillas, in which they agreed to honor the line. The era of exploration and colonization was about to begin in earnest.

Trading Empires in the Indian Ocean

With da Gama’s voyage, Europeans had finally opened direct sea trade with Asia. They also opened an era of violent conflict in the East. European nations scrambled to establish profitable trading outposts along the shores of South and Southeast Asia. And all the while they battled the region’s inhabitants, as well as each other.

Portugal’s Trading Empire In the years following da Gama’s voyage, Portugal built a bustling trading empire throughout the Indian Ocean. As the Portuguese moved into the region, they took control of the spice trade from Muslim merchants. In 1509, Portugal extended its control over the area when it defeated a Muslim fleet off the coast of India, a victory made possible by the cannons they had added aboard their ships.

Portugal strengthened its hold on the region by building a fort at Hormuz in 1514. It established control of the Straits of Hormuz, connecting the Persian Gulf and Arabian Sea, and helped stop Muslim traders from reaching India.

In 1510, the Portuguese captured Goa, a port city on India’s west coast. They made it the capital of their trading empire. They then sailed farther east to Indonesia, also known as the East Indies. In 1511, a Portuguese fleet attacked the city of Malacca on the west coast of the Malay Peninsula. In capturing the town, the Portuguese seized control of the Strait of Malacca. Seizing this waterway gave them control of the Moluccas. These were islands so rich in spices that they became known as the Spice Islands.

In convincing his crew to attack Malacca, Portuguese sea captain Afonso de Albuquerque stressed his country’s intense desire to crush the Muslim-Italian domination over Asian trade:

If we deprive them [Muslims] of this their ancient market there, there does not remain for them a single port in the whole of these parts, where they can carry on their trade in these things. . . . I hold it as very certain that if we take this trade of Malacca away out of their hands, Cairo and Mecca are entirely ruined, and to Venice will no spiceries . . . [be] . . . conveyed except that which her merchants go and buy in Portugal.

AFONSO DE ALBUQUERQUE, from The Commentaries of the Great Afonso Dalbuquerque

Portugal did break the old Muslim-Italian domination on trade from the East, much to the delight of European consumers. Portuguese merchants brought back goods from Asia at about one-fifth of what they cost when purchased through the Arabs and Italians. As a result, more Europeans could afford these items.
In time, Portugal’s success in Asia attracted the attention of other European nations. As early as 1521, a Spanish expedition led by Ferdinand Magellan arrived in the Philippines. Spain claimed the islands and began settling them in 1565. By the early 1600s, the rest of Europe had begun to descend upon Asia. They wanted to establish their own trade empires in the East.

Other Nations Challenge the Portuguese Beginning around 1600, the English and Dutch began to challenge Portugal’s dominance over the Indian Ocean trade. The Dutch Republic, also known as the Netherlands, was a small country situated along the North Sea in northwestern Europe. Since the early 1500s, Spain had ruled the area. In 1581, the people of the region declared their independence from Spain and established the Dutch Republic.

In a short time, the Netherlands became a leading sea power. By 1600, the Dutch owned the largest fleet of ships in the world—20,000 vessels. Pressure from Dutch and also English fleets eroded Portuguese control of the Asian region. The Dutch and English then battled one another for dominance of the area.

Both countries had formed an East India Company to establish and direct trade throughout Asia. These companies had the power to mint money, make treaties, and even raise their own armies. The Dutch East India Company was richer and more powerful than England’s company. As a result, the Dutch eventually drove out the English and established their dominance over the region.

Dutch Trade Outposts In 1619, the Dutch established their trading headquarters at Batavia on the island of Java. From there, they expanded west to

GEOGRAPHY SKILLBUILDER: Interpreting Maps

1. **Place** Why would a fort at Hormuz help the Portuguese to stop trade between the Arabian Peninsula and India?

2. **Region** Where was the Dutch influence the greatest?
conquer several nearby islands. In addition, the Dutch seized both the port of Malacca and the valuable Spice Islands from Portugal. Throughout the 1600s, the Netherlands increased its control over the Indian Ocean trade. With so many goods from the East traveling to the Netherlands, the nation’s capital, Amsterdam, became a leading commercial center. By 1700, the Dutch ruled much of Indonesia and had trading posts in several Asian countries. They also controlled the Cape of Good Hope on the southern tip of Africa, which was used as a resupply stop.

**British and French Traders** By 1700 also, Britain and France had gained a foothold in the region. Having failed to win control of the larger area, the English East India Company focused much of its energy on establishing outposts in India. There, the English developed a successful business trading Indian cloth in Europe. In 1664, France also entered the Asia trade with its own East India Company. It struggled at first, as it faced continual attacks by the Dutch. Eventually, the French company established an outpost in India in the 1720s. However, it never showed much of a profit.

As the Europeans battled for a share of the profitable Indian Ocean trade, their influence inland in Southeast Asia remained limited. European traders did take control of many port cities in the region. But their impact rarely spread beyond the ports. From 1500 to about 1800, when Europeans began to conquer much of the region, the peoples of Asia remained largely unaffected by European contact. As the next two sections explain, European traders who sailed farther east to seek riches in China and Japan had even less success in spreading Western culture.

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**TERMS & NAMES**

1. For each term or name, write a sentence explaining its significance.

- Bartolomeu Dias
- Prince Henry
- Vasco da Gama
- Treaty of Tordesillas
- Dutch East India Company

**USING YOUR NOTES**

2. Which event in the European exploration of the East is the most significant? Explain with references from the text.

3. What role did the Renaissance play in launching an age of exploration?

4. What was Prince Henry’s goal and who actually achieved it?

5. What European countries were competing for Asian trade during the age of exploration?

**MAIN IDEAS**

**CRITICAL THINKING & WRITING**

6. **MAKING INFERENCES** What did the Treaty of Tordesillas reveal about Europeans’ attitudes toward non-European lands and peoples?

7. **ANALYZING MOTIVES** What were the motives behind European exploration in the 1400s? Explain.

8. **RECOGNIZING EFFECTS** In what ways did Europeans owe some of their sailing technology to other peoples?

9. **WRITING ACTIVITY** Review “The Tools of Exploration” on page 531. Write a one-paragraph opinion piece on which technological advancement was the most important for European exploration.

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**CONNECT TO TODAY**

**WRITING A DESCRIPTION**

Research the Global Positioning System (GPS). Then write a brief description of this modern navigation system.
China Limits European Contacts

MAIN IDEA
CULTURAL INTERACTION
Advances under the Ming and Qing dynasties left China uninterested in European contact.

WHY IT MATTERS NOW
China’s independence from the West continues today, even as it forges new economic ties with the outside world.

TERMS & NAMES
• Ming dynasty
• Hongwu
• Yonglo
• Zheng He
• Manchus
• Qing dynasty
• Kangxi

SETTING THE STAGE
The European voyages of exploration had led to opportunities for trade. Europeans made healthy profits from trade in the Indian Ocean region. They began looking for additional sources of wealth. Soon, European countries were seeking trade relationships in East Asia, first with China and later with Japan. By the time Portuguese ships dropped anchor off the Chinese coast in 1514, the Chinese had driven out their Mongol rulers and had united under a new dynasty.

China Under the Powerful Ming Dynasty
China had become the dominant power in Asia under the Ming dynasty (1368–1644). In recognition of China’s power, vassal states from Korea to Southeast Asia paid their Ming overlords regular tribute, which is a payment by one country to another to acknowledge its submission. China expected Europeans to do the same. Ming rulers were not going to allow outsiders from distant lands to threaten the peace and prosperity the Ming had brought to China when they ended Mongol rule.

The Rise of the Ming
A peasant’s son, Hongwu, commanded the rebel army that drove the Mongols out of China in 1368. That year, he became the first Ming emperor. Hongwu continued to rule from the former Yuan capital of Nanjing in the south. (See the map on page 527.) He began reforms designed to restore agricultural lands devastated by war, erase all traces of the Mongol past, and promote China’s power and prosperity. Hongwu’s agricultural reforms increased rice production and improved irrigation. He also encouraged fish farming and growing commercial crops, such as cotton and sugar cane.

Hongwu used respected traditions and institutions to bring stability to China. For example, he encouraged a return to Confucian moral standards. He improved imperial administration by restoring the merit-based civil service examination system. Later in his rule, however, when problems developed, Hongwu became a ruthless tyrant. Suspecting plots against his rule everywhere, he conducted purges of the government, killing thousands of officials.

Hongwu’s death in 1398 led to a power struggle. His son Yonglo (yung•lu) emerged victorious. Yonglo continued many of his father’s policies, although he moved the royal court to Beijing. (See the Forbidden City feature on page 538.)
Yonglo also had a far-ranging curiosity about the outside world. In 1405, before Europeans began to sail beyond their borders, he launched the first of seven voyages of exploration. He hoped they would impress the world with the power and splendor of Ming China. He also wanted to expand China's tribute system.

The Voyages of Zheng He A Chinese Muslim admiral named Zheng He (jung huh) led all of the seven voyages. His expeditions were remarkable for their size. Everything about them was large—distances traveled, fleet size, and ship measurements. The voyages ranged from Southeast Asia to eastern Africa. From 40 to 300 ships sailed in each expedition. Among them were fighting ships, storage vessels, and huge “treasure” ships measuring more than 400 feet long. The fleet's crews numbered over 27,000 on some voyages. They included sailors, soldiers, carpenters, interpreters, accountants, doctors, and religious leaders. Like a huge floating city, the fleet sailed from port to port along the Indian Ocean.

Everywhere Zheng He went, he distributed gifts including silver and silk to show Chinese superiority. As a result, more than 16 countries sent tribute to the Ming court. Even so, Chinese scholar-officials complained that the voyages wasted valuable resources that could be used to defend against barbarians' attacks on the northern frontier. After the seventh voyage, in 1433, China withdrew into isolation.

Ming Relations with Foreign Countries China's official trade policies in the 1500s reflected its isolation. To keep the influence of outsiders to a minimum, only the government was to conduct foreign trade, and only through three coastal ports, Canton, Macao, and Ningbo. In reality, trade flourished up and down the coast. Profit-minded merchants smuggled cargoes of silk, porcelain, and other valuable goods out of the country into the eager hands of European merchants. Usually, Europeans paid for purchases with silver, much of it from mines in the Americas.

Demand for Chinese goods had a ripple effect on the economy. Industries such as silk-making and ceramics grew rapidly. Manufacturing and commerce increased. But China did not become highly industrialized for two main reasons. First, the idea of commerce offended China's Confucian beliefs. Merchants, it was said, made their money “supporting foreigners and robbery.” Second, Chinese economic policies traditionally favored agriculture. Taxes on agriculture stayed low. Taxes on manufacturing and trade skyrocketed.

Christian missionaries accompanied European traders into China. They brought Christianity and knowledge of European science and technology, such as the clock. The first missionary to have an impact was an Italian Jesuit named Matteo Ricci. He
The Forbidden City

When Yonglo moved the Chinese capital to Beijing, he ordered the building of a great palace complex to symbolize his power and might. Construction took 14 years, from 1406 to 1420. Red walls 35 feet in height surrounded the complex, which had dozens of buildings, including palaces and temples. The complex became known as the Forbidden City because commoners and foreigners were not allowed to enter.

**Hall of Supreme Harmony**
Taihe Hall, or the Hall of Supreme Harmony, is the largest building in the compound. It measures 201 by 122 feet and stands about 125 feet high. This hall was used for important ceremonies, such as those marking the emperor's birthday or the day the crown prince took the throne.

**Hall of Central Harmony**
Zhonge Hall, or the Hall of Central Harmony, was a smaller square building between the two main halls. It was a sort of private office where the emperor could stop to rest on his way to ceremonies.

**Nine-Dragon Wall**
This wall, or screen, of glazed tiles shows nine dragons playing with pearls against a background of sea and sky. From ancient times, the dragon was the symbol of the imperial family. This is the largest of three famous nine-dragon screens that exist in China.

**SKILLBUILDER: Interpreting Visuals**
1. **Analyzing Motives** Why do you think the emperor wanted to keep common people out of the Forbidden City?
2. **Drawing Conclusions** What aspects of the Forbidden City helped to convey the power of the emperor?
gained special favor at the Ming court through his intelligence and fluency in Chinese. Still, many educated Chinese opposed the European and Christian presence.

**Manchus Found the Qing Dynasty**

By 1600, the Ming had ruled for more than 200 years, and the dynasty was weakening. Its problems grew—ineffective rulers, corrupt officials, and a government that was out of money. Higher taxes and bad harvests pushed millions of peasants toward starvation. Civil strife and rebellion followed.

Northeast of the Great Wall lay Manchuria. In 1644, the Manchus (MAN•chooz), the people of that region, invaded China and the Ming dynasty collapsed. The Manchus seized Beijing, and their leader became China’s new emperor. As the Mongols had done in the 1300s, the Manchus took a Chinese name for their dynasty, the Qing (chihng) dynasty. They would rule for more than 260 years and expand China’s borders to include Taiwan, Chinese Central Asia, Mongolia, and Tibet.

**China Under the Qing** Many Chinese resisted rule by the non-Chinese Manchus. Rebellions flared up periodically for decades. The Manchus, however, slowly earned the people’s respect. They upheld China’s traditional Confucian beliefs and social structures. They made the country’s frontiers safe and restored China’s prosperity. Two powerful Manchu rulers contributed greatly to the acceptance of the new dynasty.

The first, Kangxi (kahng•shee), became emperor in 1661 and ruled for some 60 years. He reduced government expenses and lowered taxes. A scholar and patron of the arts, Kangxi gained the support of intellectuals by offering them government positions. He also enjoyed the company of the Jesuits at court. They told him about developments in science, medicine, and mathematics in Europe. Under his grandson Qian-long (chyahn•lung), who ruled from 1736 to 1795, China reached its greatest size and prosperity. An industrious emperor like his grandfather, Qian-long often rose at dawn to work on the empire’s problems. These included armed nomads on its borders and the expanding presence of European missionaries and merchants in China.

**Manchus Continue Chinese Isolation** To the Chinese, their country—called the Middle Kingdom—had been the cultural center of the universe for 2,000 years. If foreign states wished to trade with China, they would have to follow Chinese rules. These rules included trading only at special ports and paying tribute. The Dutch were masters of the Indian Ocean trade by the time of Qian-long. They accepted China’s restrictions. Their diplomats paid tribute to the emperor through gifts and by performing the required “kowtow” ritual. This ritual involved kneeling in front of the emperor and touching one’s head to the ground nine times. As a result, the Chinese accepted the Dutch as trading partners. The Dutch returned home with traditional porcelains and silk, as well as a new trade item, tea. By 1800, tea would make up 80 percent of shipments to Europe.

Great Britain also wanted to increase trade with China. But the British did not like China’s trade restrictions. In 1793, Lord George Macartney delivered a letter from King George III to Qian-long. It asked for a better trade arrangement,

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**Making Inferences**

Why do you think the kowtow ritual was so important to the Chinese emperor?
including Chinese acceptance of British manufactured goods. Macartney refused
to kowtow, and Qian-long denied Britain’s request. As the emperor made clear in a
letter to the king, China was self-sufficient and did not need the British:

**PRIMARY SOURCE**

There is nothing we lack, as your principal envoy and others have themselves observed.
We have never set much store on strange or ingenious objects, nor do we need any
more of your country’s manufactures.

**QIAN-LONG**, from a letter to King George III of Great Britain

In the 1800s, the British, Dutch, and others would attempt to chip away at China’s
trade restrictions until the empire itself began to crack, as Chapter 28 will describe.

**Korea Under the Manchus** In 1636, even before they came to power in China,
the Manchus conquered nearby Korea and made it a vassal state. As a member of
the Chinese tribute system, Korea had long existed in China’s shadow. Koreans
organized their government according to Confucian principles. They also adopted
China’s technology, its culture, and especially its policy of isolation.

When the Manchus established the Qing dynasty, Korea’s political relationship
with China did not change. But Korea’s attitude did. The Manchu invasion, com-
bined with a Japanese attack in the 1590s, provoked strong feelings of nationalism
in the Korean people. This sentiment was most evident in their art. Instead of tra-
ditional Chinese subjects, many artists chose to show popular Korean scenes.

**Social History**

**China’s Population Boom**

China’s population grew dramatically from 1650 to 1900. General peace and
increased agricultural productivity were the causes.

**SKILLBUILDER: Interpreting Graphs**

Comparing By what percentage did
China’s population increase between
1650 and 1900?

▲ A Chinese family prepares for a wedding in the 1800s.
Life in Ming and Qing China

In the 1600s and 1700s, there was general peace and prosperity in China. Life improved for most Chinese.

Families and the Role of Women
Most Chinese families had farmed the land the same way their ancestors had. However, during the Qing dynasty, irrigation and fertilizer use increased. Farmers grew rice and new crops, such as corn and sweet potatoes, brought by Europeans from the Americas. As food production increased, nutrition improved and families expanded. A population explosion followed.

These expanded Chinese families favored sons over daughters. Only a son was allowed to perform vital religious rituals. A son also would raise his own family under his parents’ roof, assuring aging parents of help with the farming. As a result, females were not valued, and many female infants were killed. Although men dominated the household and their wives, women had significant responsibilities. Besides working in the fields, they supervised the children’s education and managed the family’s finances. While most women were forced to remain secluded in their homes, some found outside jobs such as working as midwives or textile workers.

Cultural Developments

The culture of early modern China was based mainly on traditional forms. The great masterpiece of traditional Chinese fiction was written during this period. Dream of the Red Chamber by Cao Zhan examines upper class Manchu society in the 1700s. Most artists of the time painted in traditional styles, which valued technique over creativity. In pottery, technical skill as well as experimentation led to the production of high-quality ceramics, including porcelain. Drama was a popular entertainment, especially in rural China where literacy rates were low. Plays that presented Chinese history and cultural heroes entertained and also helped unify Chinese society by creating a national culture.

While China preserved its traditions in isolation, another civilization that developed in seclusion—the Japanese—was in conflict, as you will read in Section 3.
Japan Returns to Isolation

**ECONOMICS** The Tokugawa regime unified Japan and began 250 years of isolation, autocracy, and economic growth.

**Why It Matters Now**
Even now, Japan continues to limit and control dealings with foreigners, especially in the area of trade.

**Terms & Names**
- daimyo
- Oda Nobunaga
- Toyotomi Hideyoshi
- Tokugawa Shogunate
- haiku
- kabuki

**Setting the Stage**
In the 1300s, the unity that had been achieved in Japan in the previous century broke down. Shoguns, or military leaders, in the north and south fiercely fought one another for power. Although these two rival courts later came back together at the end of the century, a series of politically weak shoguns let control of the country slip from their grasp. The whole land was torn by factional strife and economic unrest. It would be centuries before Japan would again be unified.

**A New Feudalism Under Strong Leaders**
In 1467, civil war shattered Japan’s old feudal system. The country collapsed into chaos. Centralized rule ended. Power drained away from the shogun to territorial lords in hundreds of separate domains.

**Local Lords Rule**
A violent era of disorder followed. This time in Japanese history, which lasted from 1467 to 1568, is known as the Sengoku, or “Warring States,” period. Powerful samurai seized control of old feudal estates. They offered peasants and others protection in return for their loyalty. These warrior-chieftains, called daimyo (DYE•mee•oh), became lords in a new kind of Japanese feudalism. Daimyo meant “great name.” Under this system, security came from this group of powerful warlords. The emperor at Kyoto became a figurehead, having a leadership title but no actual power.

The new Japanese feudalism resembled European feudalism in many ways. The daimyo built fortified castles and created small armies of samurai on horses. Later they added foot soldiers with muskets (guns) to their ranks. Rival daimyo often fought each other for territory. This led to disorder throughout the land.

**New Leaders Restore Order**
A number of ambitious daimyo hoped to gather enough power to take control of the entire country. One, the brutal and ambitious Oda Nobunaga (oh•dah noh•boo•nah•gah), defeated his rivals and seized the imperial capital Kyoto in 1568.

Following his own motto “Rule the empire by force,” Nobunaga sought to eliminate his remaining enemies. These included rival daimyo as well as wealthy Buddhist monasteries aligned with them. In 1575, Nobunaga’s 3,000 soldiers armed with muskets crushed an enemy force of samurai cavalry. This was the first time firearms had been used effectively in battle in Japan. However,
Nobunaga was not able to unify Japan. He committed *seppuku*, the ritual suicide of a samurai, in 1582, when one of his own generals turned on him.

Nobunaga’s best general, Toyotomi Hideyoshi (*toh•you•toh•mee hee•deh•yoh•shee*), continued his fallen leader’s mission. Hideyoshi set out to destroy the daimyo that remained hostile. By 1590, by combining brute force with shrewd political alliances, he controlled most of the country. Hideyoshi did not stop with Japan. With the idea of eventually conquering China, he invaded Korea in 1592 and began a long campaign against the Koreans and their Ming Chinese allies. When Hideyoshi died in 1598, his troops withdrew from Korea.

**Tokugawa Shogunate Unites Japan** One of Hideyoshi’s strongest daimyo allies, Tokugawa Ieyasu (*toh•koo•gah•wah ee•yeh•yah•soo*), completed the unification of Japan. In 1600, Ieyasu defeated his rivals at the Battle of Sekigahara. His victory earned him the loyalty of daimyo throughout Japan. Three years later, Ieyasu became the sole ruler, or shogun. He then moved Japan’s capital to his power base at Edo, a small fishing village that would later become the city of Tokyo.

Japan was unified, but the daimyo still governed at the local level. To keep them from rebelling, Ieyasu required that they spend every other year in the capital. Even when they returned to their lands, they had to leave their families behind as hostages in Edo. Through this “alternate attendance policy” and other restrictions, Ieyasu tamed the daimyo. This was a major step toward restoring centralized government to Japan. As a result, the rule of law overcame the rule of the sword.

**GEOGRAPHY SKILLBUILDER: Interpreting Maps**

1. **Place** Why might Edo have been a better site for a capital in the 17th century than Kyoto?
2. **Region** About what percentage of Japan was controlled by Tokugawa or related households when Tokugawa Ieyasu took power in the early 1600s?

**MAIN IDEA**

_Drawing Conclusions_ How would the “alternate attendance policy” restrict the daimyo?
Ieyasu founded the **Tokugawa Shogunate**, which would hold power until 1867. On his deathbed in 1616, Ieyasu advised his son, Hidetada, “Take care of the people. Strive to be virtuous. Never neglect to protect the country.” Most Tokugawa shoguns followed that advice. Their rule brought a welcome order to Japan.

**Life in Tokugawa Japan**
Japan enjoyed more than two and a half centuries of stability, prosperity, and isolation under the Tokugawa shoguns. Farmers produced more food, and the population rose. Still, the vast majority of peasants, weighed down by heavy taxes, led lives filled with misery. The people who prospered in Tokugawa society were the merchant class and the wealthy. However, everyone, rich and poor alike, benefited from a flowering of Japanese culture during this era.

**Society in Tokugawa Japan** Tokugawa society was very structured. (See Feudalism feature on page 361.) The emperor had the top rank but was just a figurehead. The actual ruler was the shogun, who was the supreme military commander. Below him were the daimyo, the powerful landholding samurai. Samurai warriors came next. The peasants and artisans followed them. Peasants made up about four-fifths of the population. Merchants were at the bottom, but they gradually became more important as the Japanese economy expanded.

In Japan, as in China, Confucian values influenced ideas about society. According to Confucius, the ideal society depended on agriculture, not commerce. Farmers, not merchants, made ideal citizens. In the real world of Tokugawa Japan, however, peasant farmers bore the main tax burden and faced more difficulties than any other class. Many of them abandoned farm life and headed for the expanding towns and cities. There, they mixed with samurai, artisans, and merchants.

By the mid-1700s, Japan began to shift from a rural to an urban society. Edo had grown from a small village in 1600 to perhaps the largest city in the world. Its population was more than one million. The rise of large commercial centers also increased employment opportunities for women. Women found jobs in entertainment, textile manufacturing, and publishing. Still, the majority of Japanese women led sheltered and restricted lives as peasant wives. They worked in the fields, managed the household, cared for the children, and obeyed their husband without question.

**Culture Under the Tokugawa Shogunate** Traditional culture continued to thrive. Samurai attended ceremonial **noh** dramas, which were based on tragic themes. They read tales of ancient warriors and their courage in battle. In their homes, they hung paintings that showed scenes from classical literature. But traditional entertainment faced competition in the cities from new styles of literature, drama, and art.

Townspeople read a new type of fiction, realistic stories about self-made merchants or the hardships of life. The people also read **haiku** (HI•koo), 5-7-5-syllable, 3-line verse poetry. This poetry presents images rather than ideas. For example, Matsuo Basho, the greatest haiku poet, wrote before his death in 1694:

**PRIMARY SOURCE**

On a journey, ailing—
My dreams roam about
Over a withered moor.

**MATSUO BASHO**, from Matsuo Basho

**Tabi ni yande**
**Yume wa Kareno o**
**Kakemeguru**

**MATSUO BASHO**, in Japanese

**MAIN IDEA**
**Analyzing Primary Sources**

How is Matsuo Basho’s haiku a poem about death?

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Townspeople also attended **kabuki** theater. Actors in elaborate costumes, using music, dance, and mime, performed skits about modern life. The paintings the people enjoyed were often woodblock prints showing city life.
Contact Between Europe and Japan

Europeans began coming to Japan in the 16th century, during the Warring States period. Despite the severe disorder in the country, the Japanese welcomed traders and missionaries, from Portugal and, later, other European countries. These newcomers introduced fascinating new technologies and ideas. Within a century, however, the aggressive Europeans had worn out their welcome.

Portugal Sends Ships, Merchants, and Technology to Japan

The Japanese first encountered Europeans in 1543, when shipwrecked Portuguese sailors washed up on the shores of southern Japan. Portuguese merchants soon followed. They hoped to involve themselves in Japan’s trade with China and Southeast Asia. The Portuguese brought clocks, eyeglasses, tobacco, firearms, and other unfamiliar items from Europe. Japanese merchants, eager to expand their markets, were happy to receive the newcomers and their goods.

The daimyo, too, welcomed the strangers. They were particularly interested in the Portuguese muskets and cannons, because every daimyo sought an advantage over his rivals. One of these warlords listened intently to a Japanese observer’s description of a musket:

PRIMARY SOURCE

In their hands they carried something two or three feet long, straight on the outside with a passage inside, and made of a heavy substance. . . . This thing with one blow can smash a mountain of silver and a wall of iron. If one sought to do mischief in another man’s domain and he was touched by it, he would lose his life instantly.

ANONYMOUS JAPANESE WRITER, quoted in Sources of Japanese Tradition (1958)

The Japanese purchased weapons from the Portuguese and soon began their own production. Firearms forever changed the time-honored tradition of the Japanese warrior, whose principal weapon had been the sword. Some daimyo recruited and trained corps of peasants to use muskets. Many samurai, who retained the sword as their principal weapon, would lose their lives to musket fire in future combat.
The cannon also had a huge impact on warfare and life in Japan. Daimyo had to build fortified castles to withstand the destructive force of cannonballs. (See the photograph of Himeji Castle on page 543.) The castles attracted merchants, artisans, and others to surrounding lands. Many of these lands were to grow into the towns and cities of modern Japan, including Edo (Tokyo), Osaka, Himeji, and Nagoya.

**Christian Missionaries in Japan** In 1549, Christian missionaries began arriving in Japan. The Japanese accepted the missionaries in part because they associated them with the muskets and other European goods that they wanted to purchase. However, the religious orders of Jesuits, Franciscans, and Dominicans came to convert the Japanese.

Francis Xavier, a Jesuit, led the first mission to Japan. He wrote that the Japanese were “very sociable... and much concerned with their honor, which they prize above everything else.” Francis Xavier baptized about a hundred converts before he left Japan. By the year 1600, other European missionaries had converted about 300,000 Japanese to Christianity.

The success of the missionaries upset Tokugawa Ieyasu. He found aspects of the Christian invasion troublesome. Missionaries, actively seeking converts, scorned traditional Japanese beliefs and sometimes involved themselves in local politics. At first, Ieyasu did not take any action. He feared driving off the Portuguese, English, Spanish, and Dutch traders who spurred Japan’s economy. By 1612, however, the shogun had come to fear religious uprisings more. He banned Christianity and focused on ridding his country of all Christians.

Ieyasu died in 1616, but repression of Christianity continued off and on for the next two decades under his successors. In 1637, the issue came to a head. An uprising in southern Japan of some 30,000 peasants, led by dissatisfied samurai, shook the Tokugawa shogunate. Because so many of the rebels were Christian, the shogun decided that Christianity was at the root of the rebellion. After that, the shoguns ruthlessly persecuted Christians. European missionaries were killed or driven out of Japan. All Japanese were forced to demonstrate faithfulness to some branch of Buddhism. These policies eventually eliminated Christianity in Japan and led to the formation of an exclusion policy.

**MAIN IDEA**

**Comparing**

How was the treatment of Europeans different in Japan and China? How was it similar?
The Closed Country Policy

The persecution of Christians was part of an attempt to control foreign ideas. When Europeans first arrived, no central authority existed to contain them. The strong leaders who later took power did not like the introduction of European ideas and ways, but they valued European trade. As time passed, the Tokugawa shoguns realized that they could safely exclude both the missionaries and the merchants. By 1639, they had sealed Japan’s borders and instituted a “closed country policy.”

Japan in Isolation

Most commercial contacts with Europeans ended. One port, Nagasaki, remained open to foreign traders. But only Dutch and Chinese merchants were allowed into the port. Earlier, the English had left Japan voluntarily; the Spanish and the Portuguese had been expelled. Since the Tokugawa shoguns controlled Nagasaki, they now had a monopoly on foreign trade, which continued to be profitable.

For more than 200 years, Japan remained basically closed to Europeans. In addition, the Japanese were forbidden to leave, so as not to bring back foreign ideas. Japan would continue to develop, but as a self-sufficient country, free from European attempts to colonize or to establish their presence.

Europeans had met with much resistance in their efforts to open the East to trade. But expansion to the West, in the Americas, as you will learn in Chapter 20, would prove much more successful for European traders, missionaries, and colonizers.

SECTION ASSESSMENT

TERMS & NAMES 1. For each term or name, write a sentence explaining its significance.
  - daimyo  - Oda Nobunaga  - Toyotomi Hideyoshi  - Tokugawa Shogunate  - haiku  - kabuki

USING YOUR NOTES 2. Which contribution by a daimyo was the most significant? Why?

MAIN IDEAS

3. What happened during the period of the “Warring States”?
4. What was the structure of society in Tokugawa Japan?
5. What were the new styles of drama, art, and literature in Tokugawa Japan?

CRITICAL THINKING & WRITING

6. DRAWING CONCLUSIONS Why do you think that the emperor had less power than a shogun?
7. ANALYZING CAUSES Why did the Japanese policy toward Christians change from acceptance to repression?
8. FORMING OPINIONS Do you think Japan’s closed country policy effectively kept Western ideas and customs out of Japan?
9. WRITING ACTIVITY CULTURAL INTERACTION Write a two-paragraph comparison of the similarities and differences between the roles of women in China (discussed on page 541) and in Japan (page 544).

INTERNET ACTIVITY

Use the Internet to find information on the Japanese government today. Then create an organizational chart showing the structure of the government.

INTERNET KEYWORD

country profiles