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RISE OF THE MODERN WEST-II

B.H.I.C.-108

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QUESTION PAPER

June – 2023

(Solved)

RISE OF THE MODERN WEST-II

B.H.I.C.-108

Time: 3 Hours]

[Maximum Marks: 100

Note: Attempt any five questions. Attempt at least two questions from each section. All questions carry equal marks.

SECTION – I

Q. 1. Discuss the demographic and agrarian dimensions of the 17th century European crisis.

Ans. Ref.: See Chapter-1, Page No. 2, 'Demographic Crisis' and Page No. 3, 'Agrarian Crisis'.

Q. 2. What do you understand by Mercantilism? Discuss the development of mercantilist ideas in Europe.

Ans. Ref.: See Chapter-2, Page No. 16, 'Mercantilism: Definition and Features'.

Q. 3. Write a note on the Radical Reformation in England.

Ans. Ref.: See Chapter-3, Page No. 30, 'Radical Reformation in England'.

Q. 4. Write short notes on the following:

(a) Rationalism

Ans. Ref.: See Chapter-4, Page No. 40, 'Rationalism'.

(b) Restoration (1660) and Glorious Revolution (1688) in England.

Ans. Ref.: See Chapter-6, Page No. 65, 'Restoration (1660) and Glorious Revolution (1688)'.

(c) Role of women in Science during the 17th and 18th centuries.

Ans. Ref.: See Chapter-7, Page No. 76, 'Women and Modern Science' and Page No. 78, Q. No. 4.

(d) Nature of European expansion during the late 17th and early 18th centuries.

Ans. Ref.: See Chapter-2, Page No. 18, 'The Nature of European Expansion'.

SECTION-II

Q. 5. Briefly discuss the nature of state and politics in England and France in the 18th century.

Ans. Ref.: See Chapter-8, Page No. 86, 'Politics and State: Monarchies and Privileged Classes'.

Q. 6. What do you understand by Enlightenment? Outline the various stages in the development of Enlightenment in Europe.

Ans. Ref.: See Chapter-9, Page No. 97, 'The Meaning of Enlightenment' and Page No. 98, 'Stages'.

Q. 7. Discuss the role of colonial trade in the industrialization of Europe.

Ans. Ref.: See Chapter-13, Page No. 155, Q. No. 1.

Q. 8. Write short notes on the following:

(a) The Great Divergence

Ans. Ref.: See Chapter-13, Page No. 152, 'The Great Divergence'.

(b) Industrious Revolution

Ans. Ref.: See Chapter-12, Page No. 139, 'The Industrious Revolution'.

(c) Enclosure Movement in England

Ans. Ref.: See Chapter-11, Page No. 133, Q. No. 2.

(d) Development of Music in 17th and 18th century Europe.

Ans. Ref.: See Chapter-5, Page No. 52, 'Music'.



QUESTION PAPER

December – 2022

(Solved)

RISE OF THE MODERN WEST-II

B.H.I.C.-108

Time: 3 Hours]

[Maximum Marks: 100

Note: Attempt any five questions. Attempt at least two questions from each section. All questions carry equal marks.

SECTION – I

Q. 1. Compare the philosophies of rationalism and empiricism in 17th century Europe.

Ans. Ref.: See Chapter-4, Page No. 40, 'Rationalism' and Page No. 41, 'Empiricism'.

Q. 2. Discuss some of the important radical religious sects in England.

Ans. Ref.: See Chapter-3, Page No. 33, Q. No. 3.

Q. 3. What was the significance of agrarian unrest in creating the crisis of the 17th century?

Ans. Ref.: See Chapter-1, Page No. 3, 'Agrarian Crisis' and Page No. 8, Q. No. 4.

Q. 4. Write short notes on the following:

(a) Main intellectual trends during the English Revolution.

Ans. Ref.: See Chapter-6, Page No. 68, Q. No. 4, Page No. 66, 'Intellectual Traditions'.

(b) Artistic styles in Europe from mid-17th to mid-18th century.

Ans. Ref.: See Chapter-5, Page No. 55, Q. No. 2.

(c) Plantation and Slave economies

Ans. Ref.: See Chapter-2, Page No. 19, 'Plantation Economies' and 'Slavery' and 'Slave Economies'.

(d) Development of Science in Non-quantitative fields.

Ans. Ref.: See Chapter-7, Page No. 74, 'Development of Non-Quantitative Field' and Page No. 77, Q. No. 2.

SECTION-II

Q. 5. Discuss the role of colonial trade in the industrialization of Western Europe.

Ans. Ref.: See Chapter-13, Page No. 155, Q. No. 1.

Q. 6. Discuss the nature of colonization in America. How do you think it was different from the colonization of India?

Ans. Ref.: See Chapter-13, Page No. 150, 'European Trade and The Americas' and Page No. 151, 'Trade and Colonialism in Asia'.

Q. 7. Write a note on the legacies of the Enlightenment.

Ans. Ref.: See Chapter-9, Page No. 101, 'Legacies of Enlightenment' and Page No. 104, Q. No. 3.

Q. 8. Write short notes on the following:

(a) Industrious Revolution

Ans. Ref.: See Chapter-12, Page No. 139, 'The Industrious Revolution'.

(b) Enclosure Movement in England

Ans. Ref.: See Chapter-11, Page No. 133, Q. No. 2.

(c) Role of Women in Science

Ans. Ref.: See Chapter-7, Page No. 76, 'Women and Modern Science' and Page No. 78, Q. No. 4.

(d) Thomas Hobbes

Ans. Ref.: See Chapter-4, Page No. 43, 'Thomas Hobbes'.



Sample Preview of The Chapter

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RISE OF THE MODERN WEST-II

Seventeenth Century 'European Crisis'



INTRODUCTION

Starting from the tenth century, medieval Europe saw alternate phases of growth and contraction till the seventeenth century. There was a steady economic growth, expansion of agriculture and demographic surge till the early fourteenth century, when Black Deaths reversed the process with heavy population losses adversely affecting agriculture, trade and manufacturing sectors. From the last quarter of the fifteenth century, the European economy started reviving. The sixteenth century saw prosperity, demographic rise, agricultural growth, introduction of proto-industrialization in some parts of Europe and the formation of new trade organizations. The total volume of trade recorded new heights. Renaissance and Reformation also changed the social attitude. The spread of colonial empires across the globe transformed the structure of trade. New business activities and commercial institutions were set-up to handle the increasing volume of trade. The European markets got numerous products such as silver, cotton, cochineal, sugar, potatoes, tomatoes, spices, indigo and many other items. All these led to the rise of monetization of economy across Europe. However, the economy declined between 1600 and 1620 in many parts of Europe. Historians and scholars have explained differently on the factors which led to the decline, the nature of the crisis and its impact in Europe. In this chapter, we will study these aspects in detail.

CHAPTER AT A GLANCE

HISTORICAL DEBATE ON THE NATURE OF CRISIS

French philosopher Voltaire referred to the concept of general crisis in an essay in 1756. The debate on the crisis among the historians of early modern Europe lasted for almost two decades from 1950s. The debate was over the experience of each country – whether there was a pattern of change as a part of the entire European

experience of pre-modern period or whether each country had a separate path of transformation. Historians developed their own theoretical explanations that led to a broad agreement on the idea of 'general crisis of the seventeenth century.' The historians who wrote on this included Roland Mousnier, Eric Hobsbawm, R.B. Merriman, H.R. Trevor-Roper, Theodore K. Rabb, Niels Steensgaard and J.V. Polisensky.

There are three broad approaches in this debate. *First*, it was considered as economic in origin. This interpretation also had three approaches:

- (a) Arguments based on theoretical classical Marxist interpretation.
- (b) Arguments based on economic data over issues such as money and prices.
- (c) Arguments focusing on demographic factors.

The Marxist writings present this period as a critical phase in the transition from feudalism to capitalism.

Eric Hobsbawm started this debate in 1954 and Boris Porchnev followed it. The crisis was a class conflict that happened at two levels. In the Eastern Europe, the peasants and feudal nobility clashed in which the latter won. In the Western Europe, the bourgeoisie and feudal nobility clashed and the bourgeoisie got the favour. For Hobsbawm, it was a major crisis of European economy. Initially, Hobsbawm noted that the seventeenth century was also a period of social revolt. Later, he considered the crisis as a part of much wider transition from feudalism to capitalism.

Ruggiero Romano believed the exact period of the crisis was 1619-1622. For him, it was an economic and political crisis. Romano's thesis provided factual basis to Hobsbawm's interpretation. Thus, for the Marxist writers, it was a crisis of production and the producing bourgeoisie was the major force behind at least some of the revolutions. The crisis of production was general across Europe, but England witnessed the feudal monarchical absolutism overthrowing the rising landed

gentry and urban bourgeoisie (1642-1660) resulting in the victory of capitalism.

The second approach concentrates on political issues, particularly the mid-century revolts and rebellions. H.R. Trevor-Roper was one of the earliest writers to suggest the thesis of 'The General Crisis of the Seventeenth Century.' He picked up the theme that it was not the crisis of the European economy but a crisis in relations between society and the state, a result of the expansion of Renaissance Monarchies and whose financial burden the society could not bear. He sees the major events of this period as political revolution. R.B. Merriman (in his *Six Contemporaneous Revolutions*) sees them as a social and political manifestation of the crisis that affected the entire Europe. Merriman compares various mid-century revolts that took place in France, England, Catalonia, Naples and Holland.

The third approach opposes the theory of general crisis of the seventeenth century. J.H. Elliott doubted whether the instability caused by widespread revolts was in any way exceptional. He believed there were similar clusters of revolts during 1560s- 1590s. He referred to a series of tensions within early modern political structures that caused frequent revolts.

In 1975, Theodore K. Rabb synthesized the crisis debate of the last twenty five years and sought to rescue the idea of crisis with a more precise definition of the term. He also widened the scope of the European history between 1500 and 1700.

There were also some other interpretations. Roland Mousnier suggested that the period from 1598 to 1715 had a crisis that could be seen in the fields of demography, economy, administration and in intellectual sphere. The 1960s and 1970s saw many historians supporting or rejecting the idea of the general crisis.

J.V. Polisensky tried to link the Thirty Years' War (1618-1648) and the seventeenth century crisis. He observed both as the conflict of opposite political and cultural societies – one Protestant that was liberal and the other Catholic that was absolutist in character.

Niels Steensgaard provided an alternative thesis that linked the economic and political by highlighting the impact of increasing taxation and expanding state structure. This impoverished the population and pushed the people to the margins of subsistence. It created an economic crisis that was as much a crisis of production as distribution. He suggested that the period 1500-1700 saw extended instability starting with early sixteenth century.

ORIGINS OF THE CRISIS

Historians have different views on the date and intensity of the crisis. However, a general view is that

the crisis started during the first half of the seventeenth century. Some contemporary scholars provide a list of revolts and upheavals that caused a crisis of urban economy and trade and led to economic depression, loss of population, social unrest and large-scale wars.

The Eighty Years' War [1582-1662] caused widespread uprisings throughout the Netherland against the Spanish rule. It also affected other parts of Europe. The Thirty Years' War (1618-1648) created havoc in several states of Central Europe, France and Spain. A series of revolts and uprisings took place in France. There were widespread peasant uprisings between 1590s and 1620s, Nu Pieds (1637) and the intermittent Croquant peasant revolts throughout the seventeenth century. Nu-pied revolt was an anti-fiscal rebellion in Normandy. In another revolt in Périgueux, over 30,000 armed peasants revolted mostly against the tax officials.

Frondes (1647-1652) revealed the deep social crisis in France. The Fronde rebels opposed the growing powers of the absolute rulers. The revolt however failed and subsequently, the Bourbon dynasty recovered their ground and the royal absolutism under Louis XIV was further strengthened. Around this time, England saw a Civil War (1642-49). The Stuart ruler, Charles I, was executed by the Parliament supporters. The political experiments continued till 1660 but the political issues could not be resolved till the Revolution of 1688-89. Boris Porchnev describes the Fronde revolt of France as a variant of the English bourgeois revolution of 1640s and a prologue of the French Revolution of 1789.

During this period, the Mediterranean region also faced revolts which included the revolts of Catalonia, Naples and Portugal. The peasant revolt of the 1640s spread across Barcelona in Spain, driving out the Castilians and killing the Viceroy. The revolt in Naples in Italy in July 1647 happened after food shortage, heavy taxation and administrative inefficiency. Naples had become a republic for a brief period under the leadership of Masaniello and enjoying French protection. However, the Spanish ruler reconquered it. Some other parts of Europe too faced scattered uprisings like Swiss peasant uprising (1653), Ukrainian revolts (1648-54), Russian revolts (1672), Kuruez movements in Hungary, Irish Revolts (1641 and 1689) and the Palace revolution in the United Provinces of the Netherlands. A cluster of these revolutionary upheavals, political and social protests make several writers believe that there was some widespread crisis in Europe that had different time of their origins but they also had some commonness.

EXTENT OF THE CRISIS

Different dimensions of the crisis are briefly discussed below.

Demographic Crisis: In early seventeenth century, the population of Europe had a downward trend except

SEVENTEENTH CENTURY 'EUROPEAN CRISIS' / 3

for a few regions in northern Europe such as the Netherlands, Norway and Sweden. The Thirty Years' War claimed 35 to 40 per cent of the German population. Some densely populated states such as Saxony, Brandenburg and Bavaria lost about half their population. Poland saw a similar trend. During 1587-1650, the Spanish population fell from 70,68,000 to 50,25,000. The population of southern Europe also fell quite sharply during the period. The situation was different in some other parts of Europe. Even here, the rate of growth slowed down during the second half of the seventeenth century. What led to the decline of population in the seventeenth century is explained differently by the historians. Peter Kriedte suggests that the demographic decline was the result of Malthusian and social crisis. Thomas R. Malthus, a British economist of the eighteenth century had explained that in a natural economy (that Europe had in most parts except northern Europe) population grows at geometrical rate while the production of the natural economy increases by arithmetic proportion. This creates periodic crisis which is resolved after the loss of population when production and population ratio is restored. The demographic crisis had long-term consequences, including on family life, birth patterns, on food habits and on the age of marriage. Since the extent of demographic changes was not uniform, its impact varied according to the rise or fall in population.

Agrarian Crisis: The French Annales writings of Pierre Goubert, Immanuel le Roy Ladurie, Jaque le Goff revealed about the agriculture in France during the medieval period. Mare Bloch had two volumes on 'Feudalism'. Fernand Braudel's classical work mentions the agrarian weaknesses of the Mediterranean region. The region did not cultivate food crops due to poor land, soil deficiency and hilly tracts. It produced citrus fruits and encouraged sheep farming. The growing population in the sixteenth century at many places resulted in fragmentation of land holdings. There was also no technological innovation. So, food production was increased through land reclamation and deforestation.

In the seventeenth century, in many places the European agriculture showed signs of exhaustion. Feudal system dominated the central, eastern and southern Europe. In France, there was growing pressure on agriculture imposed by state authorities, but agrarian fall was not pronounced. The French monarchs protected the small peasants from feudal landlords but the policy led to long-term agrarian stagnation. State imposed taxes like *taille* on peasants to meet the vast administrative structure and bear the financial burden of continental wars. The nobility too compelled the peasants to pay heavy taxes that adversely affected

peasantry and checked agriculture investment or improved technology. France faced a crisis of productivity and consequently, the French agriculture could not change itself on the capitalist line as had happened in England.

The index of grain prices fell in France and Poland. Agriculture was further affected by the Swedish-Polish War. In Germany and Austria, falling trend in agriculture was visible. The falling ground rents brought down the prices of property and there was no incentive to invest in agricultural property. On the other hand, the prices continued to rise from 1601-10 level in England (1147), Belgium (150) and Austria (118) per cent. The cereal price in western and central Europe stayed high till the middle of the seventeenth century, but in western and northern parts of Europe, the boom continued but in Germany, agriculture collapsed because of the thirty years' war. In some areas like Brabant, Flanders and Zealand grain prices fell and grain was replaced by crops like flax, hops and rape seed.

The seventeenth century crisis widened the gap between the eastern and western and northern and southern zones of Europe. While eastern and central-eastern Europe saw an extension and tightening of serfdom, England and the Netherlands saw the breakdown of capitalism and agriculture started to move in the capitalism direction. Forage crops like clover and Turnip were popularized. Crop rotation was introduced on a large scale and alternative crops were grown to increase soil fertility. Thus, we find partial dislocation of the old types of communal holdings in the northwestern regions of Europe.

Monetary Crisis: Some scholars focused on the data of price trend to explain the crisis. Earl J. Hamilton and Pierre Channu pointed out the role of Seville and the Atlantic trade leading to financial crisis. Falling supply of money and the failure to finance the Atlantic trade, according to this view, caused the crisis. The frequent debasement of coinage in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries show an acute currency shortage. The bullion imports from the new world solved the crisis temporarily. In sixteenth century, the economic growth started to slow down once the quantity of silver imports to Europe was reduced. Hamilton considers monetary factors related to the bullion imports the main reason for the crisis. He worked out a detailed table of silver imports that reached peak in 1620 and then fell sharply. This caused decline in the money in circulation. Hamilton argues that an upward movement of prices would result in surplus profit and greater investment in business and industry, while the fall in circulation of money leads to reduced profit margin and disinvestment from manufacturing and commercial fields.

Hamilton believes that the latter condition prevailed in the seventeenth century. According to Ruggiero Romano, the first forty years of the century saw constant and at times sharp fall in the issue of money. For him, the crucial years were between 1619 and 1622. Romano argues that the minting of coins suffered fall causing shortage of monetary stock. Despite falling prices, there was considerable expansion in credit. He argues that the prices should not be seen in isolation because money, prices, exchange and banking were essential facts of production and distribution. They act like thermometer to gauge trends in trade, revenue and production. Prices alone can hardly explain the intricate economic situation because the economic reality was too complicated. While discussing the nature of the crisis, Jan de Vries does not subscribe to the view that the European economy grew or fell along the flow of precious metals from the 'New World'. Yet, he accepts that the monetary instability played a definite role in short-term cycles, especially the one in 1619-22. There are several other writers who reject Hamilton's arguments. They contend that the American silver did not stay in Europe and was reexported via Levant to India and China. So, the silver import to Europe had virtually no role in the creation of crisis.

Climatic Factors: Annales writers saw the crisis as a subsistence problem forming a part of conjuncture. It means they believed the crisis was located not in the structure but caused by coming together of many short and long-term factors, which formed a part of economic domain. The seventeenth century involved joining of factors like grain prices, crop failure, heavy taxation, epidemics and climatic factors alongwith population and land tenures. These caused widespread agrarian crisis, peasant uprisings, falling trade and slide in capital investments. All these had devastating effects because the production was based on limited technology. Annales writings pointed out the role of climatic factors also. According to Geoffrey Parker, astronomical studies found the non-human factors in the crisis. European astronomer A. E. Douglass noted a sharp decline of sun spots between 1645 and 1715 with intermittent spells of normal phases. G. D. Cassini, the Director of Paris Observatory, also noted in 1676 about aurora borealis. The scientists of Scandinavia and Scotland had made similar observations. Falling solar energy causes a rise of carbon – 14 in atmosphere, a condition most harmful for living organisms. Wet weather conditions, lowering of snow line, the falling volume of river water and the ripening of food grains played a cumulative role in creating the general crisis.

Economic Crisis: Historians have different views on the nature of the economic crisis. Fernand Braudel, J.I. Israel, Domeico Sella supported Hobsbawm who

termed the crisis as a complete economic crisis. He considered it as a crisis of production as it affected the trade, commerce and manufacturing. Scholars suggested that the economic setbacks were not uniform. A few industrial centres saw fundamental changes. Some centres lost their earlier dominance like Venice, Florence and Antwerp. Some recorded progress towards capitalist organization. Most parts of Germany, Mediterranean state and southern France recorded sharp fall. A few alternative centres of production emerged in each region. For example, the rise of textile industry in Prato and Sienna followed the decline of Florence in Italy. The rise of Amsterdam followed the decline of Antwerp in the north-western Europe. Europe saw major changes in cloth production. Textile industry functioned within the artisan form of production. The Italian cloth disappeared from the international trade. The Flemish wool industry saw long-term decline. Many textile centres of France like Rouen, Amiens also fell or stagnated. The textile sector in England and Holland recorded distinct growth in the sixteenth century and continued even in the seventeenth century. Leiden became one of the leading centres of industry and its population grew to almost 70,000 by mid-seventeenth century from about 12,000 in 1582. New draperies rise led to the English domination of the markets of Iberian Peninsula and the Mediterranean. The other regions failed to compete with the English products because of its price advantage. The decline of the traditional textile resulted in socio-economic dislocation and unemployment of artisans. The number of weavers in woollen textiles dropped by 1700 to hardly 10 per cent of what was a century back. The Spanish shipbuilding industry started falling from the 1590s. But the Dutch shipping industry grew very fast at that time and became the carrier of international cargo. The rise of the colonial empire encouraged the growth of the commercial fleet, which rose thrice between 1629 and 1686. Holland also became the centre of commercial activities like banking, insurance and stock exchange. According to Romano, the sixteenth century industrial and commercial expansion in Europe was supported by agricultural prosperity. The crisis was largely linked to the agricultural crisis. The Mediterranean and the Levant, two important trading zones of pre-sixteenth century, suffered during the seventeenth century. The Mediterranean could not supply bulk manufactured items while the Levant trade was adversely affected by the opening of new routes to Asia. In the sixteenth century, the European economy tried to break the medieval traditional structure to reach the capitalist mode of production. In most parts of Europe, the feudal social framework resisted that change. The seventeenth century crisis is seen by the