ISSN Print: 2394-7500
ISSN Online: 2394-5869
Impact Factor: 5.2
IJAR 2016; 2(11): 520-523
www.allresearchjournal.com
Received: 16-09-2016
Accepted: 17-10-2016

Dr. Ravinder Kumar
Assistant Professor in History, Government College Mahendragarh, Distt., Mahendragarh, State Haryana, India

Correspondence
Dr. Ravinder Kumar
Assistant Professor in History, Government College Mahendragarh, Distt., Mahendragarh, State Haryana, India

Mughal's relation with Portuguese

Dr. Ravinder Kumar

Abstract
The Italian merchants had recognized warehouses (factories) in Cairo and Alexandria to carry on trade and commerce. Following this instance the Portuguese, too, founded factories on the coastal regions of India and certain other places in Asia. Factory could be defined as a commercial organization having an autonomous subsistence set up within the country with which another country had commercial relations.
Each factory had an officer called factor who was assisted through a number of persons appointed through the Portuguese king. He was the agent of the Crown to promote economic, financial, and administrative activities of all sorts. In all situations Portuguese national interests were paramount thoughts. Factories also required protection from hostile elements. So, to consolidate and strengthen their power the Portuguese also attempted to fortify their factories.

Keywords: portuguese, mughal, factory

Introduction
A chain of factories and fortresses came into subsistence for the support of the maritime trade mannered through the Portuguese. These fortified centers were expected to serve the Portuguese to check the movements of vessels owned through the others and to function as areas for the reserve of military and naval forces. The system of factories had a great role to play in the commercial arrangements in the period beginning with the sixteenth century till the mid-eighteenth century.
In the Malabar region the Portuguese recognized their first factory in 1500 at Calicut. Though, it had a short-existed subsistence.
The Zamorins also did not allow the Portuguese to fortify their factories there. In 1525, finally, the Portuguese abandoned their construction at Calicut. Though, in the other regions, of Malabar coast, factories were recognized at Cochin (1501), Cannanore (1503), Quilon (1503), Chaliyam (1531), Rachol (1535), Crangannore (1536), Mangalore and Honaver (1568) and Bhatkal through the Portuguese.
All of these factories were fortified in due course. Nizam- ul Mulk of Ahmednagar also permitted the Portuguese to have a factor at Chaul in the second decade of the 16th Century. In the north-west, Cambay (Khambayat) was the main port of call on the route from Malacca connecting Calicut, the ports of the Red Sea and the Persian Gulf with the ports of the Mediterranean. Besides Cambay, the Portuguese also recognized their factories at Diu (1509, 1535), Bassin (1534), Surat, Daman (1599) and Bhavnagar. Therefore approximately the whole coastal belt of Malabar, Konkan, and north-west India was brought under the Portuguese power. Eastern India Direct contacts began to be recognized with the Eastern coast of India in the wake of the capture of Malacca and the beginning of the Portuguese settlement there. The Portuguese navigators came crossways many merchants from the Eastern coast of India who had trade relations with Malacca and other South East Asian centers.
The Portuguese composed textiles and other commodities from several port towns of the Coromandel Coast like Masulipatnam, Pulict, San Thome, Pondicherry, Cuddalore, Porto Novo, Nagapatnam, etc. The latter was a significant port for the Portuguese in their trade with Porto Novo, Malacca, Manila, and other region of the east. Meiliapore recognized as San Thome to the north of Nagapatnam, had also a Portuguese settlement which was bounded through walls.

The Portuguese also recognized a fortress at Manar in 1518 on the western coast of Ceylon. This fortress, though not on the main land of India, could control the movement of vessels to the East from the western side of the subcontinent. The Portuguese also tried to establish commercial contacts with Bengal from A.D. 1517. The first effort in this direction was made at Chittagong, the chief port of Bengal throughout this period. After much maneuvering, they at last obtained permission from Mahmud Shah, the king of Bengal, to erect factories at Chittagong and Satgaon in 1536. The second settlement at Hugli was granted to the Portuguese through Akbar in 1579-80.

The third one was recognized at Bandel through a Farman of Shahjahan in 1633. Yet, on the eastern coast throughout the 16th Century there were no fortresses as on the western coast. Still the settlements, with a few artillery, were able to overseas the movement of vessels carrying commodities. South-East Asia With a view to having an exclusive domination in excess of the trade in the Indian Ocean regions, the Portuguese found it necessary to bring under their control the significant trade centres in South East Asia.

The well-recognized maritime centre of Malacca was their target which they acquired in 1511. They recognized a few fortresses at Colombo, Batticola, Jafnapatam, etc. all in Ceylon. Subsequently, contacts with Java, Siam, Moluccas, Martaban, and Pegu were recognized. From 1518, the Portuguese started a settlement in China on the island of Sancheu. It was here that St. Francis Xavier, a Christian missionary, died in 1552. The starting of factories in several parts of the subcontinent of India and neighboring Asiatic kingdoms provided an environment appropriate for long aloofness trade to the Portuguese.

The chief aim of the Portuguese in discovering the sea-route connecting the East with Portugal was to collect spices directly from the places of production rather than from the hands of the intermediaries like the Italian or the Muslim traders. Pepper became a necessary ingredient in European food. The demand for pepper went on rising, especially for the sake of preserving meat. Besides, ginger, cinnamon, cardamom, mace, nutmeg, and many exotic herbs from the east had a market in Europe. A special diversity of textiles like Muslin, chintz, etc. and few animals like elephants, too, found their method to Portugal.

Review of Study

Alam *et al*. (1988) [1] described that overseas trade mannered in the sixteenth century in Asia in general and India in scrupulous was, through and large, of long-aloofness in nature involving the Asiatic ports on the one side and the Atlantic ports on the other. The commodities exported from India reached several parts of Europe. There were a number of elements in the pattern of this trade, as explained earlier, which distinguished it from just ―peddling‖ trade. In view of the greater demand for pepper, the cultivators strove to augment the production. It is calculated that the production of pepper in the Malabar area went up through 200 to 275 per cent in the period flanked by 1515 and 1607.

Ali *et al*. (2005) [2] described that as there is no reliable account of the volume of production before the arrival of the Portuguese, it is rather hard to create a comparison and assert with certainty the exact percentage of augment in production. At any rate, it is reasonable to conclude that the production of pepper in India increased after the Portuguese advent. But it necessity be borne in mind that the internal demand for pepper from the Mughal Empire and the external one from the Safavi Empire also might have contributed to the augment in pepper production in India.

Asher *et al*. (2008) [3] described that the Portuguese did not have enough commodities to exchange for those accessible in the East. Their commodities had a limited market in the middle of the eastern nobility. Hence valuable metals, especially silver, minted or in bullion; were brought to the East from the West for buying goods. Malabar and Konkan Coasts Pepper occupied the first place in the middle of the commodities traded from Malabar and the Konkan coasts. In the initial stage pepper from Malabar was measured to be distant better in excellence than that from Malacca, Java, and Canara. Towards the second half of the sixteenth century and the beginning of the seventeenth, pepper from Canara began to be exported in larger quantity than before. It is estimated that the Portuguese exported from Malabar in relation to the 25, 000 to 30,000 quintals of spices of all sorts annually to Lisbon in the first decade of the sixteenth century.

Jeremy *et al*. (2012) [4] described that through the end of the century, the contractors were given a targeted export of 30,000 quintals of pepper from the Malabar Coast to Lisbon. The records of the first half of the sixteenth century illustrate that 36,664 quintals of pepper was sent to Portugal from the Malabar and Konkan coasts in 1546. Ginger constituted another bulk item of trade from the Malabar Coast. It was accessible as conserve, too, for export. Cinnamon was another commodity exported from Malabar, though its excellence was not as good as that from Ceylon. White and red sandalwood also found their method to Portugal from the Malabar Coast. Besides these Myrobalans of all sorts were composed from Malabar, Dabul, Vijaynagar and Deccan in general for export to Portugal.

Stephen *et al*. (2009) [5] described that likewise sealing wax, indigo, spikenard, tamarind, arecanut, textiles, ivory and turmeric were other items that were exported in varying quantity to Portugal from the Malabar and Konkan coasts. Slaves, too, became a commercial commodity for export. The request made through the Zamorin of Calicut in 1498 to Vasco da Gama provides a clue to the commodities that were imported into the Malabar and Konkan coasts. He had asked for gold, silver, coral and scarlet.

Dale *et al*. (2009) [6] described that Afonso de Albuquerque, the Portuguese governor of Goa, gave a list of commodities to the king of Portugal in 1513 that could be marketed in India. This incorporated items like coral, copper, quicksilver, vermilion, brocades, velvet, carpets, safron, rose-water and cloths of several types. All these items were not from Portugal, but the Portuguese started procuring them from several places, like Flanders, Germany, England and other European countries. For instance, damask, lead, cinnabar, gold from Soffala, French and English linen clothes, alums tone, tin, opium, steel, Genwa velvet, scarlet from Florence, red cloth from London, cloths from Holland, raw and worked corals, etc. were brought to India.

William *et al*. (2007) [7] described that minted coins of several denominations were incorporated in this list. All these were brought to Cochin which was the commercial headquarter of the Portuguese in India. From there they were later sent to several parts of India. When the Portuguese headquarter was shifted to Goa, most of the significant articles like gold, silver and cash were taken there and sharing was done from there. North-Western India Indigo, textiles of several types, silk and curious items like handicrafts made of tortoise shells, etc. were composed from the North-western India for export to Portugal.

Finances of the Portuguese

Taking into account the details of the Portuguese enterprise on the Malabar Coast in the period flanked by 1500 and 1506, an Italian estimated in 1506 that the total investment needed for conducting trade with the East was 170,000 ducats every year. The king of Portugal provided only one-forth of this amount and the rest was raised through the merchants and financiers who collaborated with the Portuguese king. In 1500 he issued an order permitting native as well as foreign merchants to fit out their own vessels to the East. Revenues composed in the form of booty, tributes and taxes levied on ships of the private merchants also provided funds for the conduct of trade with India.

European Merchant-Financiers Italians, especially the Florentines, occupied a significant position in the middle of the financiers in the sixteenth century. Most of the Italian financiers concluded contracts with the Portuguese king. They supplied cash or materials to the king at Lisbon. The king used them to purchase pepper and other commodities from India. These commodities were given to these financiers at Lisbon in view of the contracts signed. Though, some of the financiers also sent their own factors to India. Cash or commodities were always sent under the supervision of the Portuguese authorities to the East.

Indian commodities also attracted the German financiers and merchants. The Portuguese king welcomed them with open arms for he himself was finding it hard to finance the Oriental enterprise on his own. Since copper was given in part payment for Indian commodities, especially pepper and other spices, large quantity of copper was needed for transactions. Some of the German merchant financiers like the Fuggers had a monopoly in excess of the production of copper in Europe. This turned out to be of great use for trade with India. The German financiers could fit out their vessels, entrust cash and commodities to the India House in Lisbon to be taken to India under the Portuguese flag and buy the commodities from Lisbon according to the conditions and circumstances of the contracts signed.

Throughout the second half of the sixteenth century both the Welsers and Fuggers joined the consortium beside with Giraldo Paris and Juan Battista Rovalesco for the purchase of 30,000 quintals of pepper directly from India and agreed to send an amount of 170,000 crusades to India annually. Therefore, the firms of Welsers and Fugger sustained to be closely associated with the trade of India. Separately from the Fuggers, other firms like those of Herwarts and Imhof were interested in trading several sorts of valuable stones and diamonds from Vijaynagar. There were a few Portuguese merchants who in their private capability participated in the trade with India throughout the sixteenth century.

State officials posted in India were also allowed to participate in the India trade. According to their position in the hierarchy, they had some rights to take certain quantity of commodities to Portugal, in lieu of remuneration in cash. The details of their entitlements were spelt out in their appointment orders and this shaped part of their emoluments. Indian Merchants and Rulers Many Indian merchants supplied commodities to the Portuguese on credit when the latter did not have cash or commodities to furnish in exchange. The merchants of Cochin, especially the Marakkars, were of great help to the Portuguese in this respect and their services were gratefully remembered through the Portuguese officials. Sometimes, the Portuguese king was persuaded to grant some privileges to such merchants. Some of the local rulers stood surety for the Portuguese when they did not have money to pay to the merchants for the commodities bought through them.

For instance, the king of Cochin came forward to help the Portuguese many times creation the required volume of commodities accessible to them on credit. The Portuguese had armed vessels plying in the Indian Ocean and the Arabian sea. Ships carrying commodities which were not given passes (cartaz) through the Portuguese officials were confiscated through them. The booty therefore obtained acquiesce a sizeable source of income which was again invested in trade. Defeated rulers were compelled to pay tributes to the Portuguese, either in cash or type. This source was also exploited through them many times for investment.

The persons interested in sending their ships to other parts of India or to Asian countries were required to take passes (cartaz) from the Portuguese for which a fee was charged. Though this was quite negligible in itself, such ships were obliged to visit any of the ports in India where the Portuguese had customs houses, and to pay taxes. This was another source of income for the Portuguese. Therefore, in a diversity of methods, the Portuguese organized funds for the running of their trade.

Significance of the Study

Right from the time Portuguese arrived at Calicut they had demanded that other merchants, Indian as well as foreign, should be ousted and a complete monopoly in excess of trade be granted to them. Portuguese ships equipped with arms and ammunitions threatened other merchants and confiscated their merchandise and vessels.

Through 1501 the Portuguese king assumed a grandiloquent title evincing his proprietary right in excess of the Indian Ocean regions. The title proclaimed him Lord of Navigation, Conquest and Commerce of Ethiopia, Arabia, Persia and India. In 1502, the Portuguese demanded an exclusive right in excess of trade at Calicut to which the Zamorin, the king of Calicut, did not yield. The Vasco da Gama declared war on all ships plying in the Arabian Sea and Indian Ocean. He introduced an expedient under which those ships which accepted a cartaz duly signed through the Portuguese authorities, namely the royal factor, were not to be attacked. This certificate was first issued in 1502.

Indian merchants, rulers and all those occupied in maritime trade, had to take cartaz from the Portuguese. While issuing such passes, it was specifically mentioned that certain items like pepper, horses, ginger, coir, ship pitch, sulphur, lead, saltpeter, cinnamon, etc. we're not to be loaded on their ships. All these were monopoly items of the Portuguese. Routes and destinations of such ships were also sought to be controlled. Rulers like Akbar, and his successors, Nizam Shah of Ahmednagar, Adil Shah of Bijapur, kings of Cochin, the Zamorins of Calicut and the rulers of Cannanore purchased passes from the Portuguese to send their ships to several places. Monopoly Trade Till the end of the fifteenth century, merchants from several quarters of the world were found on the coastal regions of India occupied in trade and commerce.

As Vasco da Gama reported in 1498, there were merchants from Mecca, Tenasseri, Pegu, Ceylon, Turkey, Egypt, Persia, Ethiopia, Tunis and several parts of India at the port of Calicut. It is well-recognized that Chinese merchants as well as merchants from the Red Sea areas used to frequent the Indian ports. There is no record of any group of merchants demanding exclusive right of trade in general, nor of any effort made to declare a few or all commodities set separately for anybody. But, with the arrival of the Portuguese, this state of affairs underwent considerable change. Kings were pressurised to forbid other merchants from trading with their ports. Likewise, certain commodities were declared forbidden to be traded through others.

In other words, the Portuguese demanded monopoly of trade. The treaties concluded with the Indian rulers specifically mentioned this. The setting up of Portuguese fortresses at strategic places, surveillance through their patrolling vessels, and the insistence on passes for other ships were the attempts made to establish monopoly of trade in Asian waters.

Conclusion

The Portuguese attempts at establishing total monopoly did not bring in relation to a situation in which trade mannered through the Indian rulers and merchants was totally uprooted. The king of Cannanore, for instance, used to collect passes from the Portuguese to send his vessels laden with commodities to Cambay and Hormuz. He imported horses from the above mentioned places though this was recognized through the Portuguese a monopoly item. Sometimes such vessels ran the risk of being confiscated through the Portuguese. The same was the case with the kings of Tanur, Challe and Calicut on the Malabar coast. The nobles of Gujarat sustained their trade despite the Portuguese monopoly.

Malik Gopi, Malik Ayaz, Khwaja Sofar and others interested in trade plied their ships with or without passes from the Portuguese. Besides, the local and foreign merchants settled in India accepted on their trade with or without cartaz. It was estimated that out of the 60,000 quintals of pepper produced annually in the area flanked by Calicut and Cape Comorin, only 15,000 quintals were delivered to the Portuguese factories and the remaining three-fourths were taken to other ports. This was termed illegal through the Portuguese.

The Portuguese were not willing to enhance the price of pepper agreed upon in 1503 even after many decades. Hence, the producers of pepper did not have any alternative other than supplying it to the merchants who might buy it and send it to other centres of trade without the knowledge of the Portuguese. Moreover, many Portuguese officials mannered their own private trade in several commodities without the knowledge of their government. In fact, Portuguese monopoly was never effective in the Red Sea zone.

References

1. Alam Muzaffar. Crisis of Empire in Mughal North India: Awadh & the Punjab, 1988; 1707-48.
2. Ali M Athar. The Passing of Empire: The Mughal Case", Modern Asian Studies, Cambridge University Press, 2005; 9(3):385-396, JSTOR 311728, on the causes of its collapse.
3. Asher CB, Talbot C. India Before Europe (1st ed.), Cambridge University Press, 2008; ISBN 978-0-521-51750-8.
4. Black Jeremy. The Mughals Strike Twice, History Today, 2012 62(4):22-26. full text online.
5. Blake Stephen P. The Patrimonial-Bureaucratic Empire of the Mughals. Journal of Asian Studies, Association for Asian Studies. 2009; 39(1):77-94, JSTOR 2053505.
6. Dale Stephen F. The Muslim Empires of the Ottomans, Safavids and Mughals, Cambridge U.P., 2009.
7. Dalrymple William. The Last Mughal: The Fall of a Dynasty: Delhi, 1857. Random House Digital, Inc., 2007.
8. Faruqui Munis D. The Forgotten Prince: Mirza Hakim and the Formation of the Mughal Empire in India. Journal of the Economic and Social History of the Orient, Brill. 2005; 48(4):487-523, JSTOR 25165118, on Akbar and his brother.
9. Gommans. Jos. Mughal Warfare: Indian Frontiers and Highroads to Empire, 1500-1700, Routledge, 2002.
10. Gordon S. The New Cambridge History of India, II, 4: The Marathas, 1600–1818, Cambridge, 1993.
11. Saqi Musta'id~han. Ma'asir-i 'Alamgiri, ed. Agha Ahmad Ali, Bib. Indi. Culcutta, 1710-11, 1870-3.
12. Muhammad BUkhtawar Khan. Mirat-ul 'Alam, 4 vols. Lahore, 1979.