**Chapter One: Early Modern Europe (c.1450-1789)**

**The Economic, Social and Political Structure of Early Modern Europe**

* 1. **Introduction**

Despite progress in the Middle Ages Europe at the beginning of early modern period was still an **undeveloped continent showing some of the characteristic of third world countries of today**. There was wide spread poverty, levels of literacy was still low, technology was still quite low, and productivity was therefore low including in agriculture. Birth and death rates were higher in modern times though the birth rate was lower than the biological maximum and lower than in most other societies of the time. Europe was still vulnerable to famine and the vulnerability continued in much of Europe into the 19th c., especially Eastern Europe and parts of southern Europe. Europe was also vulnerable to epidemic disease though the great late medieval killer disease bubonic plague disappeared from Western Europe in the 17th c. though not from Eastern Europe. Another characteristic of developing societies which Europe had in the early modern period was that the majority of the people lived in the country side and that the largest sector of the economy was agriculture.

* 1. **Economy**

Agriculture was the dominate sector east of the river Elbe. Feudal conditions in agriculture continued and intensified. East of the Elbe there were great landlord estates with big **demesnes** (manorial land actually possessed by the lord and not held by free tenants) cultivated by the labor of serfs. In Poland and Russia the power of lords over their serfs was almost absolute. West of the river Elbe, selfdom and unpaid labor for landlords and demesnes declined and largely disappeared. In the late middle Ages and after nearly medieval period lords no longer kept demesnes under their own direct control but rented out their land to peasants for **money rent** or in **sharecropping**. Some peasants owned their land. However peasants’ conditions were often harsh. **Peasants pay taxes to the state and compulsory church tax (tithe)**. Peasants who were tenants paid rent to landlords. Manorial lords had the right to collect customary “feudal dues” from the peasants who lived on their manor even from peasants who owned their own land. In add the rising population meant pressure on land available which meant increased rents and smaller peasant farms. Many peasants could not subsist and met their financial obligation from the income they could earn from the lord alone. They therefore engaged in **part-timerural industry** or went to the towns for **seasonal work**. Others worked for wages for big farmers to supplement their income.

Two areas the Netherlands and from the 16th c. on wards parts of England had more developed and productive agriculture and in these areas feudal conditions disappeared.

* 1. **Trade/Commerce**

The most dynamic sector of the early modern European economy was trade and because of the discoveries by the end of the early modern period European maritime countries were trading all over the world. Some merchants accumulated great wealth from overseas trade and some of the richest merchants turned to banking and other financial operations including loans to governments which could be very profitable but was also risky. Merchant capitalism was dominated. That is, merchants not only bought and sold commodities but organized manufacture/industry as well. The principal hindrance to the growth of trade in the early modern period was the **inadequacy of internal transport**. Roads were bad though improvement being in the 18th c. and in most countries there were frequent internal loll on goods carried by rood or river

* 1. **Economic Policies of Governments**

The economic policy of some early modern governments is known as **mercantilism**. This meant governments encouraging the export of manufactures and discouraging the import of manufactures. Countries with overseas calories (for example, France, England, Spain and Portugal) exploited them for the benefit of the metropolitan country. For example, colonies were only allowed to trade with the metropolitan country and colonies could be useful export markets for the manufactures of the metropolitan countries. Tropical and semi-tropical colonies which produced for example sugar and coffee were valued the most. The West Indian colonies of France and Britain were highly valued and wars were fought for the possession of these colonies. Mercantilism was based on the idea that one country could not expand its economic except at the expense of others. Mercantilism was practiced in the context of inter sate rivalry and frequent war between states. However in the 2nd half of the 18th c. the ideas of political economist in Britain and France were changing. In 1776 the Scottish political economist Adam Smith in his very influential book, ***The Wealth of Nations***, attacked mercantilism and to a large extent advocated free trade. That is trade between countries without government restrictions and prohibition on such trade. Internally Smith argued for laissez-faire (leave alone) which meant that government should interfere as little as possible with manufacture, internal trade and the workings of the economy in general. Adam Smith was the most important founder of what is known as **liberal economics** also called **classical economics** or what we now called **a free market economy**. Smith believed that free trade would benefit all countries, hence the wealth of nations.

* 1. **Industry:- Production of Physical Commodities**

Industry was still mainly carried on by hand methods and small craft workshops. The family was the basic unit of production in these small workshops. **Human strength and human skill** were more important than industrial equipment. Merchants organized and dominated production in small workshops for distant markets by providing a link between workshop production and the final consumers. Merchants supplied saw materials, bought the finished products, provide credit for the small scale producers and marketed the finished products of industry. Much industrial system in the 17th and 18th cs. was organized under what is known as the “**putting out system**”. Merchant capitalist put out (issued) raw materials to small producers dispersed over a wide area and then when the work is done the merchant capitalists collected the finished products from the small workshops especially in the textile industry but in others also. Many of the stages of production were carried out by the part-time work of peasants in the country side under the putting out system because the putting system operated in the country side as well as in towns. Merchants expanded production by employing cheap rural labor of peasants. Peasants took part- time work from merchant capitalists because peasants with insufficient land needed extra income which they could earn in rural industry. The work was done in part-time and especially in the slack seasons of the agricultural year especially in winter.

There was some large scale industry in the 18th c. Some quite large scale enterprises came into existence called manufactories. These manufactories were owned and run by individual capitalist. The owners of the manufactories employed quite large numbers of wage workers and in the manufactories each worker engaged in one single step in the process of production which speeded up production. However, the work was still done by hand or hand operated equipment. By 1815 there were some modern factories chiefly in Britain because of the beginning of the **Industrial Revolution**. These factories had machines operated by **inanimate power** from either **water or steam power**. There were also some large enterprises in mining, ship building and sometimes government arsenals.

* 1. **Social and Political Structures**

**Social structures**

With few exceptions for example the Dutch Republic early modern Europe was dominated by the **nobility** as if had been in the middle ages. The nobility owned its position to its traditional prestige, its traditional warrior status but above all to owner ship of much of the land. Land was still the principal form of wealth and almost all nobles owned land though not all nobles were rich. Ownership of land besides its economic advantage also gave political power and influence at all levels and also gave social status and social leadership. In Europe nobility was hereditary but rulers could and often did raise commoners to the rank of nobles in return from administrative or military services or even money. Nobles had many legal privileges of which the most important and valuable was exemption or partial exemption from direct taxation. The clergy were also privileged and enjoyed similar tax privileges in most countries. It was only in Britain that the nobility did not have tax exemption. Nevertheless in Britain the nobility was rich and powerful. Nobles (of Europe in general) also enjoyed better opportunities than others for employment in some of the best positions in the church and the state. Nobles also supplied high proportion of officers in the armed forces (army/navy) and had better opportunities for promotion.

**Peasants** were the most numerous part of the commoners in all societies but the leading element of the people below the nobles was the **bourgeoisie** at its higher levels. The bourgeoisie was an urban class but some of the bourgeoisie owned land outside the towns. The bourgeois were merchants and organized manufacture and the richest of them became bankers and financiers. Many of the bourgeois were also lawyers and they held government posts. The bourgeoisies in within Europe was increasing in numbers and wealth. However the bourgeoisie in general still accepted a position of inferiority in relation to the nobility. If a bourgeois family succeeded in achieving wealth its aim was usually to gain noble status. Early modern Europe had hierarchical societies where social differences with legal privileges and legal inequalities were usually accepted until the **French Revolution** as part of the natural God given order of society. Social superiors expected and usually got respect and deference. Social inferiors were expected to obey their “betters” and usually did so. In Eastern Europe society was extremely rigid and consisted mainly of nobles upper top and serfs at the bottom. In Western Europe as merchant capitalism developed there was more social and geographical mobility with more opportunities though less than today of rising in wealth and status or of course falling.

**Political structures, Absolute Monarchy**

The period from about the mid-17th c. to 1789 is often called the **age of absolutism or absolute monarchy**. Absolute monarchy meant that rulers were not subject to legal/formal constitutional limitations on their authority. Rulers had been increasing their power within their own states in the later middle ages and this process continued in the early modern period. In particular rulers were able to exert more control over their nobility so that great nobles were no longer able to rebel with any hope of success and great nobles could no longer have their own private feudal armies and fight against each other. Absolute monarchs claimed to receive their authority directly from God and to be responsible to God alone not their people. This is often called “**divine right**” (monarchy/king ship).

The power of rulers was increasing for several reasons. First as the economy of Western Europe grew rulers were able to extract more money from their subjects in taxation. Richer rulers were stronger rulers because they used their increased revenues to establish armies and bureaucracies. In Russia the economy was not developing so fast but crushing taxation on the people mainly the peasants gave the Russian absolute monarchy the resources to maintain itself and make Russia a great power in military terms. Second, bureaucracies became larger and more efficient and loyal official were the instruments through whom rulers implemented their policies and extend control over their states. Third rulers from about the middle of the 17th c. built up regular standing armies. That is armies which were present in peacetime as well as in war time and consisting of regular full time soldiers commanded by regular full time career officers. These were modern type armies. They were paid by the ruler and belonged personally to the ruler. The rulers now had a monopoly of armed force within their own states. The development of such armies from about 1500- c.1789 is often called the “**military revolution**”. The military revolution also meant the development of better firearms both muskets and cannon. The military revolution also meant that military discipline and logistics improved and that armies became much bigger even in peace time. Some maritime states for example the Dutch Republic, France and Britain also establish regular permanent navies. Armies of course could be used not only for defense and aggression but also to enforce the will of the ruler within his own country. Fourth the rise of nationalism gave support to rulers of national states because nationalism strengthened loyalty to a national king. Established official churches, Catholic and Protestant taught the people the duty of unconditional obedience to the ruler and that to rebel against the ruler was to rebel against God himself.

The most absolute monarchy in Europe was **Russia**. The **tsar** (emperor) recognized no rights of any one even the nobility against himself. Russia was, therefore, a complete autocracy. In Western Europe **Louis XIV** (14th) of France (r.1643-1715) the “sun king” and his court at Versailles were the absolutist models for other rulers in the west.

However absolute monarchy in theory and political realities were different. Although rulers were more powerful than before they were not as powerful as modern dictators. Distance and bad communication made effective control difficult especially in large states. Rulers depended on the cooperation or at least the acceptance of their elites especially the nobility. Nobles provided a large part of the personnel in the state administration. They provided a large part of the officers of the armed forces. The influence of the nobility was also still strong in the provinces. It was, therefore, impossible for rulers to carry out policies effectively which were against the interests and wishes of the elites especially the nobles. Sensible rulers also know that it was difficult even dangerous to go against the established customers and privileges of particular provinces.

**Not Absolute**

Not all Europe was under absolute monarchy. A few states for example Venice and the Dutch Republic were not monarchies but republics. However these republics were not democratic but highly oligarchic (power in the hands of the small). Britain after the **1688 Revolution** was a constitutional monarchy even though there was no written constitution. After 1688 the power of the king was limited by the existence and rights of parliament. Parchment had the right to approve all legislation (making laws) and taxation. However the British parchment was not democratically elected. It represented mainly the land owners and to some extent the interest of the merchant and manufacturing class.

In Poland the rulers in the 18th c. lost almost all their power which increasingly came in to the hands of still feudal nobility. As a result the central government became very weak and Poland became so weak externally that Poland was partitioned by its powerful neighbors Russia, Austria and Prussia. In 1772, 1793 and finally in 1795 Poland disappeared from the political map of Europe until the end of W.W.I.

**Chapter Two: Voyages of Exploration and Discoveries**

**Introduction**

**Europe explores the Seas**

Europeans had traded with Asia for long before the Renaissance. The crusades introduced Europeans to many luxury goods from Asia. Later, when the Mogul empire united much of Asia in the 1200s and 1300s, Asian goods flowed to Europe along complex overland trade routes.

The Black Death and the breakup of the Mogul Empire destroyed trade. By the 1400s though, Europe was recovering from the plague. As its population grew, so did the demand for trade goods. The most valued items were spices, such as cinnamons, cloves, nutmeg, and pepper. These were used to preserve food, add flavor to dried and salted meat, and make medicines and perfumes.

**Motives:** in the 1400s, Muslim and Italian merchants controlled most trade between Asia and Europe. Muslim traders brought prized goods to eastern Mediterranean ports. Traders from Venice and other Italian cities then carried the precious cargoes to European markets. Europeans however wanted to gain **direct access to the riches of Asia.** To do so the Atlantic powers – first Portugal, then Spain – sought a route to Asia that bypasses the Mediterranean.

The other motive was: some voyages were still fired by the century’s old desire to crusade against the Muslims. The Renaissance spirit of inquiry further fired people’s desire to learn more about the lands beyond Europe.

**Improved Technologies:** several improvements in technology helped Europeans to conquer the vast oceans of the world. **Cartographers**, or map makers, created more accurate maps and sea charts. European sailors also learned to use the **astrolabe**, an instrument developed by ancient Greeks and perfected by the Arabs, to determine their latitude at the sea.

Along with more reliable navigational tools, Europeans designed larger and better ships. The Portuguese developed the **Caravel,** which combined the square sails of Europeans ships with Arab **lateen,** or triangular, sails.

**Portugal Sails Eastward**

Portugal, a small nation on the western age of Spain, led the way in exploration. By the 1400s, Portugal was strong enough to expand into Muslim North African coast. The victory sparked the imagination of Prince Henry, known to history as **Henry the Navigator**.

At **Sarges,** in southern Portugal, Henry gathered scientists, cartographers, and other experts. They redesigned ships, prepared maps, and trained captains and crews for long voyages. Henry then sent out ships that slowly worked their way south to explore the western coast of Africa.

Henry died in 1460, but the Portuguese continued their quest. In 1488, Bartholomeau Dias rounded the southern tip of Africa. Despite the turbulent seas, the tip became known as the **Cape of Good Hope** because it opened the way for a sea route to Asia.

**On to India:** in 1497, Vasco da Gama led four ships around the Cape of Good Hope. After a 10 month voyage, da Gama finally reached the great spice port of **Calicut** on the west coast of India. Da Gama quickly outfitted a new fleet. In 1502, he forced a treaty of friendship on the ruler of Calicut. Soon, the Portuguese seize key ports around the Indian Ocean to create a vast trading empire.

**Columbus Sails to the West**

News of Portugal’s successes spurred other nations to look for a sea route to Asia. An Italian navigator from the port of Genoa, Christopher Columbus, sought Portuguese backing for his own plan. He wanted to reach the **Indians** (or East Indies was the European name for a group of islands in Southeast Asia. Today, they are a part of Indonesia).

**Voyages of Columbus:** after Portugal refused to help him, Columbus persuaded Ferdinand and Isabella of Spain to finance his “enterprise of the Indies” in1492, the catholic rulers had driven the Muslims from their last stronghold in Spain. To strengthen their power they sought new sources of wealth. Queen Isabella was also anxious to spread Christianity in Asia.

Columbus spent several months crossing the islands of the Caribbean. Because he thought he had reached the Indies, he called the people of the region Indians. In 1493, he returned to Spain to a hero’s welcome.

**Line of Demarcation:** Spain and Portugal pressed rival claims to the lands Columbus explored. In 1493, **Pope Alexander VI** stepped into keep the peace. He set a Line of Demarcation dividing the non-European world into two zones. Spain had trading and exploration rights in any lands west of the line. Portugal had the same rights east of the line.

**Naming the “New World”** In 1507 a German cartographer read reports about the “New World” written by an Italian sailor, **AmerigoVispucci**. The map maker labeled the region America. The islands Columbus had explored in the Caribbean became known as the **West Indies**.

**Circumnavigating the Globe**

On September 20, 1519, a minor Portuguese noble named Ferdinand Magellan set out from Spain with five ships. His crew included men from Europe, Africa, and Southeast Asia. In November 1520, Magellan’s ships entered the bay at the southern tip of South America. Amid brutal storms, rushing tides, and unpredictable winds, Magellan charted a passage that became known as the **Strait of Magellan.** The ships emerged from this lashing into **Balboa’s South Sea,** which Magellan renamed the **Pacific – Peaceful – Ocean.**

Magellan soon found the Pacific was much wider than he imagined. For nearly four months, the ship plowed across the uncharted ocean. Finally in March 1521, the fleet reached the **Philippines.** There, Magellan was killed when he got involved in a local conflict. In the end, only one ship and 18 sailors completed the voyage. On September 8, 1522, nearly three years after setting out, the survivors reached **Seville.** The Spanish hailed them as the first people to **circumnavigate, or** sail around, the world.

**Conquest of the Americas**

**First Encounters –** in 1492, Christopher Columbus landed in the islands that are now called the West Indies, in the Caribbean. There, he encountered the **Taino**people. The Tainos lived in villages and grew corn, yams, and cotton, which they wove into cloth. They were friendly and generous toward the Spanish.

Friendly relations soon evaporated, however. Spanish **Conquistadors,** or conquerors, followed in the wake of Columbus. They settled on the islands of **Hispaniola** (now the Dominican Republic and Haiti), Cuba, and Puerto Rico. They seized the gold ornaments worn by the Tainos and forced them to convert to Christianity.

**The Conquistadors**

From Cuba, Spanish explorers probed the coasts of the Americas. They spread stories of empires in gold. Attracted by the promises of riches as well as by religious zeal, a flood of adventurers soon followed.

**Cortes in Mexico –** among the earliest conquistadors was Hernan Cortes. Cortes landed on the coast of Mexico in 1519 with about 600 men, 16 horses, and a few cannons. As he landed inland toward Tenochtitlan, he was helped by **Malinche,** a young Indian woman who served as his translator and advisor.

In 1521, in a brutal struggle, Cortes and his Indian allies captured and demolished Tenochtitlan. On the ruins of this city, the Spanish later built Mexico City.

**Pizzaro in Peru -** Cortes’s success inspired other adventurers. Among them was Francisco Pizzaro. He arrived in Peru in 1532, just after the Incan ruler Atahualpa won the throne from his brother in a bloody civil war. A civil war is fought between groups of people in the same nation.

Helped by Indian allies, Pizzaro captured Atahualpa after slaughtering thousands of his followers, despite continuing resistance; the invaders overrun the Incan heartland. From Peru, Spanish forces surged across Ecuador and Chile. Before long, Spain added much of South America to its growing empire.

**Reasons for Victory**

How a few hundred European soldiers could conquer huge Native American empires with populations in the millions? Several reasons explain the amazing Spanish success.

1. Superior military technology was a key factor. The Spaniards’ horses frightened some Indians. Spanish muskets and cannons killed Indian soldiers. Melted helmets and armor protected the Spanish from the Indians’ arrows and spears.
2. Division and discontent among the Indians aided the Spanish. The Spanish won allies by playing an old hatred among rival Indian groups. In fact, Indians provided Cortes and Pizzaro with much of their fighting power.
3. Disease brought by the Europeans weakened the Aztecs and Incas. As tens of thousands of Indians died, some of the bewildered and demoralized survivors felt that their gods were less powerful than the god of their conquerors.
4. Many Indians believed that the disasters they suffered marked the world’s end. To Aztec’s, the destruction of Tenochtitlan signaled the end of the reign of the sun god. Native Americans continued to resist the invaders. Throughout the Americans, Indians resisted Europeans by reserving aspects of their own culture, such as language, religious tradition and clothing.

**Colonial Society and Culture**

In Spanish America, the mix of diverse peoples gave rise to new social structure. The blending of Native American, African and European peoples and traditions resulted in a new American culture.

**Societal Structure –** at the top of colonial society were **peninsulares,** people born in Spain. (The term peninsular referred to the **Iberian Peninsula** on which Spain is located). Peninsulares filled the highest positions in both colonial governments and the Catholic Church.

Next came **creoles**, American-born descendants of Spanish settlers. Creoles owned most of the plantations, ranches, and mines.

Other social groups reflected the mixing of populations. They included: **mestizos**, people of Native American and European descent, and **mulattoes**, people of African and European descent. Native Americans and peoples of African descent formed the lowest social classes.

**The 13 English Colonies**

The English built their first permanent colony at **Jamestown**, **Virginia**, in 1607. Its early years were filled with disaster. Many settlers died of starvation and disease. The rest survived with the help of friendly Native Americans. The colony finally made headway when the settlers started to grow and export **tobacco**, a crop they learned about from the Indians.

In 1620, other English settlers, the **Pilgrims**, landed at **Plymouth**, Massachusetts. They were seeking religious freedom, rather than commercial profit. Many Pilgrims died in the early years of the Plymouth colony. Local Indians, however, taught them to grow corn and helped them survive in the new land. Soon, a new wave of **Puritan** immigrants arrived to establish the **MassachusettsBay Colony.**

**Africa**

European Outposts in Africa – in the 1400, Portuguese ships explored the coast of West Africa, looking for a sea route to India. They built small forts along the West African coast to trade for gold, collect food and water, and repair their ships.

The Portuguese lacked the power to push into the African interior. They did, however, attacked the coastal cities of East Africa, such as Mombasa and Malindi, which were hubs of international trade.

Other Europeans soon followed the Portuguese into Africa. The Dutch, the English, and the French established forts along the western coast of Africa. Like the Portuguese, they exchanged muskets, tools, and cloth for gold, ivory, hides, and slaves.

The Atlantic Slave Trade – in the 1500s, Europeans began to view slaves as the most important items of African trade. Slavery had existed in Africa, as elsewhere around the world, since ancient times. Our world **slave** comes from the large numbers of **Slavs** taken from southern Russia to work as unpaid labourers in Roman times.

**Chapter Three: The Renaissance**

**The Ottoman and Safavid Empires**

While the Mughals ruled India, two other dynasties: the Ottomans and Safavids, dominated the Middle East and parts of Eastern Europe. All three empires owed much of their success to new weapons.

In 1453, Ottoman cannons blasted gaps in the great defensive walls of Constantinople. Later, muskets gave greater firepower to ordinary foot soldiers, thus reducing the importance of mounted warriors. The new military technology helped the Ottomans and Safavids create strong central governments. As a result, this period from about 1450 to 1650 is sometimes called “**the age of gunpowder empires**”**.**

**Extending the Ottoman Empire –** the ottomans were yet another Turkish-speaking nomadic people who had migrated from **Central Asia** into northwestern Asia Minor. In the 1300s, they expanded across Asia Minor and into southeastern Europe. They established a capital in the **Balkan Peninsula.**

**Fall of Constantinople -** Ottoman expansion threatened the crumbling **Byzantine Empire.** After several failed attempts to capture Constantinople, Muhammad II finally succeeded in 1453. In the next 200 years, the Ottoman Empire continued to expand.

**Suleiman –** the Ottoman Empire enjoyed its golden age under the Sultan Suleiman, who ruled from 1520 to 1566, called **Suleiman the Magnificent** by westerners, he was known to his people as the **“Lawgiver”**. A brilliant general, Suleiman modernized the army and conquered many new lands. He extended Ottoman rule eastwards into Mesopotamia, and also into **Kurdistan** and **Georgia** into the **Caucasus Mt**. region. In the west, Suleiman advanced deeper into Europe. He was able to gain control of nearly all of Hungary through diplomatic and warfare.

In 1529, his armies besieged the Austrian city of Vienna sending waves of fear through Western Europe. Although they failed to take Vienna, the ottomans ruled the largest, most powerful empire in both Europe and the Middle East for centuries. At its height, the empire stretched from Hungary to Arabia and Mesopotamia and across North Africa.

**Ottoman Culture**

Suleiman was a wise and capable ruler. He strengthened the government of the rapidly growing empire and improved its system of justice. As Sultan, Suleiman had absolute power, but he ruled with the help of a **grand vizier** and a **council**.

Societal Organization – the Ottomans divided their subjects into four classes, each with its appointed role.

At the top were **“men of the pen”** such as scientists, lawyers, judges and poets. **“Men of sword” –** soldiers who guarded the sultan and defended the state. Below them are **“men of negotiation”,** such as merchants, tax collectors, and artisans, who carried out trade and production, and **“men husbandry”** that included farmers and herders who produced food for the community.

The ottomans ruled diverse peoples who had many religions. The men of the sword and men of the pen were almost all Muslims, while the other classes included non-Muslims as well. Non-Muslims were organized into **millets** or religious communities. These included Greek Christians, Armenian Christians, and Jews. Each millet had its own religious leaders who were responsible for education and some legal matters.

**Janizaries/Janissaries –** like earlier muslim empires, the Ottomans recruited officers for the army and government from among the huge populations of conquered peoples in their empire. The Ottomans levied “tax” on Christian families in the Balkans, requiring them to turn over their young sons to the government.

The boys were converted to Islam and put into rigorous military training at the palace school. The best soldiers won a prize place in the janizaries, the elite force of the ottoman army. The brightest students received special education to become government officials. They might serve as judges, poets, or even grand vizier.

Like the boys, non-Muslim girls from Eastern Europe were brought to serve as slaves in wealthy Muslim households. There, they might be accepted as members of the household. Some of the enslaved girls were freed after the death of their masters.

**Decline –** by the 1700s, European advances in both commerce and military technology were leaving the Ottomans behind. When European industry and trade pressed ahead, the aging Ottoman Empire remained dependent on agriculture. Russia and other European powers chipped away at Ottoman lands, while local rulers in North Africa and elsewhere broke away from ottoman control. From time to time, able sultans tried to revive ottoman power, butt with limited success.

**Renaissance in Italy**

**The Italian City-States**

The Renaissance began in Italy, and then spread north to the rest of Europe. Italy was the birthplace of the Renaissance for several reasons.

**Why Italy?** The Renaissance was marked by a new interest in the culture of ancient Rome. Because Italy had been the center of the Roman Empire, it was a local place for this reawakening to begin. Architectural remains, coins, and inscriptions are examples.

Italy differed from the rest of Europe in other ways. Its cities survived the middle Ages. In the north, city-states like Florence, Milan, Venice, and Genoa grew into prosperous centers of trade and manufacturing. Rome, in central Italy, and Naples, in the south, along with a number of smaller city-states, also contributed to the Renaissance cultural revival.

A wealthy and powerful merchant class in these city-states further promoted the cultural rebirth.

* + - * They exerted both political and economic leadership
      * They stressed education and individual achievement
      * They spent lavishly support the arts

**Florence and the Medicis –** Florence, perhaps more than any other city, came to symbolize the energy and brilliance of the Italian Renaissance. Like the ancient city of Athens, it produced a dazzling number of gifted poets, artists, architects, scholars, and scientists in a short span of time.

**What is the Renaissance?**

The Renaissance was a time of creativity and change in many areas- political, social, economic, and cultural. Perhaps most important, however, were the changes that took place in the way people viewed themselves and their world.

**A New Worldview –** spurred by a reawakened interest in the classical learning of Greece and Rome, creative Renaissance minds set out to transform their own age. Their era, they felt, was a time of rebirth after what they saw as the disorder and disunity of the medieval world.

In reality, Renaissance Europe did not break completely with its medieval past. After all, monks and scholars of the Middle Ages had preserved much of the classical heritage. Latin language, mathematics of Euclid and the astronomy of Ptolemy and works of Aristotle were known.

Yet the Renaissance did produce new attitudes toward culture and learning. Unlike medieval scholars, who were more likely to focus on life after death. Renaissance thinkers explore the richness and variety of human experience in the here and now. All the same time, there was a new emphasis on individual achievement. Instead, the Renaissance ideal was the person with talent in many fields.

**A Spirit of Adventure –** the Renaissance supported a spirit of adventure and a wide-ranging curiosity that led people to explore new worlds. The Italian navigator Christopher Columbus, who sailed to the Americas in 1492, represented that spirit.

**Humanism –** at the heart of the Italian Renaissance was an intellectual movement known as humanism. Based on the study of classical culture, humanism focused on worldly subjects rather than religious issues that had occupied medieval thinkers. Most humanist scholars were pious Christians who helped to use the wisdom of the ancient to increase their understanding of their own times.

Humanists believed that education should stimulate the individual’s creative powers. They returned to the humanities, the subjects taught in ancient Greek and Roman schools. The main areas of study were grammar, rhetoric, poetry, and history, based on Greek and Roman texts. Humanists did not accept the classical texts without question, however. Rather, they studied the ancient authorities in light of their own experiences.

Francesco Petrarch, a Florentine who lived in the 1300s was an early Renaissance humanist. In monasteries and churches, he found and assembled a library of Greek and Roman manuscripts.

**A Golden Age in the Arts**

The Renaissance attained its most glorious expressions in its paintings, sculpture, and architecture. Wealthy patrons played a major in this artistic flowering. These patrons include popes, princes, and wealthy and powerful women such as Isabella d’Este of Mantua.

1. Humanist Concerns – Renaissance art reflected humanist concerns. Renaissance artists portrayed religious figures such as Jesus and Mary against Greek or Roman backgrounds. Painters also produced portraits of well-known figures of the day, reflecting the humanist interest in individual achievement.
2. New Technologies – Roman art had been very realistic, and Renaissance painters developed new technologies for representing both humans and landscapes in a realistic way. Renaissance artists learned the rules of **perspective.** By making distant objects smaller than those closer to the viewer, artists could paint scenes that appeared three-dimensional.
3. Women artists – Some women overcome the limits on education and training to become professional artists. In the 1500s, **SofonisbaAnguissola,** an Italian noblewoman, became court painter to King Philip II of Spain.
4. **Architecture** – Renaissance architects rejected the Gothic style of the late Middle Ages as clustered and disorderly. Instead, they adopted the **columns, arches,** and **domes** that had been favoured by the Greeks and Romans.

**Three Geniuses Renaissance Art**

Renaissance Florence was home to many outstanding painters and sculptures. The three most celebrated Florentine masters were Leonardo da Vinci, Michelangelo, and Raphael.

**Leonardo -**  Leonardo da Vinci was born in 1452. His exploring mind and endless curiosity fed a genius invention. He made sketches of native and of models in his studio.

Today, people admire Leonardo’s paintings for their freshness and realism. Most popular is the **Mona Lisa**, a portrait of a woman whose mysterious smile has baffled viewers for centuries.

The **Last Supper**, showing Christ and his apostles on the night before Crucification, is both a moving religious painting and a masterpiece of perspective. Because Leonardo was experimenting with a new type of paint, much of the Last Supper decoyed over the years, but it has recently been restored. He was an artist, but also- had talents in anatomy, optics, music, architecture and engineering.

**Michelangelo - like** Leonardo, Michelangelo was a many-sided genius sculpture, engineer, painter, architect, and poet. As a young man, he shaped a marble into masterpieces like the **pieta,** which captures the sorrow of Mary as she cradles the dead Christ on her knees. **Statue of David,** the biblical shepherd who killed the giant **Goliath,** recalls the harmony and grace of an ancient Greek tradition.

One of Michelangelo’s greatest projects was painting a huge mural to decorate the ceiling of the **Sistine Chapel** in Rome. It was an enormous task, depicting the biblical history of the world, from the Creation to the Flood. It took him four years.

He was also a talented architect. His most famous design was the dome of **St. Peter’s Cathedral** in Rome.

**Raphael** – a few years younger than Leonardo and Michelangelo, Raphael studied the works of those great masters. His painting blended Christian and classical styles. He is probably best known for his tendr portrayals of the **Madonna, the mother of Jesus.**

In the **School of Athens** Raphael pictures an imaginary gathering of great thinkers and scientists, such as Plato, Aristotle, Socrates, and the Arab philosopher Averroes. With typical Renaissance self-confidence Raphael included the faces of Michelangelo, Leonardo – and himself.

**Italian Renaissance Writers**

**Castiglione’s ideal Courtier –** the most widely read of these handbooks was the **Book of the Courier.** Its author, Baldassare Castiglione, describes the manners, skills, learning, and virtues that a member of the court should have. Castiglione’s ideal courtier was a well-educated, well-mannered aristocrat who mastered many fields, from poetry to music to sports.

**Machiavelli’s Successful prince –** Niccolo Machiavelli wrote a different kind of handbook. Machiavelli had served Florence as a diplomat and had observed kings and princes in foreign courts. He also has studied ancient Roman history. In **The Prince,** published in 1513, Machiavelli combined his personal experience of politics with his knowledge of the past to offer a guide to rulers on how to gain and maintain power.

Unlike earlier political writers, such as Plato, Machiavelli did not discuss leadership in terms of high ideas. Instead, The Prince looked at real rulers, such as the Medicis, in an age of ruthless power politics. Machiavelli stressed that the end justifies the means. He urged the rulers to use whatever methods were necessary achieve their goals. On the issue of honesty in government, for example, he taught that getting results was more important than keeping promises.

**Artists of the Northern Renaissance –** the northern Renaissance began in the prosperous cities of Flanders, a region that included parts of present-day northern France, Belgium, and the Netherlands. France, Germany, and England enjoyed their great cultural rebirth 100 years later, in the 1500s.

**Writers for the New Audience -** Scholars like **More**and **Erasmus** wrote mostly in Latin. In northern towns and cities, the growing middle class demanded new works in the **vernacular**. This audience particularly enjoyed dramatic tales and earthly comedies. .

**Rabelais -** the French humanist François Rabelais had a varied career as a monk, physician, Greek scholar, and author. In **Gargantua** and **Pantagruel,** he chronicles the adventures of two gentle giants. On the surface, the novel is a comic tale of travel and war. But Rabelais uses his characters to offer opinions on religion, education, and other serious subjects.

**Shakespeare –** the towering figure of Renaissance literature was the English poet and playwright William Shakespeare. Between 1550 and 1613, he wrote 37 lays that are still performed around the world.

Comedies – Twelfth Night, laugh at the follies of young people in love.

History plays – Richard III, depict the power struggles of English kings.

Tragedies – Romeo and Juliet, two teenagers fall victim to an old family feud.

**Cervantes -** the Renaissance in Spain in the early 1600s also led to the production of great work. Best known is **Don Quixote**, by **Miguel de Cervantes**, an entertaining tale that mocks romantic notions of medieval chivalry. The novel follows the adventures of Don Quixote, a foolish but idealistic knight, and Sancho Panza, his faithful servant.

**The Printing Revolution**

In 1456, john Gutenberg of Mainz, Germany, printed the first complete edition of the Bible using the first printing press and printing inks in the West. Within twenty years, the development of movable type made book production even easier. A printing revolution had begun that would transform Europe. By 1500, more than 20 million volumes had been printed.

Gutenberg and his successors built on earlier advances. Methods of making paper had reached Europe from China about 1300. The Chinese and Koreans had been using movable metal type for centuries, although Europeans may have developed their technology independently.

The printing revolution brought immense changes. Printed books were cheaper and easier to produce than hand-copied works. With books more readily available, more people learned to learn. Printed books exposed educated Europeans to new ideas, greatly expanding their horizon.

**Chapter Four: The Reformation and Counter Reformation**

* 1. **Religion in Western Europe in the eve of the reformation c.1500**

Russia and much of the Balkans were Eastern Orthodox but there were many Catholics and Muslims in the Balkans also. The rest Europe was Catholic with the exception of the Jewish minority which was unpopular and suffered various disabilities. The Catholic Church was an international organization whose spiritual head was the Pope of Rome. The Pope was also the independent political ruler of extensive territory in Italy called the Papal States acquired in the middle ages. The church was very wealthy and owned extensive land especially some of the big monasteries. The church also had the right to collect a compulsory church tax called the title. In theory the church and the clergy were outside the authority of secular rulers in ecclesiastical matters. Moreover, ecclesiastical law courts had jurisdiction over lay people in such matters as heresy, marriage, wills and inheritance. However the power of secular rulers had been increasing in the later middle ages and strong rulers, especially national rulers had much control over the church within their own territories. For example, rulers made the important appointments in the church.

In fact back 1500 the wealth and position of the church depended on the continued support of rulers. If the church lost this support it would be in danger of collapse. This is in fact what happened at the Reformation when in some though not all countries’ rulers turned against the Catholic Church and turned to the rival “heretical” form of Christianity, Protestantism. The Catholic was vulnerable at the end of the middle ages because its clergy were criticized for various forms of corruption and abuses. This doesn’t mean that Europe was against religion but rather many people felt that the clergy were not living up to the proper standards of Christianity.

Corruption of the clergy was a feature particularly in Italy and Germany but was a relatively minor problem in other countries for example in Spain and England. Also the ignorance of some of the lower clergy and the monks was criticized. It is also worthnothing that although Europe had been officially Christian for about 1000 years there were still enormous ignorance of Christian doctrine among the masses especially in remote rural areas and popular religion (i.e. religion of the masses, especially the rural masses) was still very much mixed with **relics of paganism** and **magical practices**. Abuses and corruption in the church were not new and did not really matter too much while the Catholic Church was believed to have the correct and only mechanism for salvation. It was also necessary to attend mass every Sunday and important holidays. It was also necessary to confess one’s sin regularly to a priest and receive from the priest a **penance** to show sorrow for the sins committed and receive from the priest **absolution** from these sins. It was also necessary to performs “good works” according to one’s means.

The church taught that most Christians after death would go to a pace called **purgatory**. Purgatory was a pace of punishment for sins committed on earth. Absolution from a priest meant that the sinner escaped external punishment in hell but the sinner’s soul still have to go to purgatory for a shorter or grater length of time depending on the number of sins committed and the seriousness of the sins. However it was possible to escape purgatory by getting an **indulgence**. An indulgence was a certificate of exemption from purgatory issued by the pope on his authority as Catholics believed as the representative of Christ on earth. Indulgencies could be even obtained for dead people to get their souls out of purgatory. Indulgencies were sold for money and were a valuable part of the revenue of the papacy (institution of the popes).

* 1. **Luther, Calvin, The Anabaptists**

The reformation was begun by Martin Luther (1483-1546). He was a German monk and priest and taught theology at the University of Wittenberg in Germany. After long personal anxiety in which he doubted his own salvation Luther had a personal religious experience and came to the conclusion that the mechanism of salvation as taught by the church was wrong. Letter went back to the epistles (letters) of St. Paul in the New Testament especially Epistle to the Romans and Epistles to the Galatians. Following what Luther believed to be Paul’s teaching Luther argued the doctrine of “justification [salutation] by faith alone”. This doctrine meant that sinful humanity can never disserve or earn salutation by “works” meaning what man does but Christians received salutation as a free fit from God through faith and faith alone. For Luther faith meant absolute trust in Christi alone for salutation. Luther taught that good “works” of charity are the fruit of faith but do not merit salvation.

**The Clash**

The sale of indulgencies was particularly objectionable to Luther because it went against the basic doctrine of justification by faith. In 1517 John Tetzel was selling indulgencies in Luther’s area of Germany. Luther felt he must protest. Luther wrote 95 theses (points/arguments) against indulgencies and he nailed these theses to the door of the castle church in Wittenberg. Luther’s intention was to invite public debate about the indulgencies. He did not initially intend or expect that his challenge to the indulgencies would divide the church in the west. Luther believed that a debate would lead to the church rejecting indulgencies and returning to what Luther regarded as the true New Testament of dependence on faith. However this did not happen. The church did not give up indulgencies. They were too profitable. Also to condemn indulgencies would be to admit that the church and the popes in the past had been wrong. The Pope finally condemned Luther as a heretic in two papal bulls ExsurgeDomine in 1520 and Deceit in 1521 (make Luther’s heretic final).

Indulgencies were the original issues began in the Reformation but it soon became clear that Luther’s teaching challenged the whole basic system of late medieval Catholicism. Another important doctrine of Luther’s was that he put the authority of the scriptures that is the Bible above the authority of the pope and finally he rejected the authority of the pope completely and indeed argued that the pope is the anti-Christ predicted in some places in the New Testament. Luther also put forward the doctrine of “the priesthood of all believers” meaning that through faith a Christian has direct access to God without needing a priest as an intermediary. According to this doctrine there is no fundamental division in to two classes of Christian’s priests and lay people. Luther did not however abolish the energy for his followers but made the clergy primarily the educated experts whose role was to explain the scriptures and preach “the word of God” meaning the message of salutation through faith. However one distinction between the clergy and laymen Luther and other protestant leaders did remove. Luther said that the clergy should be free to marry and he himself set an example by marring an ex-nun. Luther and later Protestants rejected monasticism. Luther and other Protestants also insisted that church services/worship must be in the language of the people not Latin. In Germany of course this meant German. Luther also translated the Bible in to German so that it could be accessible to more popes. Luther also wrote a number of hymns.

When the pope condemns Luther the pope called on the secular rulers of Germany (princes) to eliminate Luther and his heresy. The principal ruler of Germany was the Holy Roman Emperor Charles V who a firm catholic. Charles was not able to suppress Luther because Luther’s religious movement gained wide support in Germany and most important gained the support of a number of important princes and nobles who accepted Luther’s ideas and supported his movement. Luther increased his support in Germany because his movement had a strongly nationalist appeal against the pope who was an Italian and a foreigner. **From 1529 on the supporters of the reformation became known as Protestants**.

The reformation began in Germany but spread rapidly outside Germany. One season for the spread of the Reformation was the large number of printing presses which spread protestant ideas. However the followers of the Reformation did not remain limited in **one church**. Other leaders arose who agreed with Luther **on the basic protestant doctrines of justification by faith**, **the supremacy of scripture and the priest hold of all believers**. **But** disagree with Luther on other points. **Within Protestantism therefore different churches appeared.**

In the 16th and 17th cs. the most important rival form of Protestantism to Lutheranism was Calvinism. John Calvin (1509-1564) was French but be settled in the Swiss city state of Geneva where he became dominant unit his death. From Geneva Calvin’s doctrines spread else were. Calvinism became more dynamic and expansionist than Lutheranism. First it seemed to be more consistent, systematic and logical than Lutheranism and Calvin give clear expression to his doctrines in his influential book, **The Institutes of the Christian Religion** (1536). Calvinism also gave more roles to elected lay elders in the church which was popular among zealous laymen.

**Calvinism strongly emphasized the doctrine known as predestination**. This doctrine is found in the Bible, for example Romans chapter 9 Saint (St.) Augustine had also taught predestination and the church had formally accepted this doctrine. However Catholics & most Protestants rather downplayed this doctrine. Calvin, however, insisted that since the doctrine is found in the scripture must be taught. predestination meant that before God created the world and humanity God choose those who would be save (the elect) and relegated all other (the reprobate) to external damnation. Calvin agreed that salutation is by faith but said that faith itself is a gift from God which he gives to the elect but not to others. The doctrine of predestination gave great strength and self-confidence in all aspects of life to those who believed that they were among the elect.

**Radicals/extremes**

On the left wing of Protestantism in the 16th and 17th cs. were the **Anabaptists**. They were theologically, socially, economically and even politically radical. The Anabaptists were a minority but in the 16th c. they were a fairly large minority. They gained their followers particularly from the poor and oppressed because Anabaptism was criticism of society in religious form. The Anabaptists were regarded as heretics and as socially and politically dangerous by Catholics and main stream Lutherans, Protestants unlike equal. The Anabaptists were ruthlessly persecuted by Catholic and Protestant rulers especially after a group of Anabaptist took power in the city of Munster in 1534-35. The city was besieged and the Anabaptist was massacred when Munster was captured in 1535. Most Anabaptists were in fact non-violent, pacifists but the Munster incident frightened the rulers and ruling classes and made them determined to suppress Anabaptism as much as they could.

* 1. **The Counter-Reformation**

At first it seemed that Protestantism might become the religion of all or most of western (not Italy, Spain and Portugal) and central Europe. This did not happen. The Catholic Church despite abuses had much vitality and the Reformation was confronted by a movement of Catholic revival usually called the **Counter-Reformation**. The Counter-Reformation aimed at revival by eliminating abuses and strengthening the administrative structures of the church while maintaining the Church’s doctrines and spiritual authority of the pope with no concessions to Protestantism.

The papacy reformed itself. popes became more concerned with their religious roll instead of subordinating this to their position as Italian rulers. The Council of Trent (northern Italy) meeting in a number of cessions between 1545and 1563 established a clear Catholic doctrinal position and approved specific reforms. One of the important reforms decreed by the Council of Trent was improvement in the training of ordinary clergy. Each diocese (area under the religious/spiritual control of the pope) was ordered to have a seminary for priests. It took time for this to be implemented but by the 18th c. the parish clergy were better educated, more moral and had more sense of spiritual vocation. The catholic organization within the church called the Society of Jesus (Jesuits) were the very effective in spearhead of the Counter-Reformation. The organization was founded by is Ignatius Loyola (c.1491-1556),a Spaniard. The members of this organization were carefully selected, well trained, highly disciplined and completely dedicated.

Catholic rulers had an important role in the Counter-Reformation using the power of the state to keep their countries (e.g., Austria, Bulgaria, Spain …) Catholic and to eliminate Protestantism in their territories. In the 16th and 17th cs. there was very little religious toleration in Europe. Catholic and Protestant rulers wanted their subjects to follow the same religion as their rulers. The main reason for this was that religion was so important that rulers feared that they couldn’t depend on the political loyalty of their subjects if their subjects or many of their subjects had a different religion from the ruler. In fact this was often true in the 16th and 17th cs. Rebellion did sometimes come from religious minorities Catholic or Protestant, especially when these minorities were persecuted.

There were religious minorities Catholic or Protestant but these minorities were disliked, suspected, subjected to legal disabilities and persecuted. **Toleration was only practiced in the Dutch Republic,** and there, mainly in the cities, especially Amsterdam. Religious toleration increased though not everywhere in the 18th. It increased because of the influence of the Enlightenment and growing religious skepticism (doubt/disbelieving) among educated people. There was also a realization that religious differences need not meant political disloyalty if there was toleration. In addition the economic advantages of toleration were now recognized.

The Counter-Reformation halted the advance of Protestantism and won back some areas for Catholicism (Poland, parts of Hungary …) but the Counter-Reformation was not completely successful. Large areas and important countries remained Protestant, particularly in northern Europe. The principal Protestant states were the Dutch Republic (the Calvinists), Sweden, Britain and Prussia, northern state of Germany. The principal Catholic powers, though in power and wealth, were Spain, Austria and above all France.

**Chapter Five: The Enlightenment**

**5.1. Introduction**

The Enlightenment is the name given to the major late 17th and 18th cs. intellectual movement in Europe and North America. Its chief center was France but it affected almost all parts of Europe to some extent. The intellectual leaders of the French Enlightenment were called the **philosophes, in French (philosophers)**. However, the France philosophes were not interested in metaphysics (abstract thought) but in practical human concerns. The principal philosophers were Montesquieu (1689-1755), Diderot (1713-1784), Voltaire (1694-1778) and Jean Jacques Rousseau (1712-1778) though Rousseau’s ideas were very different from other philosophes. Outside France Adam Smith in Scotland was a leader of the Scottish Enlightenment. In Italy Beccaria was a pioneer of legal theory and legal reform. In North America Benjamin Franklin was an important figure of the American Enlightenment. The Enlightenment was a movement of elites, the educated people at the top of society. It was not a mass movement and did not include all those people who had higher education. However it influenced more people than the previous Renaissance.

**5.2. Origin of the Enlightenment**

The principal immediate intellectual origin of the Enlightenment can be found in the progress of the natural sciences in Western Europe in the 17th c. The discovery of scientific laws in the natural sciences, the laws which showed how the universe operated gave great confidence to intellectual in the power of human reason and confidences that natural laws could be discovered also for the social sciences and in fact all fields/areas of human activity. Discovery and application of these laws would lead to progress and greater human happiness. The Enlightenment was definitely interested in the improvement and great happiness of human society and believes that progress was possible. The 18th c. Enlightenment had some generally accepted ideas and values. **First the Enlightenment was rational**. It placed great confidence in human reason that is the ability of educated human intelligence properly and consistently applied and free from prejudice and dogma to reach correct conclusions in all fields and to discover natural laws in all fields of activates. **Second the Enlightenment was basically optimistic**. It believed that progress was possible and change for the better was also possible through the use of reason. In fact, that the use of reason could improve the human condition. The Enlightenment saw evidence of progress in the increase in human knowledge and the advance of material prosperity. **Belief in progress and positive change was an important intellectual development**. In the past there had been deep respect for custom and ancient institutions and practices just because they were old. Moreover, in the past religion with its emphasis on human sin cast doubts on the reality of progress. The Renaissance had regarded the achievements of its own time as far inferior to the achievements of classical Greece and Rome and this also cast doubts on the reality of progress. However, in the Enlightenment thinkers really did believe in progress through change and believe that it was possible to get beyond the achievements of Greece and Rome and this was now being done/or achieved. Some optimists believed that progress was even inevitable. This was the belief satirized by Voltaire in his novel ***Candide***. Voltaire and other lenders of the Enlightenment were not certain that reason would necessarily prevail in the world characterized by much ignorance, superstition, folly and selfishness. **Nevertheless, in general optimism was a keynote of the Enlightenment** and most of the thinkers of the Enlightenment believed that progress was at least possible and was being achieved. The Enlightenment challenged all existing ideas and judged all social and political institutions by their rationality and utility/usefulness in contributing to human happiness and human betterment.

**5.3.Enlightenment and Religion**

The Enlightenment was strongly secular and even anti-religious. The Enlightenment rejected the intellectual hegemony of established religion. The Enlightenment in so far as it accepted religious believe that religion must agree with reason. This attitude led to **deism**. Deism began in England in the 17th c. and was most evident in England and France in the late 17th c. and in the 18th c. **Deism accepted the existence of a supreme being for First Cause to explain the existence of the universe**. **But deism argued that creator of the universe was an impersonal being**. Deists argued that the Supreme Being having created the universe then allowed the universe to operate according to its own natural laws without divine intervention. Deism rejected dogma based on revelation in the Bible or through the church. Deism therefore rejected doctrines like the incarnation and resurrection. It rejected miracles and it rejected prayer. In fact deism while accepting a supreme being removed the traditional content of Christianity and made any religion subordinate to human reason. Ever practicing Christian laymen and clergy in protestant countries especially tended to deemphasize dogma and to put the main emphasis on Christian ethics. Most christens also still put some emphasis on the ideas of immortality of the soul and what was called a “system of rewards and punishments after death” (heaven/hell). This was regarded as a necessary support for morality and support also for the social order by keeping the poor in their place. Open atheism was fairly rare partly because all countries still had laws against atheism and blasphemy even though they were no larger strictly enforced. Nevertheless, in the 2nd half of the 18th c. there was atheism meaning a denial in the existence of any God Supreme Being or creator at all. The French philosophd’Holbach was a notorious atheist and so was Hume in Britain.

**5.4. Connection between the Enlightenment and the French Revolution**

The Enlightenment had radical implications because it challenged accepted beliefs and institutions including divine right monarchy and it therefore undermined the religious pillars of absolutism in France. In fact in France the Enlightenment prepared the way intellectually for the French Revolution of 1789. However, the leading philosphs were not intellectually and consciously revolutionaries. The Enlightenment was a movementt “of the educated little for the educated little”. The French philosphs wanted reform and progress from above not revolution from below. The philosophs were not all democratic. They tended to despise the masses for their ignorance and superstition and they doubted that the masses could become much different in the foreseer future. The French Enlightenment wanted constitutional monarchy but with government in the hands of educated people who were also owners of property. They did not want or expect to achieve constitutional change by violent revolution. The great exception to the relative social and political conservatism of the Enlightenment was Jean Jacques Rousseau who really was radical by the standards the time. His most important work was ***The Social Contract*** (1762). Rousseau praised direct democracy and a republican form of government. he approved of the social and economic equality of small peasant properties and craftsmen and criticized large accumulations of wealth especially if they were not earned by work. Rousseau became extremely influential among the educated and his influence was very high in the 1770s and 1780s. Rousseau was therefore a major factor in the coming of the French Revolution of 1789 and the way in which the revolution then developed. Cobban says “the whole generation of 1789 was Rousseauist”. Rousseau’s ideas inspired the Jacobins especially their principal leader Robespierre in the most radical period of the French Revolution between 1792 and 1794.

**Chapter Six: The English Bourgeoisie Revolution**

**Introduction**

**Evolving Traditions of English Government**

English rulers repeatedly clashed with nobles and the Church. Most battles developed as a result of efforts by the monarch to raise taxes or to impose royal authority over traditional feudal rights. Out of these struggles evolved traditions of government that would influence the modern world.

**John-** John was a clever, greedy, cruel, and untrustworthy ruler. During his reign, he faced three powerful enemies.

1. King Philip II of France- in 1502, John suffered a major setback when he lost a war with King Philip II and had to give up English-held lands in Anjou and Normandy.
2. Pope Innocent II – John battled with Innocent III over selecting a new archbishop of Canterbury. When John rejected the Pope’s nominee, the Pope responded by excommunicating him. To save himself and his crown, John had to accept England as a fief of the papacy and pay a yearly fee to Rome.
3. English Nobles - finally John angered his own nobles with oppressive taxes and other abuses of power. In 1215, a group of rebellious barons cornered John and forced him to sign the **Magna Carta**, or great charter. In this document, the king affirmed a long list of feudal rights. **Legal rights of townspeople and the church** (e.g. protecting every freeman from arbitrary arrest, imprisonment, and other legal actions, except “by legal judgment of his peers or by the law of the land”. The king also agreed not to raise new taxes without first consulting his great Council of lords and clergy.

The Magna Carta contained two very important ideas that in the long run would shape government traditions in England.

1st. it asserted that the nobles had certain rights. Overtime, the rights that had been granted to nobles were extended to all English citizens.

2nd. The Magna Carta made it clear that the monarch must obey the law.

In keeping with the Magna Carta, English rulers often called on the Great Council for advice. During the 1200s, this body evolved into parliament. Its name comes from the French word **parler**, meaning “to talk”. As Parliament acquired a larger role in government, it helped unify England.

**6.1. The Tudors and the Parliament**

From 1485 to 1603, England was ruled by the **Tudor dynasty**. Although the Tudors believed in divine right, they shrewdly recognized the value of good relations with Parliament.

When Henry VIII broke with the Roman Catholic Church, he turned to Parliament to realize his actions. Parliament approved the action of supremacy, making the monarch head of the Church of England.

A constant need for money also led Henry to consult Parliament frequently. Although he had inherited a bulging treasury, he quickly used up his funds fighting overseas wars. Like her father, Elizabeth I both consulted and controlled Parliament. Ker skill in handling Parliament helped make **“Good Queen Bess”** a popular and successful ruler.

**The Early Stuarts**

Elizabeth died in 1603 without a direct heir. The throne passed to her relatives, the Stuarts the ruling family of Scotland. The Stuarts were neither as popular as the Tudors nor as skillful in dealing with Parliament. They also inherited problems that Henry and Elizabeth had long suppressed. The result was a “century of revolution” that pitted the Stuart monarchs against Parliament.

**The Royal Challenge**

The first Stuart monarch, **James I**, had agreed to rule according to English laws and customs. Soon, however, he declared himself absolute. Leaders in the **House of Commons** fiercely resisted the king’s claim to absolute power.

James dissolved Parliament and collected taxes on his own. James also found himself embroiled in disputes with **dissenters**, Protestants who differed with the Church of England. One group called **Puritans**, sought to “purify” the Church of catholic practices. James rejected their demands, vowing to “harry them out of this land or else do worse”.

**Parliament Responds –**in 1622, **Charles I** inherited the throne. Like his father, Charles behaved like an absolute monarch. He imprisoned his foes without trial and squeezed the nation for money. By 1628, though, his need to raise taxes forced Charles to summon Parliament. Before voting any funds, Parliament insisted that Charles sign the **Petition of Right**. It prohibited the king from raising taxes without the consent of Parliament or from imprisoning anyone without just cause.

Charles did sign the Petition, but he then dissolved Parliament in 1629. For 11 years, he ignored the Petition and ruled the nation without Parliament.

In 1637, Charles and William Laud, Archbishop of Canterbury, tried to impose the Anglican prayer book on Scotland. The **Calvinist** Scots revolted. To get fund to suppress the Scottish rebellion, Charles finally had to summon Parliament in 1640. When it met, however, Parliament launched its own revolt.

**The Long Parliament –** the 1640 Parliament became known as the Long Parliament because it lasted on and off until 1653. Its actions triggered the greatest political revolution in English history. In a mounting struggle with the king, Parliament tried and executed his chief ministers, including Archbishop Laud. It further declared that the Parliament could not be dissolved without its own consent and called for the abolition of bishops.

In 1642, he led troops into the House of Commons to arrest its most radical leaders. They escaped through a back door and soon raised their own army. The calash now moved to the battlefield.

**The English Civil War**

The civil war that followed lasted from 1642 to 1649. Like the ***Fronde***that occurred about the same time in France, the English Civil War posed a major challenge to absolutism. But while the forces of royal power won in France, in England the forces of revolution triumphed.

**Cavaliers and Roundheads –** at first, the odds seemed to favour the **Cavaliers**, or supporters of Charles I. Many cavaliers were wealthy nobles, proud of their plumed hats and fashionably long hair. Well trained in dueling and warfare, the Cavaliers expected a quick victory. But their foes proved to be tough fighters with the courage of their convictions. The forces of Parliament were composed of country gentry, town-dwelling manufacturers, and Puritan clergy. They were called **Roundheads** because their hair was cut close around their heads.

The Roundheads found a leader of genius in **Oliver Cromwell**. A Puritan member of the lesser gentry, Cromwell was a skilled general. He organized the “New Model Army” for Parliament into a disciplined fighting force. Inspired by Puritan Chaplains, Cromwell’s army defeated the Cavaliers in a series of decisive battles. By 1647, the king was in the hands of parliamentary forces.

**Execution of the King –** eventually, Parliament set up a court to put the king on trial. The Parliament condemned him to death as “a tyrant, traitor, murderer and public enemy”. On a cold January day in 1649, Charles I stood on a scaffold surrounded by his foes. “I am a martyr of the people,” he declared.

The execution sent shock waves throughout Europe. In the past, kings had occasionally been assassinated or died in battle. But for the first time, a ruling monarch had been tried and executed by his own people. The parliamentary forces had sent a clear signal that, in England, no ruler could claim absolute power and ignore the rule of law.

**The Commonwealth**

After the execution of Charles I, the House of Commons abolished the monarchy, the House of Lords, and the official Church of England. It declared England a **Republic**, known as the **Commonwealth**, under the leadership of Oliver Cromwell.

**Challenges to the Commonwealth –** the new government faced many threats. Supporters of Charles II, the uncrowned heir to the throne, attacked England by way of Ireland and Scotland. Cromwell led forces into Ireland to crush the uprising:

* Harsh measure against the Irish Catholic majority
* In 2652, Parliament passed a law exiling most Catholics to barren land into the west of Ireland.

Squabbles also splintered forces within the Commonwealth. One group, called **Levellers**, thought that poor men should have as much say in government as the gentry, lawyers, and other leading citizens. The Levelers ideas horrified the gentry who dominated Parliament. Cromwell and his generals suppressed the Levellers, as well as more radical groups who threatened property ownership. As the challenges to order grew, Cromwell took the title **Lord Protector** in 1653. From thereon, he ruled through the army.

**End of the Commonwealth –** Oliver Cromwell died in 1658. Soon after, the Puritans lost grip on England. Many people were tired of military rule and strict Puritan ways. In 1660, a newly elected Parliament invited Charles II to return to England from exile.

**From Restoration to Glorious Revolution**

In May 1660, cheering crowds welcomed Charles II back to London. Charles restored the official Church of England but tolerated other Protestants such as Presbyterians, Quakers, and Baptists. Although Charles accepted the Petition of Right, he shared his father’s faith in absolute monarchy and secretly had Catholic sympathies.

**A New Clash with Parliament –** Charles’s brother, James, inherited the throne in 1685. Unlike Charles, James flaunted his Catholic faith (suspending law at whim and appoint Catholics to high office).

In 1688, alarmed Parliamentary leaders invited James Protestant daughter, **Mary**, and her Dutch Protestant husband, **William III of Orange** to become rulers of England. When William and Mary landed with their army late in 1688, James II fled to France. This bloodless overthrow of a king became known as the **Glorious Revolution.**

**The English Bill of Rights –** before they could be crowned, William and Mary had to accept several acts passed by Parliament in 1689 that became known as the English Bill of Rights. The Bill of Rights:-

* Ensured the superiority of Parliament over the monarchy,
* Required the monarchy to summon parliament regularly and gave the House of Commons the “power of the purse” – a king or queen could no longer interfere in Parliamentary debates or suspend laws,
* Barred any Roman Catholic from sitting on the throne,
* Restated the rights of English citizens, such as trial by jury,
* Abolished excessive fines and cruel to unjust punishment, and
* Affirmed the principle of **habeas corpus** – no person could be held without first being charged with a specific crime.

Later, the **Toleration Act of 1689** granted limited religious freedom to Puritans, Quakers, and other dissenters, though not yet to Catholics. Still only, members of the Church of England could hold public office.

**Chapter Eight**: **The Collapse of the Old Regime in France and the Rise of NapoleonBonaparte**

**8.1. The Revolution at its Height: The Fall of the Monarchy and the Jacobin Dictatorship, 1791-July 1794**

The new constitution did not last long the king and the queen were distrusted and even hated and in Paris the masses now strongly opposed monarchy as such. However it was the outbreak of external war in 1792 which brought the fall of the monarchy. As a contemporary put it “the war revolutionized the revolution”. **Why there was war**? The monarchies of Europe disliked the revolution and Austria was moving towards military intervention against France by the end of 1791. In France the response to threats from Austria was to attack before being attacked. The Legislative Assembly had the illusion that war against Austria would be easy and that if war came the nations of Europe would do what the France had done that is make revolution against their rulers. France therefore declared war on Austria in April 1792 and somewhat later Austria’s ally Prussia joined Austria in war against France. France was not prepared for war and the discipline of the French army had broken down as a result of the revolution. Also many army officers who were nobles had abandoned the army and France and gone outside France as émigrés (political refugees). France, therefore, faced defeats and a military crisis as an Austrian- Prussian army invaded France to crush the revolution. The crisis roused the anger of the people of Paris against internal (counter-revolutionaries) and external enemies and made the monarchy even more unacceptable because people behaved correctly that Louis XVI and his wife were relaying on Austrian victory in the war to end the revolution. The military crises made the Legislative Assembly agree to arm the people of Paris and open the National Guard previously a bourgeois force to any citizens. The result was another great popular consolation in Paris on 10 August 1792. The insurrection forced the Legislative Assembly to suspend the king from his political functions and imprison him and his family. The rising shamed that the monarchy and also the rather conservative constitution of 1791 were unacceptable to the people of Paris. The Legislative Assembly therefore decided to dissolve itself after new election for a new assembly in which all adult male citizens would be eligible to vote. The new assembly which called itself the **National Convention** was to write a new constitution. The military crisis was temporarily resolved by the French victory over the invading Austro-Prussian army at the Battle of Valmy in eastern France, 20, September 1792.

The convention met on Sept, 21, 1792. It immediately voted the abolition of the monarchy and proclaimed France a republic the famous First republic the ex-king Louis XVI was executed in public in Paris by the new instrument of revolutionry justice called the guillotine. His wife Marie Antoinette was guillotined latter in October 1793 Louis himself had been executed in January 1793. The convention was divided between two political parties the Jacobins and the Jirondins. Most of the members of the convention however did not belong to either entry but would follow whichever party the Jacobins or the Jirondins came out on top in the struggle for power both the Jacobins and the Jirondins were bourgeois in membership and leadership. But they both looked support from the revolutionary people. It was the Jacobins who increasingly gained this support of the Paris masses and the militant activist leaders of the Paris masses. The Jacobins gained this support because they appeared to be and were in fact the most radical ruthless and determined of the political groups in France. The Jacobins were willing to go to the very limit of bourgeois revolution to defend the France republic against external and eternal enemies. The chief leader and theorist of the Jacobins was Maxim lien Robespierre. Determined leadership was necessarily for the republic because by the summer of 1793 the internal and external situation of France had again become critical. Internally armed counter-revolution threatened the conversion especially in the vendee area of the west. This was also economic crisis as the value of the assigners collapsed and good supplies again became scance in Paris. Externally the war had spread so that France was at war against most of the major states of Europe and some of the minor states as well. France against faced causation especially across the within frontier where enemy forces were capturing the France frontier fortresses before marching on Paris between May 31 and June 2,1793 there was another major rising in Paris. This rising put the Jacobi us in power and eliminated their Jirondins rivals. The convention remained in existence and was still the theoretical supreme authority. But the conversion followed Jacobin leadership. Anew democratic constitution was quickly written and adopted in June 1793 but its implementation was post phoned until the end of the war and it never was implemented. A new revolutionary calendar was adopted with 1792 as year I of the new revolutionary era and new names for the months of the year. At this stage also the revolutionary radicals abandoned Christianity and turned to atheism. Churches were closed and Priests were executed. Robespierre himself disapproved of atheism and propagated his own official religion of the Supreme Being. The Jacobin dictatorship was exercised by the powerful committee of public safety in Paris of twelve men. In departments (administration districts in to which France had been dividing early by the revolution Jacobin officials took their orders from the committee in Paris. To solve particularly difficult local problems representatives on Mission were sent out from Paris by the committee with full powers and troops to act ruthlessly as necessity required the Jacobins dealt with internal opposition by Terror. Armed counter-revolution was crushed by force. Individuals suspected of counter-revolution sympathies were tired by new revolutionary courts and sent quickly to the guillotine Terror escalated and became counterproductive because it got out of control and alienated more and more people from the increasingly bloody regime.

The economic crisis was dealt with by requisitioning food supplies and by a system of rationing in Paris and the major cities. A law of the maximum imposed a fixed level of prices and ways. This did check control inflation and restored some value to the assignats.

The Jacobins handled the military crisis by level on Masse (mass mobilization) of August 1793. This decree in principal requisitioned all France material resources and all France man power for the war. As a result large armies were raised and equipped and also new and capable generals were found to command these armies moreover, contradictions between the allies hindered their efforts against France. At the cattle of Waltignies October 1793 the invasion of France in the North was halted. Then in June 1794 France won a big victory in the north at the Battle of Flevrus. Then followed almost 20 years of French victory on land, and French domination of Europe. In naval power, however, Britain kept supremacy.

* 1. **The fall of the Jacobins, The Regime of Thermidor. The Directory the Copy of Brumaire 1794-1799.**

The Jacobins were a minority group holding power with the support of the militarist activities among the people of Paris. The bourgeoisie as a whole accepted Jacobin rule in the period of crisis but the victory of Flevrus ended the military crisis. The bourgeoisie as a whole then wanted to get rid of Jacobin dictatorship, radicalism & terror. Also the Jacobins lost much of their support from the ordinary people of Paris because the Jacobin executed popular militant activist leaders of people when these leaders criticized the Jacobin from the left. Also the petty bourgeoisie disliked the maximum on prices and wage workers disliked the maximum on wages. Finally, the Jacobins quarreled among themselves and some of the Jacobin party turned against Robespierre and his closeted supporters. The convention suddenly asserted itself. It voted the arrest of Robespierre and his closet they were guillotined and this became known as the coup of thermidor July 1794 because it took place in the new revolutionary month of named thermidor.

After thermidor the non-Jacobin majority of the convention took control in what became as the regime of thermidor. The Jacobin clictatorship was ended and the Jacobin party itself was suppressed. The terror was ended but in the provinces many Jacobin were killed in a conservative “white terror” of revenge. The revolution moved to the right though not to complete counter revolution new constitution & the forming of the directory. The problem of the convention was to ward monarchist counter-revolution on the right and a revival of Jacobinism on the left. The convention finally adopted a new constitution in August 1795 called the constitution of the year III this new constitution established the regime called the directory. The constitution of the year III restricted political rights to a very small minority of owners of substantial property. There were two elected assemblies called the council of 500 and the council of elders. These assemblies made laws and voted taxation however executive power was put in the hands of 5 directors hence the directory. The directors changed at intervals. They were chosen by the council of 500 from a list submitted by the council of Elders.

The directory was one of the worst bourgeois regimes of modern France. It was very corrupt and also inefficient and so weak that in many areas of the south banditry flourished and the government couldn’t even collect the taxes effectively. Because of the extreme limitation on political rights support for the directory was very limited even among the bourgeoisie. The regime was widely disliked and despised. It was under political attack from the monarchist right and from revering Jacobinism on the left. Also there was the first appearance on the left of revolutionary socialism even though the word socialism was not used until later in the 1830s. This first appearance was the conspiracy of equals of 1796 led by Gracchus Babeuf. Babeuf wanted to establish a revolutionary dictatorship and use it to abolish private property in the means of production and to distribute production to all citizens equally. Babeuf had no chance of success this plot to over throw the government was discovered and he was guillotined in 1797. The poor suffered severe hardships when the economic controls of the Jacobins were removed. There was great suffering in particular in the terrible winter of 1795-96. However, speculators and army contractors and contrabandists flourished and flaunted their wealth. The currency again collapsed in inflation until the paper currency was withdrawn and a metallic currency of gold and silver coins was restored in 1797. Externally France survived this bad regime because the French armies were now strong and experienced under good generals. Also the enemies of France continued to be disunited. The Thermidorean regime and the directory relied on the army to keep themselves in power against attempts in Paris to overthrow them from the left or the right. This brought the army in to politics the result was that on November 9/10/1799 in military coup of brumbies a successful general who had achieved victories in Italy and in Egypt used the army to put himself in power and overthrow the directory.

* 1. **Napoleon Bonaparte (b. 1769-d.1821)**

After the coup of bromaire Napoleon disguised his dictatorship by some constitutional forms of a republic. The new regime established after Napoleon was called the consulate. There were three (3) consuls with large executive powers. Napoleon was first consul to hold office for 10 years. In fact he was the only consul who really mattered. In 1802 Napoleon became first consul for life with the right to name his own successor. Then in 1804 Napoleon took the final step by restoring the monarchy in France with himself as Emperor. This regime is known in French history as the 1st Empires. Napoleon’s dictatorship over France was more absolute than the old regime had been even at the height of its power. The dictatorship could be up held if necessary by the army. But the army was usually outside France on campaign or garrisoning occupied territory. The regime kept control by strictly censorship of the press large number of police and police spies and informers. In the department Napoleon established official called prefects to control the departments and carry out the orders of the central government however, Napoleons regime did not depend on cores ion alone his regime was acceptable to the majority of the French. In fact Napoleon’s dictatorship was the 1st of the modern dictatorship based on mass support. Napoleon had consulate of 1794 and then the imperial regime of 1804 approved by popular plebiscites and although officials manipulated these plebiscites. Nevertheless it seems clear that Napoleon did have large popular support.

**Was it revolutionary or counter-revolutionary?**

Napoleon ended the ongoing revolution. He gave France internal peace, order and stability. Napoleon’s regime suppressed political freedom. However it was not counter-revolutionary regime suppressed of return to the old regime. Napoleon pressured the positive gains of the revolution except political freedom. Landlords and peasants kept the church lands which they had bought in the revolution. Title and feudal dues were not restored. Napoleon restored nobility but this nobility did not have legal privileges. Napoleon regime confirmed the abolition of privilege which the revolution had affected in 1789. Napoleon’s regime likes the revolution implemented the “career open to talents” which continued to benefit the bourgeoisie above all because all posts in the administration or army were open to them. There were other reasons for the popularity of the regime. There was prosperity at least until about 1811 thought of course French prosperity was based on the domination and exploitation of most of Europe. In addition Napoleon ended the quarrel with the Catholic Church. In 1802 he made a concordat with the pope. This was important because Catholicism was still the religion of very large numbers of the French people and ending the quarrel with the Catholic Church put the Church on the side of Napoleons regime. The Catholic Church in France government official recognition as the Church of the great majority of the French people and the salaries of the salaries of the clergy were a given paid by the state. However all other Churches and Jews and people with no religion had complete toleration and in fact civil rights? The same as Catholics. Napoleons regime carried out important internal constructive work. The most important initiative was the introduction of uniform code of civil criminal and commercial law called code of Napoleon. This code had influenced the legal system of many countries outside France. Napoleon later quarreled with the pope and after 1811 the economy was not so prosperous which tended to undermine support for the regime. However the less Napoleon’s dawn full was the result of external defeat. In 1812 Napoleon launched a campaign against Russia which together with Britain was only really independent state hot dominated by France. The 1812 campaign ended in complete disasters in the retreat from Moscow which destroyed almost but in the whole of Napoleon army. Napoleons raised new armies but in the companying of 1813-14 his forces were pushed back from Germany in to France and France was invaded by a coalition of powers against Napoleon. Moreover, French domination had been so much resented in Europe that the ruler’s supporting Napoleon had the support of their peoples. In 1814 Napoleon’s own generals turned against him and forced him to abdicate. The allies then made peace with France. Napoleon was allowed to go and be the ruler of the small island called Elba in the Mediterranean. The eldest brother of Louis XVI became king of France as Louis XVIII. In 1815 Napoleon returned to France and resumed power in what became known as the “100 days”. He resumed power because his old soldiers rallied to him and Louis XVIII went in to exile. However the allies would not accept Napoleon. They recognized the anti-French coalition. Napoleon was totally defeated at the Battle of Waterloo in June 1815. After this, Napoleon was sent as a prisoner to the Island of St. Helena in the Atlantic Ocean. This was Napoleon’s final downfall and he died on St.Helena in 1821. Louis XVIII came back to France. In the peace between France and the Allies France lost all the conquest made in the wars of the revolution and Napoleon.

**Chapter Nine: The World between 1815 and 1848**

**9.1 The Congress of Vienna**

After Waterloo, diplomats and heads of states again sat down at the Congress of Vienna. They faced the monumental task of restoring stability and order in Europe after years of revolution and war

**Gathering of Leaders -** the congress met for 10 months, from Sept. 1814 to June 1815. It was a brilliant gathering of European leaders. the party and host was arranged by Emperor Francis I of Austria. The major participants were.

Prince Clemens von Metternich of Austria

Czar Alexander I of Russia and

Lord Robert Castlereagh of Britain

Defeated France was represented by Prince Charles Maurice de Talleyrand.

**Goals of the Congress**

The chief goal of the Vienna decision makers was to create a lasting peace by establishing a balance of power and protecting the system of monarchy. Each of the leaders also pursued his own goals: -

1. Metternich, the dominant figure at the Congress, to restore the status quo (Latin for “the way things are”) of 1792.
2. Alexander I urged a “**holy alliance**” of Christian monarchs to suppress future revolutions.
3. Lord Castlereagh was determined to prenent a revival French military power.
4. France - the aged diplomat Talleyrand shrewdly played the other leaders against one another to get defeated France accepted as an equal partner.

**Balance of Power: -** the peace makers also redrew the map of Europe. To contain French ambitions they ringed France with strong countries.

1. In the north, they added Belgium and Luxembourg to Holland to create the kingdom of the Netherlands.
2. To prevent French expansion eastward, they gave Prussia lands along the Rhine River they
3. They also allowed Austria to reassert control over northern Italy.

The policy of containment proved fairly successful in maintaining the peace.

**Restoration of Monarchs -** to turn the clock to 1792, the architects of monarchies of the peace promoted the **principle of legitimacy**, restoring hereditary monarchies that the French Revolution or Napoleon had unseated.

* Put Louis XVIII on the French throne
* Later, they restored “legitimate” monarchs in Portugal, Spain and the Italian states.

**9.2. The Holy Alliance**

The Holy Alliance, 1815, was an agreement among the emperors of Russia and Austria and the King of Prussia, signed on Sept. 26. It was quite distinct from the Quadruple Alliance (Quintuple, after the admission of France) of Great Britain, Russia, Austria, and Prussia, arrived at first in 1814 and revived in 1815. Nevertheless, both were a part of the resettlement of European political boundaries and influence after the fall of the Napoleonic Empire.

The alliance was essentially an attempt by the conservative rulers to preserve the **social order (and the monarchies)**. It was particularly the product of the religious zeal of Czar Alexander I (czar of Russia from 1801–1825). Specifically, it accomplished nothing, since it was merely a vague agreement that the sovereigns would conduct themselves in consonance with Christian principles. Ultimately all the princes of Europe signed the alliance except three—George IV of England, who could not for constitutional reasons; the pope, who could not for religious reasons; and the sultan, who was not a Christian prince. Austria repressed revolution in Italy, and France interfered in Spain in the name of the Holy Alliance. It was against that reactionary solidarity that the British foreign policy under George Canning was directed. The Monroe Doctrine was, in part, an outgrowth of that same fear of the European reactionary powers.

**The Holy Alliance, 1815**

This was the brainchild of Tsar Alexander I who proposed an alliance of all the Christian rulers of Europe in order to deal with each other like brothers, and to rule their subjects like fathers, in the name of God. Every country in Europe joined it, with three notable exceptions:

* Ottoman Turkey, which because it was a Moslem state, was not invited to join.
* The Papal States because the Pope, as head of the Catholic Church, was suspicious of an alliance created by an Orthodox Christian ruler.
* Britain, which thought the idea was a complete waste of time or, as the British foreign minister described it, "a piece of sublime mysticism and nonsense".

In practice, the Holy Alliance would be used to protect the "legitimate" rulers (those representing

God) from any form of attack, including internal revolution.

**9.3. The Working class Movement and the 1848 Revolutions**

A brief description of revolts in Europe in 1830: France Revolution, Belgium independence, and Polish, Italian and German revolutions

1. **Successful revolution in France and Belgium**
2. The July Revolution 1830 in France - Liberal and anti-clerical movement
3. The Belgium Revolution of 1830
4. **July Revolution, France**

The French Revolution of 1830, also known as the July Revolution, Second French Revolution or TroisGlorieuses in French, saw the overthrow of King Charles X, the French Bourbon monarch, and the ascent of his cousin Louis-Philippe, Duke of Orléans, who himself, after 18 precarious years on the throne, would in turn be overthrown. It marked the shift from one constitutional monarchy, the Bourbon Restoration, to another, the July Monarchy; the transition of power from the House of Bourbon to its cadet branch, the House of Orléans; and the substitution of the principle of popular sovereignty for hereditary right. Supporters of the Bourbon would be called Legitimists, and supporters of Louis Philippe Orléanists.

**Background**

On 16 September 1824, Charles X ascended to the throne of France. He was the younger brother of Louis XVIII, who, upon the defeat of Napoleon I, and by agreement of the Allied powers, had been installed as King of France. The fact that both Louis and Charles ruled by hereditary right rather than popular consent was the first of two triggers for Les TroisGlorieuses, the "Three Glorious Days" of the July Revolution.

On September 16, 1824, after a lingering illness of several months, the 69-year-old Louis XVIII died childless. Therefore his younger brother, Charles, aged 66, inherited the throne of France. On 27 September Charles X as he was now known, made his state entry into Paris to popular acclaim. During the ceremony, while presenting the King the keys to the city, the comte de Chabrol, Prefect of the Seine, declared: "Proud to possess its new king, Paris can aspire to become the queen of cities by its magnificence, as its people aspire to be foremost in its fidelity, its devotion, and its love."

But eight months later, the mood of the capital had sharply worsened in its opinion of the new king. The causes of this dramatic shift in public opinion were many, but the main two were:

* The imposition of the death penalty for anyone profaning the Host of the Catholic Church and
* The provisions for financial indemnities for properties confiscated by the 1789 Revolution and the First Empire of Napoleon. These indemnities to be paid to any one, whether noble or non-noble, had been declared "enemies of the Revolution".

Critics of the first accused the king and his new ministry of pandering to the Catholic Church, and by so doing violating guarantees of equality of religious belief as specified in **La Charte.**

The second matter that of financial indemnities, was far more opportunistic than the first. This was because since the restoration of the monarchy, there had been demands from all groups to settle matters of property ownership; to reduce, if not eliminate, the uncertainties in the real estate market both in Paris and in France. But liberal opponents, many of whom were frustrated Bonapartists, began a whispering campaign that Charles X was only proposing this in order to shame those who had not emigrated. Both measures, they claimed, were nothing more than clever subterfuge meant to bring about the destruction of La Charte.

1. **The Belgium Revolution of 1830**

**Background and Process**

In 1815 Belgium was given to Holland to form the United Netherlands under the Dutch king, William I as a barrier against French ambition. The union of Holland and Belgium failed because the Dutch and the Belgium had different interests and were conscious of separate nationality

* They did not share the same mother tongue
* Dutch were predominantly Calvinists, the South Roman Catholic
* Belgium was an industrial & agricultural country
* Holland was largely commercial and seafaring.

The Belgium Revolution of 1830 rested on nationalist desires for independence and liberal opposition to the autocratic rule of William I who was tactless and self-willed. Belgium was run mainly in the interests of the Dutch minority and mainly by Dutch officials.

Inspired by the success of the French revolutionaries in July Revolution, the Belgians revolted against the ruler of William I. On 25 August 1830, performance of a revolutionary group caused riots in the provincial towns which developed in to revolution.

The wealthy classes in towns fearing disorders organized themselves into committees **o**f Society and Armed Civil Guard to protect property. Fearing the revolutionaries the king agreed to summon the States General, who on 29 September voted or separation. But meanwhile the insurrection in Brussels backed by bands of volunteers from other parts, had taken control. The Dutch troops were driven away and the provisional government as set up.

On 4 October it proclaimed complete independence of Belgium. On 18 November its independence was confirmed in a National Congress. By February 1831 it promulgated a new constitution, which was the most liberal in Europe at that time.

1. **Abortive Revolutions in Poland, Italian and German States**
2. **The 1830 Revolution in German Confederation**

The July Revolution in France acted as a spur to the liberal movement. Radical students and journalists became active after the news of July Revolution had reached Germany. They rallied together. Prussia and Austria were absorbed by their foreign affairs so that they could hardly take any interest in the fate of Germany. However, Metternich proved too strong for the revolutionaries. It was unsuccessful in Germany. [In 1834 Metternich persuaded the German states to receive the **Carlsbad Decrees**. So the achievement of the revolutionaries was slight. Only some concessions were made in some states such as Brunswick, Saxony and Bavaria.

1. **The 1830 Revolution in Italian States**

Liberals were encouraged by the July Revolution. The leaders were those intellectuals. The movement was weakened by **provincial rivalry** and **personal jealousies**. Some liberals and nationalities imagined that Louis Philippe might come to their support, but Louis Philippe had no desire to challenge Austria.

EnerichoMisely, a lawyer of Modena, had planned a scheme for the creation of constitutional kingdom of central Italy under the Duke of Francis of Modena. Misely believed that Louis Philippe would give him a new hope that France would oppose any Austrian intervention in Italy. He wanted Italian independence depended on conflict between France and Austria. In February 1831 a revolt broke out in Modena. Francis betrayed the movement and arrested those local leaders.

There were disturbances in Bologna and Parma. It was the lack of agreement between the rebels and the indifference of the masses that made the revolt failed.

1. **The 1830 Revolution in Poland**

In the Vienna Settlement Poland had been recognized as an independent kingdom under the over lordship of Russia. Alexander I had granted the constitution to Poles. Poland thus had its own system of government with an elected assembly and had its military and law courts. Liberty and freedom of press were also granted.

After 1818 Alexander I became increasingly reactionary and did not keep the terms of constitution. His successes Nicholas I was more autocratic. He determined to spread Russian influence in Poland and was going to destroy those liberal parties in Poland. The main opposition came from nobles and students, various secret societies and the officers of the army.

The July Revolution in France and Belgium led directly to the insurrection in Poland. Nicholas I intended to use Polish troops to crush the revolutionaries in France and Belgium. As a result in November 1830 these troops mutinied and seized their capital, Warsaw. With the support of the nobles and students set up a provisional government in Warsaw. Prussia gave every assistance to Russia. This insurrection was crushed within one year. Warsaw was feel in September 1830.

It was followed by the complete destruction of Polish freedom. Nocholas I had made Poland a part of Russian Empire Polish leaders were in exile. It was unsuccessful due to mainly three reasons.

1. Note the whole of Polish population took part in the revolution
2. Polish leaders could not agree among themselves
3. Britain and France did not help the Poles

**Chapter Ten: The Industrial Revolution (I.R.) and its Repercussions**

**10.1. Beginning of the Industrial Age**

**Introduction**

The I.R. started in Britain. in contrast with most political revolutions, it was neither sudden nor swift. Instead it was a long, slow uneven process in which production shifted from simple hand tools to complex machines. New sources of power replaced human and animal power. In the 250 years since it began, the I.R. has spread from Britain to the rest of Europe, to North America and around the globe.

1. **A Turning Point in History**

With the beginning of the I.R., the rural way of life began to disappear. By 1850, many country villages had grown into industrial towns and cities. Their inhabitants bought food and clothing in stores that offered large varieties of machine-made goods. Their homes were crowded, multi-story apartment buildings.

Industrial age travelers moved rapidly between countries and continents by train or steamship. Urgent messages flew along telegraph wires. Between 1830 and 1853, for example, new inventions and scientific “firsts” poured out each year:-

* An American dentist first used an anesthetic, or drug that prevents pain during surgery;
* An American inventor patented the first sewing machine;
* A French physicist measured the speed of light; and
* A Hungarian doctor introduced antiseptic methods to reduce the risk of women dying in childbirth.

1. **A New Agricultural Revolution**

Oddly enough, the I.R. was made possible in part by a change in the farming fields of Western Europe. The first agricultural revolution took place some 11,000 years ago when people learned to farm and domesticate animals. About 300 years ago, a second agricultural revolution took pace. It greatly improved the quality and quantity of farm products.

1. **Improved Methods of Farming**

The Dutch led the way in this new agricultural revolution. They built earthen walls known as dikes to reclaim land from the sea. They combined smaller fields into large ones to make better use of the land and used fertilizer from livestock to renew the soil.

1. **Enclosure Movement**

Enclosure is the process of taking over and fencing off land formerly shared by peasant farmers. In the 1500s they had enclosed land to gain pastures for sheep and increased wool output.

1. **The Population Explosion**

The agricultural revolution contributed to a rapid growth of population that continues today. The population beam of the 1700s was due more to declining death rates than to rising birthrates. The agricultural revolution reduced the risk of famine. In the 1800s, better hygiene and sanitation, along with improved medical care, further slowed death from disease.

1. **New Technology**

A third factor that helped trigger the I.R. was the development of new technology. New sources of energy, along will new materials enabled business owners to change the way work was done.

1. **An Energy Revolution**

During the 1700s, people began to harness new sources of energy. One vital power source was coal, used to develop the steam engine. In 1712, inventor Thomas Newcomen had developed a steam engine powered by coal to pump water out of mines.

About 1769, Scottish engineer James Watt imprinted on Newcomen’s engine. Watt’s engines would become a key power source of the I.R.

1. **Improved Iron**

Coal was also a vital source of fuel in the production of iron, a material needed for construction of machines and steam engines. The Darby family of Coalbrookdale pioneered new method of producing iron. In 1709, Abraham Darby used coal to smelt iron to separate iron from its ore

**10.2. Britain: the Leader**

**I. Why Britain?**

Why did the I.R begin in British? historians have identified a number of key factors that helped Britain lead the way

1. **Resources: - Britain had:**

* Large supplies of coal to power steam engines
* Plentiful iron to build the new machines
* Large number of workers, were needed to mine the coal and iron, build the factories and run the machines

1. **New Technology**

In the 1700s, Britain had plenty of skilled mechanics who were eager to meet the growing demand for new, practical inventions. Technology was an important part of the I.R., but it did not cause it. Only when other necessary conditions existed, including demand and capital, did technology pave the way for industrialization.

1. **Economic Condition**

From the mid-1600s to 1700s, trade from a growing overseas empire helped the British economy prosper. Beginning with the slave trade, the business class accumulated capital, or wealth to invest in enterprises such as ship building, mines, railroads and factories. At home, the population explosion busted the demand for goods.

1. **Political and Social Conditions**

Britain had a stable government that supported economic growth. It built a strong navy to protect its empire and overseas trade.

Religious attitudes also played a role. Many entrepreneurs came from religious groups that encouraged thrift and hard work.

**II. Changes in the textile industry**

The I.R. first took hold in Britain’s largest industry, textiles.

1. **Major Inventions -** under the “potting out” system, production was slow. As the demand for cloth grew, inventors came up with a string of remarkable devices that revolutionized the British textile industry.

* John Kay’s flying shuttle, helped weavers work so fast they soon outpaced spinners.
* James Hargreaves solved that problem by producing the spinning jenny in 1764, which spun many threads at the same time.
* A few years later, Richard Arkwright invented the water frame, which used water power to speed up spinning still further

1. **The First Factories**

The new machines doomed the “putting-out “system. They were too large and expensive to be operated at home. Instead, manufacturers built long sheds to house the machines. At first, they located the sheds near rapidly moving streams, which provided water power to run the machines. Later, machines were powered by steam engines.

**10.3. Life during the Industrial Age**

**I. The Factory System**

The heart of the new industrial city was the factory. There, the technology of the machine age imposed a harsh new way of life on workers.

1. **Rigid Discipline**

In factories workers faced a rigid schedule set by the factory **rerhistle**. working hours were long. Exhausted workers suffered accidents from machines that had no safety devises.

1. **Women Workers**

Employees often preferred to here women workers rather than men. They thought women could adapt more easily to machines and were easier to manage than men. They were, also able to pay women less than men, even for same work.

1. **Child Labour**

Factories and mines also hired many boys and girls. Because children had helped with farm work, parents accepted the idea of child labour to keep their families from starving.

1. **The Working Class**

**Protests -** as the I.R. began weavers and other skilled artisans resisted the new “labour-saving” machines that were costing them their jobs. Some smashed machines and burned factories. In England, such riots were called Luddites after a mythical figure Ned Ludd, who supposedly destroyed machines in the 1780s.

**10.4. New Way of Thinking**

**I. Laissez-Faire Economics**

During the Enlightenment, physiocrats argued that natural laws should be allowed to operate without interference. As part of this philosophy they believed that government should not interfere in the free operation of the economy.

1. **Legacy of Adam smith:** - the main prophet of laissez faire economics was Adam smith, author of the Wealth of Nations. Smith asserted that a free market - the unregulated exchange of goods and services would come to help everyone, not just the rich. According to him, the free market would produce more goods at lower prices, making them affordable by everyone.
2. **Maltus on Population: -** like Smith’s book, Thomas Malthus’s writings on population shaped economic thinking for generations. Maltus grimly predicted that population would outpaced the food supply. The only checks on population growth, he said, were war, disease, and famine.
3. **Ricardo on Wages**: - another influential British economist, David Ricardo agreed with Maltus that the poor had too many children. In his “iron law of wages,” Ricardo pointed out that when wages were high, families had more children. But more children meant a greater supply of labour, which led to lower wages and higher unemployment.

**II. The Utilitarians**

Other adopted laissez-faire doctrine to justify some government intervention. By 1800, Jeremy Bentham was preaching **utilitarianism**, the idea that the goal of society should be “the greatest happiness for the greatest member of its citizens. To Bentham, all laws or actions should be judged by their “Utility”.

Bentham’s chief follower, John Stewart Mill, also argued that actions are right if they promote happiness and wrong if they are cause pain.

**III. Emergence of Socialism**

White champions of laissez-faire economics praised individual rights, other thinkers focused on the good of society in general. They condemned the evils of industrial capitalism, which they believed had created a gulf between rich and poor. To end poverty and injustice, they offered a radical solution – **socialism**. Under socialism, the people as whole rather than private individuals would own and operate the “mean of production - the farms, factories, railways, and other large business that produced and second (distribution).

1. **The Utopians -** Early socialists tried to build self- sufficient communities in which all work was shared and all property was owned in common. When there was no difference between rich and poor, they felt, blighting between people would disappear. These early socialists were called **Utopians**, after Thomas More’s ideal community. The name implied that they were impractical dreamers.

**IV. The “Scientific Socialism” of Carl Marx**

In the 1840s, Karl Marx, a German philosopher, condemned the ideas of the Utopians as unrealistic idealism. He put forward a new theory, “**scientific socialism**,” which he claimed was based on a scientific study of history.

Mark and Engels wrote a pamphlet, the Communist Manifesto, which they published in 1448. Communism is a form of socialism that sees class struggle between employers and employees as unavoidable.

1. **Marxism** - in the Communist Manifesto, Marx theorized that economics was the driving force in history. The entire course of history, he argued, was “**the history of class struggles**” between the “**haves**” and the “**have-notes**”. The “haves” have always owned the means of production and thus controlled society and all its wealth. In industrialized Europe, Marx said the “haves” were the **bourgeoisie**. The “have-notes” were the **proletariat**, or working class.

According to Marx, the modern class struggle pitted the bourgeoisie against the proletariat. In the end, he predicted the proletariat would be triumphant. In would then take control of the means of production and set up a classless, communist society.

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